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CALENDAR FOR 1931.

January

S		4	11	18	25
M	-	5	12	19	26
Tu		6	13	20	27
W	.	7	14	21	28
Th	1	8	15	22	29
F	2	9	16	23	30
S	3	10	17	24	31

February

S	1	8	15	22	
M	2	9	16	23	
Tu	3	10	17	24	..
W	4	11	18	25	..
Th	5	12	19	26	
F	6	13	20	27	
S	7	14	21	28	

March

S	1	8	15	22	29
M	2	9	16	23	30
Tu	3	10	17	24	31
W	4	11	18	25	
Th	5	12	19	26	
F	6	13	20	27	...
S	7	14	21	28	

April

S		5	12	19	26
M		6	13	20	27
Tu		7	14	21	28
W	1	8	15	22	29
Th	2	9	16	23	30
F	3	10	17	24	
S	4	11	18	25	

May

S	..	3	10	17	24	31
M	..	4	11	18	25	
Tu		5	12	19	26	
W	.	6	13	20	27	..
Th	..	7	14	21	28	..
F	...	8	15	22	29	
S	..	9	16	23	30	

June

S	...	7	14	21	28	
M	1	8	15	22	29	..
Tu	2	9	16	23	30	..
W	3	10	17	24		..
Th	4	11	18	25	..	
F	5	12	19	26	...	
S	6	13	20	27	..	

July

S		5	12	19	26
M	..	6	13	20	27
Tu		7	14	21	28
W	1	8	15	22	29
Th	2	9	16	23	30
F	3	10	17	24	31
S	4	11	18	25	

August

S		2	9	16	23	30
M		3	10	17	24	31
Tu		4	11	18	25	..
W		5	12	19	26	
Th	..	6	13	20	27	
F	.	7	14	21	28	
S	1	8	15	22	29	

September

S		6	13	20	27
M		7	14	21	28
Tu	1	8	15	22	29
W	2	9	16	23	30
Th	3	10	17	24	
F	4	11	18	25	..
S	5	12	19	26	...

October

S		4	11	18	25
M		5	12	19	26
Tu		6	13	20	27
W		7	14	21	28
Th	1	8	15	22	29
F	2	9	16	23	30
S	3	10	17	24	31

November

S	1	8	15	22	29
M	2	9	16	23	30
Tu	3	10	17	24	..
W	4	11	18	25	..
Th	5	12	19	26	..
F	6	13	20	27	
S	7	14	21	28	

December

S	..	6	13	20	27	
M	.	7	14	21	28	..
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	..
W	2	9	16	23	30	...
Th	3	10	17	24	31	..
F	4	11	18	25		..
S	5	12	19	26

Phases of the Moon—JANUARY 31 Days.

○ Full Moon 4th, 6h 44 9m P.M. ● New Moon, 19th, 5h 56m A.M.
 ☾ Last Quarter 11th, 10h 39 2m A.M. ☽ First Quarter 27th 5h. 35 5m A.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	° S
Thursday	1	1	7	12	6	12	6	48	12 2	23 5
Friday	2	2	7	12	6	13	6	42	13 2	23 0
Saturday	3	3	7	13	6	13	6	43	14 2	22 55
Sunday	4	4	7	13	6	14	6	43	15 2	22 49
Monday	5	5	7	13	6	15	6	44	16 2	22 43
Tuesday	6	6	7	13	6	15	6	44	17 2	22 36
Wednesday	7	7	7	14	6	16	6	45	18 2	22 29
Thursday	8	8	7	14	6	17	6	45	19 2	22 22
Friday	9	9	7	14	6	17	6	46	20 2	22 14
Saturday	10	10	7	14	6	18	6	46	21 2	22 6
Sunday	11	11	7	14	6	18	6	46	22 2	21 57
Monday	12	12	7	15	6	19	6	46	23 2	21 48
Tuesday	13	13	7	15	6	20	6	47	24 2	21 38
Wednesday	14	14	7	15	6	21	6	47	25 2	21 28
Thursday	15	15	7	15	6	22	6	48	26 2	21 17
Friday	16	16	7	15	6	22	6	48	27 2	21 6
Saturday	17	17	7	15	6	23	6	48	28 2	20 55
Sunday	18	18	7	15	6	24	6	49	29 2	20 43
Monday	19	19	7	15	6	25	6	49	0 5	20 31
Tuesday	20	20	7	15	6	25	6	49	1 5	20 19
Wednesday	21	21	7	15	6	26	6	50	2 5	20 6
Thursday	22	22	7	15	6	27	6	50	3 5	19 53
Friday	23	23	7	15	6	27	6	50	4 5	19 39
Saturday	24	24	7	15	6	28	6	50	5 5	19 25
Sunday	25	25	7	15	6	29	6	51	6 5	19 11
Monday	26	26	7	15	6	29	6	51	7 5	18 56
Tuesday	27	27	7	14	6	29	6	51	8 5	18 41
Wednesday	28	28	7	14	6	30	6	51	9 5	18 26
Thursday	29	29	7	14	6	30	6	52	10 5	18 10
Friday	30	30	7	14	6	31	6	52	11 5	17 54
Saturday	31	31	7	14	6	31	6	52	12 5	17 38

Phases of the Moon—FEBRUARY 28 Days.

☉ Full Moon . . . 3rd, 5h 55-56m A.M.

☾ New Moon . . . 17th, 6h. 40-41m. P.M.

☾ Last Quarter . . . 9th, 9th 59-60m. P.M.

☽ First Quarter . . . 25th, 10h. 11-12m. P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M.	D	S
Sunday	1	32	7	13	6	21	0	52	13 5	17 21
Monday	2	33	7	13	6	22	0	53	14 5	17 4
Tuesday	3	34	7	13	6	22	0	53	15 5	16 47
Wednesday	4	35	7	13	6	23	0	53	16 5	16 29
Thursday	5	36	7	12	6	24	0	53	17 5	16 11
Friday	6	37	7	12	6	24	0	53	18 5	15 53
Saturday	7	38	7	11	6	25	0	53	19 5	15 35
Sunday	8	39	7	11	6	25	0	53	20 5	15 16
Monday	9	40	7	10	6	26	0	53	21 5	14 57
Tuesday	10	41	7	10	6	26	0	53	22 5	14 38
Wednesday	11	42	7	10	6	27	0	53	23 5	14 19
Thursday	12	43	7	9	6	27	0	53	24 5	13 59
Friday	13	44	7	9	6	28	0	53	25 5	13 39
Saturday	14	45	7	8	6	28	0	53	26 5	13 19
Sunday	15	46	7	7	6	29	0	53	27 5	12 59
Monday	16	47	7	7	6	29	0	53	28 5	12 38
Tuesday	17	48	7	6	6	40	0	53	29 5	12 17
Wednesday	18	49	7	5	6	40	0	53	0 8	11 56
Thursday	19	50	7	5	6	40	0	53	1 8	11 35
Friday	20	51	7	4	6	41	0	53	2 8	11 14
Saturday	21	52	7	4	6	41	0	53	3 8	10 52
Sunday	22	53	7	3	6	41	0	53	4 8	10 31
Monday	23	54	7	2	6	42	0	52	5 8	10 09
Tuesday	24	55	7	2	6	42	0	52	6 8	9 47
Wednesday	25	56	7	1	6	42	0	52	7 8	9 25
Thursday	26	57	7	1	6	42	0	51	8 8	9 03
Friday	27	58	7	0	6	43	0	51	9 8	8 40
Saturday	28	59	7	0	6	43	0	51	10 8	8 18

Phases of the Moon—MARCH 31 Days.

☾ Full Moon 4th, 4h 61m P.M. ☉ New Moon. 19th 1h, 20 6m P.M.
 ☾ Last Quarter 11th, 10h. 45' 2m A.M. ☽ First Quarter 27th, 10h 54' 2m A.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.	°
Sunday	1	60	6	59	6	44	0	51	11 8	7 55
Monday	2	61	6	58	6	45	0	51	12 8	7 32
Tuesday	3	62	6	57	6	45	0	51	13 8	7 10
Wednesday	4	63	6	56	6	46	0	51	14 8	6 47
Thursday	5	64	6	56	6	46	0	51	15 8	6 24
Friday	6	65	6	55	6	46	0	50	16 8	6 1
Saturday	7	66	6	54	6	47	0	50	17 8	5 37
Sunday	8	67	6	53	6	47	0	50	18 8	5 14
Monday	9	68	6	53	6	47	0	50	19 8	4 51
Tuesday	10	69	6	52	6	48	0	49	20 8	4 27
Wednesday	11	70	6	51	6	48	0	49	21 8	4 4
Thursday	12	71	6	50	6	48	0	49	22 8	3 40
Friday	13	72	6	49	6	48	0	49	23 8	3 16
Saturday	14	73	6	49	6	49	0	49	24 8	2 53
Sunday	15	74	6	48	6	49	0	49	25 8	2 29
Monday	16	75	6	47	6	49	0	48	26 8	2 6
Tuesday	17	76	6	46	6	49	0	48	27 8	1 42
Wednesday	18	77	6	45	6	49	0	48	28 8	1 18
Thursday	19	78	6	44	6	50	0	47	29 8	0 54
Friday	20	79	6	43	6	50	0	47	1 0	0 31
Saturday	21	80	6	42	6	50	0	47	2 0	0 7
Sunday	22	81	6	41	6	50	0	46	3 0	0 17
Monday	23	82	6	40	6	51	0	46	4 0	0 40
Tuesday	24	83	6	39	6	51	0	46	5 0	1 4
Wednesday	25	84	6	39	6	51	0	45	6 0	1 28
Thursday	26	85	6	39	6	51	0	45	7 0	1 51
Friday	27	86	6	38	6	51	0	45	8 0	2 15
Saturday	28	87	6	37	6	52	0	45	9 0	2 38
Sunday	29	88	6	36	6	52	0	44	10 0	3 2
Monday	30	89	6	35	6	52	0	44	11 0	3 25
Tuesday	31	90	6	34	6	52	0	44	12 0	3 49

Phases of the Moon—APRIL 30 Days.

☉ Full Moon 3rd, 1h. 35.5m A.M. ☾ New Moon .. 18th, 6h 29.7m A.M.
 ☾ Last Quarter 10th, 1h 45.2m A.M. ☽ First Quarter 25th, 7h 10.1m P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			M	M	M	M	M	M	D	N
Wednesday	1	91	6	33	6	53	0	43	13 0	4 12
Thursday	2	92	6	33	6	53	0	43	14 0	4 35
Friday	3	93	6	32	6	53	0	42	15 0	4 58
Saturday	4	94	6	31	6	53	0	42	16 0	5 21
Sunday	5	95	6	30	6	54	0	42	17 0	5 44
Monday	6	96	6	29	6	54	0	42	18 0	6 7
Tuesday	7	97	6	28	6	54	0	41	19 0	6 29
Wednesday	8	98	6	28	6	54	0	41	20 0	6 52
Thursday	9	99	6	27	6	54	0	41	21 0	7 15
Friday	10	100	6	26	6	55	0	40	22 0	7 37
Saturday	11	101	6	25	6	55	0	40	23 0	7 59
Sunday	12	102	6	24	6	55	0	40	24 0	8 11
Monday	13	103	6	23	6	55	0	40	25 0	8 43
Tuesday	14	104	6	22	6	56	0	39	26 0	9 5
Wednesday	15	105	6	21	6	56	0	39	27 0	9 27
Thursday	16	106	6	20	6	56	0	39	28 0	9 48
Friday	17	107	6	19	6	57	0	38	29 0	10 10
Saturday	18	108	6	19	6	57	0	38	0 3	10 31
Sunday	19	109	6	18	6	57	0	38	1 3	10 52
Monday	20	110	6	17	6	57	0	38	2 3	11 13
Tuesday	21	111	6	16	6	57	0	38	3 3	11 33
Wednesday	22	112	6	15	6	58	0	37	4 3	11 54
Thursday	23	113	6	14	6	58	0	37	5 3	12 14
Friday	24	114	6	14	6	58	0	37	6 3	12 34
Saturday	25	115	6	13	6	59	0	37	7 3	12 54
Sunday	26	116	6	13	6	59	0	37	8 3	13 14
Monday	27	117	6	13	6	59	0	36	9 3	13 33
Tuesday	28	118	6	12	7	0	0	36	10 3	13 52
Wednesday	29	119	6	12	7	0	0	36	11 3	14 11
Thursday	30	120	6	12	7	0	0	36	12 3	14 30

Phases of the Moon—MAY 31 Days.

○ Full Moon .. 2nd, 10h 44m. A.M.

● New Moon

. 17th, 8h. 57m. P.M.

☾ Last Quarter

9th, 6h. 18 m. P.M.

☾ First Quarter

25th, 1h. 58m. A.M.

☾ Full Moon

. 31st 8h. 30m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time.						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon. P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D.	N
Friday	1	121	6	11	7	1	0	36	18 3	14 46
Saturday	2	122	6	11	7	1	0	36	14 3	15 7
Sunday	3	123	6	10	7	1	0	36	15 3	15 25
Monday	4	124	6	10	7	2	0	35	16 3	16 42
Tuesday	5	125	6	9	7	2	0	35	17*3	16 0
Wednesday	6	126	6	9	7	2	0	35	18 3	16 17
Thursday	7	127	6	8	7	3	0	35	19 3	16 34
Friday	8	128	6	8	7	3	0	35	20 3	16 51
Saturday	9	129	6	7	7	3	0	35	21 3	17 07
Sunday	10	130	6	7	7	4	0	35	22*3	17 23
Monday	11	131	6	6	7	4	0	35	23 3	17 39
Tuesday	12	132	6	6	7	4	0	35	24 3	17 55
Wednesday	13	133	6	5	7	5	0	35	25 3	18 10
Thursday	14	134	6	5	7	5	0	35	26 3	18 25
Friday	15	135	6	5	7	5	0	35	27 3	18 39
Saturday	16	136	6	4	7	6	0	35	28 3	18 54
Sunday	17	137	6	4	7	6	0	35	29 3	19 8
Monday	18	138	6	4	7	7	0	35	0 7	19 21
Tuesday	19	139	6	3	7	7	0	35	1 7	19 35
Wednesday	20	140	6	3	7	7	0	35	2 7	19 48
Thursday	21	141	6	3	7	8	0	35	3 7	20 0
Friday	22	142	6	2	7	8	0	35	4 7	20 12
Saturday	23	143	6	2	7	9	0	35	5 7	20 24
Sunday	24	144	6	2	7	9	0	35	6 7	20 36
Monday	25	145	6	2	7	9	0	35	7 7	0 47
Tuesday	26	146	6	2	7	10	0	36	8 7	0 58
Wednesday	27	147	6	2	7	10	0	36	9 7	21 9
Thursday	28	148	6	1	7	11	0	36	10 7	21 19
Friday	29	149	6	1	7	11	0	36	11 7	21 29
Saturday	30	150	6	1	7	11	0	36	12 7	21 38
Sunday	31	151	6	1	7	12	0	36	13 7	21 47

Phases of the Moon—JUNE 30 Days.

☾ Last Quarter 8th, 11h 48m. A.M. ☽ First Quarter 23rd, 5h, 53m A.M.
 ☾ New Moon 16th, 8h, 31 7m A.M. ☾ Full Moon 30th, 6h, 18m A.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise, A.M.		Sunset, P.M.		True Noon, P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	N
Monday	1	152	6	1	7	12	0	36	14 7	21 56
Tuesday	2	153	6	1	7	12	0	36	15 7	22 4
Wednesday	3	154	6	1	7	13	0	37	16 7	22 12
Thursday	4	155	6	1	7	13	0	37	17 7	22 21
Friday	5	156	6	1	7	14	0	37	18 7	22 27
Saturday	6	157	6	1	7	14	0	37	19 7	22 34
Sunday	7	158	6	1	7	14	0	37	20 07	22 40
Monday	8	159	6	1	7	15	0	37	21 07	22 46
Tuesday	9	160	6	1	7	15	0	38	22 07	22 52
Wednesday	10	161	6	1	7	15	0	38	23 07	22 57
Thursday	11	162	6	1	7	16	0	38	24 07	23 2
Friday	12	163	6	1	7	16	0	38	25 07	23 6
Saturday	13	164	6	1	7	16	0	38	26 07	23 10
Sunday	14	165	6	1	7	17	0	39	27 07	23 14
Monday	15	166	6	1	7	17	0	39	28 07	23 17
Tuesday	16	167	6	1	7	17	0	39	29 07	23 19
Wednesday	17	168	6	1	7	17	0	39	1 2	23 22
Thursday	18	169	6	2	7	18	0	39	2 2	23 24
Friday	19	170	6	2	7	18	0	40	3 2	23 26
Saturday	20	171	6	2	7	18	0	40	4 2	23 26
Sunday	21	172	6	2	7	18	0	40	5 2	23 27
Monday	22	173	6	3	7	19	0	40	6 2	23 27
Tuesday	23	174	6	3	7	19	0	40	7 2	23 27
Wednesday	24	175	6	3	7	19	0	41	8 2	23 26
Thursday	25	176	6	3	7	19	0	41	9 2	23 25
Friday	26	177	6	3	7	19	0	41	10 2	23 24
Saturday	27	178	6	4	7	19	0	41	11 2	23 22
Sunday	28	179	6	4	7	20	0	42	12 2	23 20
Monday	29	180	6	4	7	20	0	42	13 2	23 17
Tuesday	30	181	6	5	7	20	0	42	14 2	23 14

Phases of the Moon—JULY 31 Days

(Last Quarter .. 8th, 5h. 21.6m. A.M.

> First Quarter

22nd 10h. 46.1m. A.M.

● New Moon

15th, 5h. 50.0m. P.M.

○ Full Moon

29th 6h. 17.5m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H	M	H	M.	H	M	D	N ,
Wednesday	1	182	6	5	7	20	0	45	15 2	23 11
Thursday	2	183	6	5	7	20	0	42	16 2	23 7
Friday	3	184	6	6	7	20	0	42	17 2	23 3
Saturday	4	185	6	6	7	20	0	43	18 2	22 58
Sunday	5	186	6	6	7	20	0	43	19 2	22 53
Monday	6	187	6	7	7	20	0	43	20 2	22 47
Tuesday	7	188	6	7	7	20	0	43	21 2	22 42
Wednesday	8	189	6	7	7	20	0	43	22 2	22 35
Thursday	9	190	6	8	7	20	0	44	23 2	22 29
Friday	10	191	6	8	7	20	0	44	24 2	22 22
Saturday	11	192	6	8	7	20	0	44	25 2	22 14
Sunday	12	193	6	8	7	20	0	44	26 2	22 6
Monday	13	194	6	8	7	20	0	44	27 2	21 58
Tuesday	14	195	6	9	7	20	0	44	28 2	21 50
Wednesday	15	196	6	9	7	19	0	44	29 2	21 41
Thursday	16	197	6	9	7	19	0	44	0 8	21 31
Friday	17	198	6	10	7	19	0	45	1 8	21 22
Saturday	18	199	6	10	7	19	0	45	2 8	21 12
Sunday	19	200	6	10	7	19	0	45	3 8	21 1
Monday	20	201	6	11	7	18	0	45	4 8	20 51
Tuesday	21	202	6	11	7	18	0	45	5 8	20 39
Wednesday	22	203	6	12	7	18	0	45	6 8	20 26
Thursday	23	204	6	12	7	18	0	45	7 8	20 16
Friday	24	205	6	12	7	17	0	45	8 8	20 4
Saturday	25	206	6	13	7	17	0	45	9 8	19 52
Sunday	26	207	6	13	7	17	0	45	10 8	19 39
Monday	27	208	6	13	7	17	0	45	11 8	19 26
Tuesday	28	209	6	14	7	16	0	45	12 8	19 12
Wednesday	29	210	6	14	7	16	0	45	13 8	18 58
Thursday	30	211	6	14	7	16	0	45	14 8	18 44
Friday	31	212	6	15	7	15	0	45	15 8	18 30

Phases of the Moon—AUGUST 31 Days

☾ Last Quarter, 6th, 9h 57.8m P.M.

☽ First Quarter, 20th 5h 6 3m P.M.

☾ New Moon, 14th 1h 57 0m A.M.

☾ Full Moon, 28th, 8h 39.0m A.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon. P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M		
Saturday	1	213	6	15	7	15	0	45	15 8	18 15
Sunday	2	214	6	15	7	14	0	45	17 8	18 0
Monday	3	215	6	16	7	14	0	45	18 8	17 45
Tuesday	4	216	6	16	7	13	0	45	19 8	17 30
Wednesday	5	217	6	16	7	13	0	45	20 8	17 14
Thursday	6	218	6	17	7	12	0	45	21 8	16 58
Friday	7	219	6	17	7	12	0	44	22 8	16 41
Saturday	8	220	6	17	7	11	0	44	23 8	16 25
Sunday	9	221	6	18	7	11	0	44	24 8	16 8
Monday	10	222	6	18	7	10	0	44	25 8	15 50
Tuesday	11	223	6	18	7	9	0	44	26 8	15 33
Wednesday	12	224	6	19	7	9	0	44	27 8	15 15
Thursday	13	225	6	19	7	8	0	44	28 8	14 57
Friday	14	226	6	19	7	8	0	43	0 4	14 39
Saturday	15	227	6	20	7	7	0	43	1 4	14 21
Sunday	16	228	6	20	7	6	0	43	2 4	14 2
Monday	17	229	6	20	7	6	0	43	3 4	13 43
Tuesday	18	230	6	20	7	5	0	43	4 4	13 24
Wednesday	19	231	6	21	7	4	0	43	5 4	13 2
Thursday	20	232	6	21	7	4	0	42	6 4	12 45
Friday	21	233	6	21	7	3	0	42	7 4	12 25
Saturday	22	234	6	21	7	2	0	42	8 4	12 6
Sunday	23	235	6	21	7	1	0	42	9 4	11 46
Monday	24	236	6	22	7	1	0	41	10 4	11 25
Tuesday	25	237	6	22	7	0	0	41	11 4	11 5
Wednesday	26	238	6	22	6	59	0	40	12 4	10 44
Thursday	27	239	6	22	6	59	0	40	13 4	10 23
Friday	28	240	6	23	6	58	0	40	14 4	10 2
Saturday	29	241	6	23	6	57	0	40	15 4	9 41
Sunday	30	242	6	23	6	56	0	39	16 4	9 20
Monday	31	243	6	23	6	55	0	39	17 4	8 59

Phases of the Moon—SEPTEMBER 30 Days.

☾ Last Quarter 5th, 0h 51 2m P.M. ☽ First Quarter 10th, 2h, 7 3m A.M.
 ☾ New Moon 12th, 9h 56 4m A.M. ☾ Full Moon 27th, 1h 14 9m A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time.						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H.	M.	H.	M.	H.	M.	D.	N.
Tuesday	1	244	6	23	6	55	0	39	18 4	8 37
Wednesday	2	245	6	24	6	54	0	39	19 4	8 15
Thursday	3	246	6	24	6	53	0	38	20 4	7 53
Friday	4	247	6	24	6	52	0	38	21 4	7 31
Saturday	5	248	6	24	6	51	0	38	22 4	7 9
Sunday	6	249	6	25	6	50	0	37	23 4	6 47
Monday	7	250	6	25	6	50	0	37	24 4	6 25
Tuesday	8	251	6	25	6	49	0	37	25 4	6 2
Wednesday	9	252	6	25	6	48	0	36	26 4	5 40
Thursday	10	253	6	25	6	47	0	36	27 4	5 17
Friday	11	254	6	25	6	46	0	36	28 4	4 54
Saturday	12	255	6	25	6	45	0	35	29 4	4 32
Sunday	13	256	6	26	6	44	0	35	1 1	4 9
Monday	14	257	6	26	6	43	0	35	2 1	3 46
Tuesday	15	258	6	26	6	43	0	34	3 1	3 23
Wednesday	16	259	6	26	6	42	0	34	4 1	3 0
Thursday	17	260	6	26	6	41	0	33	5 1	2 36
Friday	18	261	6	27	6	40	0	33	6 1	2 13
Saturday	19	262	6	27	6	39	0	33	7 1	1 50
Sunday	20	263	6	27	6	38	0	32	8 1	1 27
Monday	21	264	6	27	6	37	0	32	9 1	1 4
Tuesday	22	265	6	27	6	36	0	32	10 1	0 40
Wednesday	23	266	6	27	6	36	0	31	11 1	0 17
Thursday	24	267	6	28	6	35	0	31	12 1	0 6
Friday	25	268	6	28	6	34	0	31	13 1	0 30
Saturday	26	269	6	28	6	33	0	30	14 1	0 53
Sunday	27	270	6	28	6	32	0	30	15 1	1 17
Monday	28	271	6	28	6	31	0	30	16 1	1 40
Tuesday	29	272	6	29	6	30	0	29	17 1	2 3
Wednesday	30	273	6	29	6	29	0	29	18 1	2 27

Phases of the Moon—OCTOBER 31 Days

☾ Last Quarter 5th, 1h 45 m. A.M.

☽ First Quarter 18th 2h 50-0m P.M.

● New Moon 11th, 3h 35 9m P.M.

○ Full Moon 28th, 7h 3-9m P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise.		Sunset		True Noon.			
			A.M.		P.M.		P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M.	D	S
Thursday	1	274	6	29	6	29	0	28	19 1	2 50
Friday	2	275	6	29	6	28	0	28	20 1	3 13
Saturday	3	276	6	29	6	27	0	28	21 1	3 37
Sunday	4	277	6	30	6	26	0	28	22 1	4 0
Monday	5	278	6	30	6	25	0	27	23 1	4 23
Tuesday	6	279	6	30	6	24	0	27	24 1	4 46
Wednesday	7	280	6	30	6	24	0	27	25 1	5 9
Thursday	8	281	6	30	6	23	0	27	26 1	5 32
Friday	9	282	6	31	6	22	0	26	27 1	6 55
Saturday	10	283	6	31	6	21	0	26	28 1	6 18
Sunday	11	284	6	31	6	20	0	26	29 1	6 41
Monday	12	285	6	31	6	19	0	25	0 8	7 4
Tuesday	13	286	6	32	6	19	0	25	1 8	7 26
Wednesday	14	287	6	32	6	18	0	25	2 8	7 49
Thursday	15	288	6	33	6	17	0	25	3 8	8 11
Friday	16	289	6	33	6	16	0	25	4 8	8 34
Saturday	17	290	6	33	6	16	0	25	5 8	8 56
Sunday	18	291	6	34	6	15	0	24	6 8	9 18
Monday	19	292	6	34	6	14	0	24	7 8	9 40
Tuesday	20	293	6	34	6	14	0	24	8 8	10 1
Wednesday	21	294	6	34	6	13	0	24	9 8	10 23
Thursday	22	295	6	35	6	12	0	23	10 8	10 46
Friday	23	296	6	35	6	12	0	23	11 8	11 8
Saturday	24	297	6	36	6	11	0	23	12 8	11 27
Sunday	25	298	6	36	6	10	0	23	13 8	11 48
Monday	26	299	6	36	6	10	0	23	14 8	12 9
Tuesday	27	300	6	37	6	9	0	23	15 8	12 20
Wednesday	28	301	6	37	6	9	0	23	16 8	12 41
Thursday	29	302	6	37	6	8	0	23	17 8	13 9
Friday	30	303	6	37	6	7	0	23	18 8	13 20
Saturday	31	304	6	38	6	7	0	22	19 8	13 49

Phases of the Moon—NOVEMBER 30 Days

☾ Last Quarter

3rd 0h 47 5m P.M.

☽ First Quarter

17th, 7h 43 4m. A.M.

● New Moon

10th, 4h. 25 4m A.M.

○ Full Moon

25th, 0h 30 0m P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise. A.M.		Sunset. P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	°
Sunday	1	306	6	38	6	6	0	22	20 8	14 9
Monday	2	306	6	39	6	6	0	22	21 8	14 28
Tuesday	3	307	6	39	6	5	0	22	22 8	14 47
Wednesday	4	308	6	40	6	5	0	22	23 8	15 6
Thursday	5	309	6	40	6	4	0	22	24 8	15 25
Friday	6	310	6	41	6	4	0	22	25 8	15 43
Saturday	7	311	6	41	6	4	0	22	26 8	16 1
Sunday	8	312	6	42	6	4	0	22	27 8	16 19
Monday	9	313	6	42	6	4	0	23	28 8	16 37
Tuesday	10	314	6	43	6	3	0	23	0 8	16 54
Wednesday	11	315	6	43	6	3	0	23	1 8	17 11
Thursday	12	316	6	44	6	3	0	23	2 8	17 28
Friday	13	317	6	44	6	3	0	23	3 8	17 44
Saturday	14	318	6	45	6	2	0	23	4 8	18 0
Sunday	15	319	6	45	6	2	0	23	5 3	18 16
Monday	16	320	6	46	6	1	0	23	6 3	18 31
Tuesday	17	321	6	46	6	1	0	23	7 3	18 46
Wednesday	18	322	6	47	6	1	0	23	8 3	19 1
Thursday	19	323	6	48	6	0	0	23	9 3	19 16
Friday	20	324	6	48	6	0	0	24	10 3	19 30
Saturday	21	325	6	49	6	0	0	24	11 3	19 44
Sunday	22	326	6	49	6	0	0	24	12 3	20 57
Monday	23	327	6	50	6	0	0	24	13 3	20 10
Tuesday	24	328	6	51	6	0	0	25	14 3	20 23
Wednesday	25	329	6	51	6	0	0	25	15 3	20 35
Thursday	26	330	6	52	6	0	0	25	16 3	20 47
Friday	27	331	6	53	6	0	0	25	17 3	21 58
Saturday	28	332	6	53	6	0	0	26	18 3	21 9
Sunday	29	333	6	54	6	0	0	26	19 3	21 20
Monday	30	334	6	54	6	0	0	27	20 3	21 31

Phases of the Moon—DECEMBER 31 Days.

(Last Quarter 2nd, 10h 20.5m P.M.) First Quarter 17th, 4h 12.0m A.M.
 ☉ New Moon 9th, 8h 40.0m P.M. ☽ Full Moon 25th, 4h 53.5m A.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month	Day of the Year	Indian Standard Time						Moon's Age at Noon	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon
			Sunrise A.M.		Sunset P.M.		True Noon P.M.			
			H	M	H	M	H	M	D	S
Monday	1	335	6	55	6	0	0	28	21 3	21 40
Tuesday	2	336	6	55	6	0	0	28	22 3	21 50
Wednesday	3	337	6	56	6	0	0	28	23 3	21 59
Thursday	4	338	6	57	6	0	0	29	24 1	22 8
Friday	5	339	6	58	6	0	0	29	25 3	22 16
Saturday	6	340	6	59	6	1	0	30	26 3	22 24
Sunday	7	341	6	59	6	1	0	30	27 1	22 31
Monday	8	342	6	59	6	1	0	30	28 3	22 38
Tuesday	9	343	7	0	6	1	0	31	29 3	22 44
Wednesday	10	344	7	0	6	2	0	31	0 0	22 50
Thursday	11	345	7	1	6	2	0	32	1 9	22 56
Friday	12	346	7	2	6	3	0	32	2 9	23 1
Saturday	13	347	7	2	6	3	0	33	3 9	23 6
Sunday	14	348	7	3	6	3	0	33	4 9	23 10
Monday	15	349	7	3	6	4	0	34	5 9	23 14
Tuesday	16	350	7	4	6	4	0	35	6 9	23 17
Wednesday	17	351	7	4	6	5	0	35	7 9	23 20
Thursday	18	352	7	5	6	5	0	36	8 9	23 22
Friday	19	353	7	5	6	6	0	36	9 9	23 24
Saturday	20	354	7	6	6	6	0	37	10 0	23 26
Sunday	21	355	7	7	6	6	0	37	11 0	23 27
Monday	22	356	7	7	6	7	0	38	12 9	23 27
Tuesday	23	357	7	8	6	7	0	38	13 9	23 27
Wednesday	24	358	7	8	6	8	0	39	14 9	23 27
Thursday	25	359	7	9	6	9	0	39	15 9	23 26
Friday	26	360	7	9	6	9	0	40	16 9	23 24
Saturday	27	361	7	10	6	8	0	40	17 9	23 22
Sunday	28	362	7	10	6	10	0	41	18 9	23 20
Monday	29	363	7	11	6	10	0	41	19 9	23 17
Tuesday	30	364	7	11	6	11	0	41	20 9	23 14
Wednesday	31	365	7	11	6	11	0	42	21 9	23 10

CALENDAR FOR 1932.

January

S		3	10	17	24	31
M	.	4	11	18	25	..
Tu		5	12	19	26	
W		6	13	20	27	
Th	..	7	14	21	28	
F		8	15	22	29	..
S	..	9	16	23	30	

February

S	..	7	14	21	28	
M		8	15	22	29	.
Tu	1	9	16	23		
W	2	10	17	24	..	
Th	3	11	18	25		.
F	4	12	19	26		
S	5	13	20	27		

March

S	..	6	13	20	27	..
M		7	14	21	28	
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	..
W	2	9	16	23	30	..
Th	3	10	17	24	31	
F	4	11	18	25		
S	5	12	19	26		

April

S	.	3	10	17	24	
M		4	11	18	25	
Tu		5	12	19	26	..
W		6	13	20	27	..
Th	.	7	14	21	28	
F	1	8	15	22	29	.
S	2	9	16	23	30	

May

S		1	8	15	22	29
M		2	9	16	23	30
Tu	..	3	10	17	24	31
W		4	11	18	25	..
Th		5	12	19	26	..
F		6	13	20	27	.
S		7	14	21	28	

June

S		5	12	19	26	
M	..	6	13	20	27	
Tu	..	7	14	21	28	
W	1	8	15	22	29	..
Th	2	9	16	23	30	..
F	3	10	17	24	..	
S	4	11	18	25	..	

July

S	.	3	10	17	24	31
M	..	4	11	18	25	.
Tu	..	5	12	19	26	
W		6	13	20	27	
Th	..	7	14	21	28	
F	1	8	15	22	29	
S	2	9	16	23	30	

August

S		7	14	21	28	
M	1	8	15	22	29	
Tu	2	9	16	23	30	
W	3	10	17	24	31	
Th	4	11	18	25		
F	5	12	19	26		
S	6	13	20	27		

September

S		4	11	18	25	
M	.	5	12	19	26	
Tu	..	6	13	20	27	
W	.	7	14	21	28	.
Th	1	8	15	22	29	.
F	2	9	16	23	30	.
S	3	10	17	24		

October

S		2	9	16	23	30
M	..	3	10	17	24	31
Tu	.	4	11	18	25	..
W	.	5	12	19	26	
Th	.	6	13	20	27	
F	.	7	14	21	28	
S	1	8	15	22	29	

November

S		6	13	20	27	
M	.	7	14	21	28	
Tu	1	8	15	22	29	
W	2	9	16	23	30	
Th	3	10	17	24		.
F	..	4	11	18	25	..
S	5	12	19	26		.

December

S	.	4	11	18	25	
M	.	5	12	19	26	
Tu	..	6	13	20	27	
W	.	7	14	21	28	
Th	1	8	15	22	29	
F	2	9	16	23	30	
S	3	10	17	24	31	

Preface to the XVIII Annual Volume

OF THE

INDIAN YEAR BOOK, 1931.

THE Editors have to thank many correspondents who during the past year have sent them suggestions for the improvement of this book. The Indian Year Book is intended above all to be a book of reference, and its completeness and convenience of arrangement must necessarily depend to a great extent on the part taken in its editing by the members of the public who most use it.

The help extended to the Editors by various officials, and more particularly by the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, Bombay, and the Indian Commercial Intelligence Department, has again been readily given and is most gratefully acknowledged. Without such help it would be impossible to produce the Year Book with up-to-date statistics.

Suggestions for the improvement or correction of the Year Book may be sent to the Editors at any time, but those which reach them before October have a better chance of being adopted than later suggestions which only reach them after the work of revision has been partly completed.

*The Times of India, Bombay,
January, 1931*

An Indian Glossary.

- ABEER**.—Excess of liquors and drugs
- ACHHUT**.—Untouchable (Hindi) Asuddhar
- ACREAGE CONTRIBUTION**.—Contribution paid by holders of land irrigated by Government
- ADHARAJ**.—Lord of the Lands added to Maharaja. So it means 'paramount'
- AFSAR**.—A corruption of the English officer
- AHIMSA**.—Non violence
- AHLUWALIA**.—Name of a princely family resident at the village of Ahlu near Lahore
- AIN**.—A timber tree *Terminalia tomentosa*
- AKALI**.—Originally, a Sikh devotee out of band founded by Guru Govind Singh (who died 1708) now a member of the politico-religious army (*dal*) of reforming Sikhs
- AKHARA**.—A Hindu school of gymnastics
- AK UNDEADA**.—Son of a Head Officer
- ALTAH**.—Of exalted rank
- ALYHOL**.—Literally a Mahomedan circle. A kind of athletic club formed for purposes of self defence
- ALI RAJA**.—Sea King (Laccadives)
- AM**.—Mango
- AMIT**.—A name given in Sind to educated members of the Lohana community, a Hindu caste consisting principally of bankers, clerks and minor officials
- AMIR** (corruptly *AMIR*).—A Mohammedan Chief, often also a personal name
- AMMA**.—A goddess particularly *Mariamam* goddess of small pox South India
- ANICUT**.—A dam or weir across a river for irrigation purposes, Southern India
- ANJUMAN**.—A communal gathering of Mahomedans
- APHRA**.—Believed to be a corruption of *ALPHONSK*, the name of the best variety of Bombay mango
- ARZ, ARZI, ARZ DASHT**.—Written petition
- ASAF**.—A minister
- ASPRISHYA**.—Untouchable (Sanskrit)
- AUS**.—The early rice crop Bengal, syn *Ahu*, Assam
- AVATAR**.—An incarnation of Vishnu
- AYURVEDA**.—Hindu science of Medicine
- BABA**.—Lit. Father, a respectful Mr
- BABU**.—Your Honour
- BABU**.—(1) A gentleman in Bengal, corresponding to *Patil* in the Deccan and *Konkan* (2) Hence used by Anglo-Indians of a clerk or accountant. Strictly a 5th or still younger son of a Raja but often used of any son younger than the heir whilst it has also grown into a term of address—Esquire. There are, however one or two Rajas whose sons are known respectively as—1st, Kunwar, 2nd, Diwan, 3rd, Thakur 4th, Lal, 5th Babu
- BABUL**.—A common thorny tree the bark of which is used for tanning, *ACACIA ARABICA*
- BADMASH**.—A bad character a rascal
- BAGER**.—Tiger or Panther
- BAGHA**.—(1) A native boat (Bengal) (2) The common pond heron or paddybird
- BAHADUR**.—Lit. brave or warrior. A title used by both Hindus and Mohammedans, often bestowed by Government added to other titles, it increases their honour but alone it designates an inferior ruler
- BAIRAGI**.—A Hindu religious mendicant
- BAJRA OR BAJRI**.—The barnah millet, a common food-grain, *Pennisetum typhoides*, syn *cambu* Madras
- BAKSHI**.—A revenue officer or magistrate
- BAKHSHI**.—Chir murl (or Chiri murl) 1 lip
- BAND**.—A dam or embankment (Bund)
- BANDAR**.—Munkie
- BANYAN**.—A species of fig tree, *Ficus BENGALENSIS*
- BARA SING**.—Swamp deer
- BARHAT**.—(1) A fall of rain (2) the rainy season
- BARSATI**.—Hurricane (horas dham)
- BASTI**.—(1) A village, or collection of huts (2) A Jain temple, Kanara
- BATTA**.—Lit. discount and hence allowance by way of compensation
- BATTAK**.—Duck
- BAWAHI**.—Cook in India. Syn *Mistri* in Bombay on
- BAZAR**.—(1) A street lined with shops India proper, (2) a covered market, Burma
- BEGUM** or **BEGAM**.—The feminine of Nawab combined in Bhopal as 'Nawab Begum'
- BERR**.—A thorny shrub bearing a fruit like a small plum, *Eriophris Jujuba*
- BHAAR**.—In Hindi (also Gujarati & Urdu) — Woman's robe, sari
- BHAWAR**.—Name in Central Provinces for shifting cultivation in jungles and hill-sides, syn *taungya*, Burma *shum*, North-Eastern India
- BHADOL**.—Early autumn crop Northern India reaped in the month Bhadon
- BHAGAT OR BHAKTA**.—A devotee
- BHAG-BATAI**.—System of payment of land revenue in kind
- BHAIKAND**.—Relation or man of same caste or community
- BHAIKANDI**.—Nepotism
- BHAKGI**.—Sweeper, scavenger
- BHANG**.—The dried leaves of the hemp plant *CANNABIS SATIVA* a narcotic

Notes.—According to the Hunterian system of transliteration here adopted the vowels have the following values:—a either long as the a in 'father' or short as the u in 'cut', e as the e in 'gain', i either short as the i in 'bib', or long as the ee in 'feel', o as the o in 'bone', u either short as the oo in 'good', or long as the oo in 'boot', ai as the i in 'mille', au as the ou in 'grouse'. This is only a rough guide. The vowel values vary in different parts of India in a marked degree.

BHANWAR—Light sandy soil, syn *bhar*
BHATWARIAT—Title of heir apparent in some Rajput States

BEARAL—A Himalayan wild sheep, *Ovis montanus*

BEARAT—India

BEARATA VARSHA—India

BEHNDI—A succulent vegetable (*Hibiscus esculentus*)

BHOKALE—Name of a Maratha dynasty

BHUP—Title of the ruler of Cooh Behar

BHUGTI—Name of a Baluch tribe

BHUSA—Chaff for fodder

BHUT—The spirit of departed persons

BIDAR—A class of ornamental metalwork in which blackened pewter is inlaid with silver named from the town of Bidar, Hyderabad

BIGHA—A measure of land varying widely the standard bigha is generally five-eighths of an acre. Varies in Gujarat and Kathiawar

BURIGHTI—Commonly pronounced Balahti. Vitar, vitar (lit. man of heaven)

Bik (Bih)—A subdivision—North India Gujarat and Kathiawar. Also Vidi

BLACK COTTON SOIL—A dark coloured soil very retentive of moisture, found in Central and Southern India

BOARD OF REVENUE—The chief controlling revenue authority in Bengal, the United Provinces and Madras

BOX—See *Ber*

BHINJAL—A vegetable *Solanum melongena* syn egg-plant

BUND—Embankment

BUNDRE or **bandar**—Also *Monkey*. A harbour or port

BURUJ—A bastion in a line of battlements

CAJAN—Palm leaves used for thatch

CHABCK—A whip

CHABUTRA—A platform of mud or plastered brick, used for social gatherings. Northern India

CHADAR—A sheet worn as a shawl by men and sometimes by women (*Chudder*)

CHAITTA—An ancient Buddhist chapel

CHAMBHAR (*CHAMAR*)—Also *Cobbler*. *Shumbar*. A caste whose trade is to tan leather

CHAMPAK—A tree with fragrant blossoms *MICHELIA CHAMPACA*

CHANA—Gram

CHAND—Moon

CHANDI—(From with soft d) *Shree Chand* (with palatal and short a)—Goddess Durga

CHAPATHI—A cake of unleavened bread

CHAPRAH—An orderly or messenger, Northern India, syn *patwala*, Bombay, *peon*, Madras

CHARAS—The resin of the hemp plant *CANNABIS SATIVA* used for smoking

CHARAKHA—A spinning wheel

CHARPAI (*charpoy*)—A bedstead with four legs and tape stretched across the frame for a mattress

CHAUDHRI—Under native rule a subordinate revenue official at present the term is applied to the headman or representative of a trade guild

CHAWK CHOWK—A place where four roads meet

CHAUKIDAR—The village watchman and rural policeman

CHAUTH—The fourth part of the land revenue exacted by the Marathas in subject territories

CHAVRI CHORO (*GUJARATI*)—Village head quarters

CHITPAI—Hunting leopard

CHILLA—A pupil usually in connexion with religious teaching

CHHAONI—A collection of thatched huts or barracks, hence a cantonment

CHHATRAPATI—One of sufficient dignity to have an umbrella carried over him

CHHATRI—(1) An umbrella, (2) domed building such as a cenotaph

CHIEF COMMISSIONER—The administrative head of one of the lesser Provinces in British India

CHIKOR—A kind of partridge, *CAOCHAS CHICOR*

CHIKU—The Bombay name for the fruit of *ACHRAS SAPOTA*, the Sapo-dilla plum of the West Indies

CHINAR—A plane tree, *PLATANUS ORIENTALIS*

CHINKARA—The Indian gazelle, *GAZELLA BENNETTI*, often called 'tawine deer'

CHITAL—The spotted deer, *CERVUS AXIS*

CHODAR—Mace bearer whose business is to announce the arrival of guests on state occasions

CHOLAM—Name in Southern India for the large millet, *ANDROPOGON SOBRUM*, syn *jowar*

CHOLL—A kind of short bodice worn by women

CHOWRIN—Fly-whisk

CHUKAM, chupa—Lime plaster

CIRCLE—The area in charge of—(1) A Conservator of Forests, (2) A Postmaster or Deputy Postmaster-General, (3) A Superintending Engineer of the Public Works Department

CIVIL SURGEON—The officer in medical charge of a District

COGNIZABLE—An offence for which the culprit can be arrested by the police without a warrant

COLLECTOR—The administrative head of a District in Bengal, Bombay, Madras, etc. Syn Deputy Commissioner

COMMISSIONER.—(1) The officer in charge of a Division or group of Districts, (2) the head of various departments, such as Stamps, Excise etc.

COMPOUND.—The garden and open land attached to a house. An Anglo Indian word perhaps derived from 'kumpam', a hedge.

CONSERVATOR.—The Supervising Officer in charge of a Circle in the Forest Department.

COUNCIL BILL.—Bills or telegraphic transmits drawn on the Indian Government by the Secretary of State in Council.

COUNT.—Cotton yarns are described as 30's, 40's, etc. counts when not more than a like number of hanks of 840 yards go to the pound avoirdupois.

COURT OF WARDS.—An establishment for managing estates of minors and other disqualified persons.

CHORE, KAROR.—Ten millions.

DADA.—Lit. grandfather (paternal), any venerable person. In Bombay slang a hooli gang boss.

DAFTADAR.—A non-commissioned native officer in the army or police.

DAFTAR.—Office records.

DAFTARI.—Record keeper.

DAM OR DAO.—A cutting instrument with no point, used as a sword, and also as an axe. Assam and Burma.

DAK (dawk).—A stage on a stage coach route. Dawk bungalow is the travellers bungalow maintained at such stages in days before railways came.

DAKTYL, DAUGHTY.—Robbery by five or more persons.

DAL.—(Pron. with dental d and short a) Army, hence any disciplined body, e.g., Akali Dal, Seva Dal.

DAL.—A generic term applied to various pulses.

DAM.—An old copper coin, one-fortieth of a rupee.

DARBAR.—(1) A ceremonial assembly, especially one presided over by the Ruler of a State hence (2) the Government of a Native State.

DARGAH.—A Mahomedan shrine or tomb of a saint.

DARI, Dhurra.—A rug or carpet, usually of cotton, but sometimes of wool.

DARKHAST.—A tender or application to rent land.

DAROGHA.—The title of officials in various departments, now especially applied to subordinate controlling Officers in the Police and Jail Departments.

DAKWAR.—A door-keeper.

DAKWA.—A gateway.

DAFTURI.—Customary perquisite.

DAULA AND DAULAT.—State.

DEB.—A Brahminical priestly title, taken from the name of a divinity.

DEBOTTAR.—Land assigned for the upkeep of temples or maintenance of Hindu worship.

DEODAR.—A cedar, *ONDRUS LIBANI* or *C. DEODARA*.

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER.—The Administrative head of a District in the Punjab, Central Provinces, etc. Syn. Collector.

DEPUTY MAGISTRATE AND COLLECTOR.—A subordinate of the Collector, having executive and judicial (revenue and criminal) powers equivalent to Extra Assistant Commissioner in non regulation areas.

DERA.—Tent in N India.

DERASAR.—Tath Temple.

DEBBI.—A revenue official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH.—(1) Native country (2) the plains as opposed to the hills, Northern India, (3) the plateau of the Deccan above the Ghats.

DESH BHAKTA.—Patriot.

DESHI.—Indigenous, opposed to bideshi, foreign.

DESHMUKH.—A petty official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH SEVKA.—Servant (from) of the country. Female Volunteer in the Civil Disobedience movement.

DEVTA.—A deity.

DEVADASI.—A girl dedicated to temple or God. Murlin Maharashtra.

DEVASTHAN.—Land assigned for the upkeep of a temple or other religious foundation.

DEWAN.—A Vizier or other First Minister to a Indian Chief, either Hindu or Mohammedan and equal in rank with Sardar under which see other equivalents. The term is also used of a Council of State.

DHAK.—A tree, *BUTEA FRONDOSA*, with brilliant orange-scarlet flowers used for dyeing, and also producing a gum, syn. palas, Bengal and Bombay. Chhili Central India, Khakhro in Gujarat and Kathiawar.

DHAMLI.—A heavy shikhar or tonga drawn by bullocks.

DHANALA.—Bhil Koli, or other wallike caste carrying sharp weapons.

DHARMA.—Religion (Hindu).

DHARMARALA.—A charitable institution provided as a resting place for pilgrims or travellers, Northern India.

DHATURA.—A stupefying drug, *DATURA STRUPOSA*.

DHED.—A large untouchable caste in Gujarat corresponding to Mahar in Maharashtra and Holey in Karnataka.

DHIRELI.—Name in Northern India for the lever used in raising water, syn. piootah.

DHOK.—A washerman.

DHOTI.—The loincloth worn by men.

DIN.—Religion (Mahomedan).

DISTRICT.—The most important administrative unit of area.

DIVISION.—(1) A group of districts for administrative and revenue purposes, under a Commissioner, (2) the area in charge of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, usually corresponding with a (revenue) District, (3) the area under a Superintendent of Post Offices, (4) a group of (revenue) districts under an Executive Engineer of the Public Works Department.

- DIWAN (SIKH).**—Communal Gathering
- DIWALI.**—The lamp festival of Hindus
- DIWANI.**—Civil, especially revenue, administration, now used generally in Northern India of civil justice and Courts.
- DOAB.**—The tract between two rivers, especially that between the Ganges and Jumna
- DOM.**—Untouchable caste in Northern India
- DRUG.**—A hill fort Mysore
- DRY CROP.**—A crop grown without artificial irrigation
- DRY RATE.**—The rate of revenue for unirrigated land.
- DUN.**—(From doon) A valley, Northern India.
- EKKA.**—A small two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony, Northern India.
- ELCHI ELACHI.**—Cardamom
- ELCHI (Turk).**—Ambassador
- ELATA RAJA.**—Title given to the heir of the Maharaja of Travancore or Cochin
- EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER.**—See Deputy Magistrate and Collector
- FAKIR.**—Properly an Islamic mendicant or a mendicant who has no creed, but often loosely used of Hindu mendicants also
- FAMINE INSURANCE GRANT.**—An annual provision from revenue to meet direct famine expenditure, or the cost of certain classes of public works, or to avoid debt.
- FARMAN.**—An imperial (Mughal) order or grant.
- FARZAND.**—It means child with the defining words added *nohara*, *Farzand-e-illband* in the case of several Indian Princesses it means beloved favourite etc
- FARZANDARI or FARZANDARI.**—A kind of land tenure in Bombay (H)
- FARZI.**—Era (solar) started by Akbar, A.C. 960-572-3
- FATHEH.**—Victory
- FATHEH JANG.**—'Victorious in Battle' (a title of the Nizam)
- FATWA.**—Judicial decree or written opinion of a doctor of Muslim law
- FAUZDARI.**—Relating to a criminal court criminal proceedings
- FAUZDARI.**—Under native rule, the area under a Fauzdar or subordinate governor, now used generally of Magistrates Criminal Courts
- FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER.**—The chief controlling revenue authority in the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces.
- FITTON GARI.**—A pheton, Bombay Derived from the English
- GADDI, Gadi.**—The cushion or throne of (Hindu) royalty
- GAEKWAR (sometimes GUICOWAR).**—Title with Maharaja added of the ruler of Baroda It was once a caste name and means cow herd, &c the protector of the sacred animal but later on in common with Holkar and Sindhi it came to be a dynastic appellation and consequently regarded as a title Thus a Prince becomes Gaekwar on succeeding to the estate of Baroda, Holkar to that of Indore and Sindhi, to that of Gwalior
- GANJA.**—The unfertilized flowers of the cultivated female hemp plant *CANNABIS SATIVA*, used for smoking
- GAUR.**—Wild cattle, commonly called 'bison'
- BOB GAURUS**
- GAYAL.**—A species of wild cattle *BOS FRONTALIS*, domesticated on the North-East Frontier, syn. mithan
- GHADR.**—Mutiny Revolution
- GHARRIF (HARU).**—A carriage, cart
- GHAT, Ghaut.**—(1) A landing place on a river; (2) the bathing steps on the bank of a tank (3) a pass up a mountain, (4) in European usage, a mountain range. In the last sense especially applied to the Eastern and Western Ghats
- GHATWAL.**—A tenure-holder who originally held his land on the condition of guarding the neighbouring hill passes (ghats), Bengal.
- GHAZI.**—One who engaged in Ghazv, a holy War against Kafirs
- GHI, Ghee.**—Clarified butter
- GINGELLY.**—See TIL
- GODOWN.**—A store room or warehouse An Anglo Indian word derived from the Malay *gadang*
- GORT.**—Cowherd (H) The dance of the youthful Krishna with the Gopis is a favourite subject of painting
- GOPURAM.**—A gateway, especially applied to the great temple gateways in Southern India
- GOSAIN, Goswami.**—A (Hindu) devotee, lit one who restrains his passions
- GOSHA.**—Varna. In Southern India for caste women lit The word Gosha means corner or seclusion one who sits in is the meaning of the word Nashin which is usually added to Gosha and Paria eg, Goshanashin, Pardalanashin
- GRAM.**—A kind of pea, *CROCH. ARISTIMUM* In Southern India the pulse *DOLICHOS BIFLOREUS* is known as horse gram
- GRANTHA SAHAR.**—Sikh holy book.
- GUNEJ.**—The red seed with a black 'eye' of *ABRUS PRECATORIUS*, a common wild creeper used as the official weight for minute quantities of opium 96th of a Tola
- GUP, OR GUP SHUP.**—Tittle tattle.
- GUJ, Goor.**—Grade sugar, syn. Jaggery, South India, tanyet, Burma.
- GURAL.**—A Himalayan goat antelope *CEMA-GORAL*.
- GUARDWARA.**—A Sikh Shrine

GURU.—(1) A Hindu religious preceptor
(2) a schoolmaster, Bengal

HABSHI—Literally an Abyssinian Now a term for anyone whose complexion is particularly dark.

HADITH—Tradition of the Prophet.

HAFIZ—Guardian one who has Quran by heart

HAJ—Pilgrimage to Mecca

HAJAM, HAJJAM—A barber

HAJI—A Mahomedan who has performed the haj He is entitled to dye his beard red

HAKIM—A native doctor practising the Mahomedan system of medicine

HAKIM (with lung a)—Governor ruler

HAKALKHOR—A sweeper or scavenger, lit one to whom everything is lawful food

HAKI—Current Applied to coin of Native States, especially Hyderabad

HAMAL—(1) A porter or cooly, (2) a house servant

HAQ—A right.

HUMRA (HUMRAH)—The era dating from the flight of Mahomed to Mecca, June 20th (22 A 1)

HPRMA JAI—A Hindu name (Hira is diamond and Jai is ruby)

HILSA—A kind of fish, *CLUPEA ILISHA*

HOONDI HUNDI—A draft (banking)

HOKAR—See 'Gaekwar'

HVI—An iron pinnacle placed on a pagoda in Burma

HUKKA, HOOKKA—The Indian tobacco pipe

HUKK—An order

HURDI—A bill of exchange

IPGAR—An enclosed place outside a town where Mahomedan services are held on festivals known as the Id etc.

ILAKH—A department

IMAM—The layman who leads the congregation in prayer Mahomedan

IMAM—Lit. reward Hence land held revenue free or at a reduced rate, often subject to service See DEVASTHAN, SARANJAM WATAN

INUNDATION CANAL—A channel taken off from a river at a comparatively high level, which conveys water only when the river is in flood

IKZAT—Prestige

JACK FRUIT—Fruit of *ARTOCARPUS INYF ARBOREA* VET PHANAS.

KACHWA—Unripe mud built, inferior

JAGGERY, jagri—Name in Southern India for crude sugar, *syn gur*

JAGIR—An assignment of land, or of the revenue of land held by a Jagirdar

JAH—A term denoting dignity applied to highest class nobles in Hyderabad State

JAM (Sindhi or Baluch).—Chief also the Jain of Nawanganar

JAMABANDI—The annual settlement made under the ryotwari system

JANAPAR—A native officer in the army or police.

JANGAMA—A Lingayat priest

JAPTI—Distraint, attachment corrupt of Zabt

JATHA—An association

JATKA—Port-cart South India

JAKHAT UL ARAB—The Sacred Island of Arabia including all the countries which contain cities sacred to the Mahomedans Arabia Palestine and Mesopotamia

JAIL—A natural lake or swamp Northern India *syn bill*, Eastern Bengal and Assam

JINAD—A religious war undertaken by Musal mans.

JIRGA—A council of tribal elders, North West frontier

JOGI (Yogi)—A Hindu ascetic

JOHRI—Village astrologer

JOWAR—The large millet, a very common food-grain, *ANDROPOGON SOERBUM*, or *SORH MUM VULGARE* *syn cholam* and *jola*, in South ern India

JUDI—A revenue term in S Division of the Bombay Presidency

JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER—An officer exercising the functions of a High Court in the Central Provinces Oudh and Sind

KACHWA—Unripe mud built inferior

KACHHRI kachhri—An office or office building, especially that of a Government official

KADAR karbi—The stalk of Jowari (e v)—a valuable fodder

KAFIR—Infidel, applied by Muslims to all non Muslims

KASU kasbew—The nut of *ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE* largely grown in the Konkan

KAKAR—The barking deer *CERVULUS MUNTJAO*

KALAR, kalar—Barren land covered with salt or alkaline effluences Northern India

KALASH—A scannan or a subordinate who pitches and looks after tents

KALI YUGA—The Iron age

KALL—

KALL—Poplar poddoss consort of Shiva

KALI—Black soil.

KALIMA—The Mahomedan Confession of faith
KAMARBAND, Cumberbund—A waistcloth, or belt

KANAT—The wall of a large tent Kanat (in Persia)—Underground Canal

KANGAR—A kind of portable warming pan, carried by persons in Kashmir to keep them selves warm.

KANKAR—Nodular limestone, used for metaling roads, as building stones or for preparation of lime

KANS—A coarse glass which spreads and prevents cultivation especially in Bundelkhand
BACHARUM SPONSAEUM.

KANUNGO—A Revenue Inspector

KAPAS—Cotton.

KARATE—A very venomous snake, *BUNGARUS CANDIDUS* or *CARRULUS*

KARSHAKI—A manager. Also Dewan in smaller States in Maharashtra and Gujarat

KARNE—(Persian) Kanat. Underground tunnels near the skirts of hills by which water is gradually led to the surface for irrigation, especially in Baluchistan

KARKUN—A clerk or writer, Bombay

KARMA—The doctrine that existence is conditioned by the sum of the good and evil actions in past existences

KARNAM—See PATWARI

KARTOOS—A cartridge

Kas—The five Kas which denote the Sikhs are: *Kas* the uncut hair, *Kas* the short drawers, *Kas* the iron bangle, *Kas* the steel knife, and *Kas* the comb

Kasai—A butcher

Kazi—Better written *Qazi*—Under native rule a judge administering Mahomedan law Under British rule, the kazi registers marriages between Mahomedans and performs other functions but has no powers conferred by law

Kharifa—Letter from an Indian Prince to the Governor General

KHASABANDAR—Beware

Khadi (or **KHANDER**)—Cotton cloth hand woven from hand spun yarn

KHALASI—A native fireman, sailor, artilleryman, or tent-pitcher

KHALASA—Lit. pure (1) Applied especially to themselves by the Sikhs the word *Khalasa* being equivalent to the Sikh community (2) land directly under Government as opposed to land allotted to grantee etc. Northern India and China

KHAN—Originally the ruler of a small Mohammedan state now a nearly empty title though prized. It is very frequently used rather as part of a name, especially by Afghans and Pathans

KHANDI candy A weight especially used for cotton bales in Bombay equivalent to 20 mds

KHANBANA—A butler

KHARAB—Also *Kharab* In Bombay of any portion of an assessed survey No. which being uncollectible is left unassessed

KHARGOSH—Hare

KHARIF—Any crops sown just before or during the main S W monsoon

KHAS—Special, in Government hands. *Khas tahsildar*, the manager of a Government estate

KHASADAR—Local levies of foot soldiers Afghanistan or N W Frontier

KHAS-KHAS, *Kus Kus*—A grass with scented roots, used for making screens which are placed in doorways and kept wet to cool a house by evaporation, ANDERSON SQUARE

KHEDDA, *Kheda*—A stockade into which wild elephants are driven also applied to the operations for catching

KHICHADI, *Khejore*—A dish of cooked rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians especially used of rice with fish

KHILAT—A robe of honour

KHUTBA—The weekly prayer for Mahomedans in general and for the reigning sovereign in particular

KHWALA—A Persian word for "master," sometimes a name

KINCOS, *kamkhwab*—Silk textiles brooded with gold or silver

KIRPAN—A Sikh religious emblem, a sword

KODALI Also *Kudali*—The implement like a hoe or mattock in common use for digging, syn. *mamuti*, Southern India

KONKAN—The narrow strip of low land between the Western ghats and the sea

KOS—A variable measure of distance usually estimated at about two miles The distance between the kos-minars or milestones in the Mughal Imperial roads averages a little over 2 miles, 4 furlongs, 150 yards Also means the leathern water-lift drawn by bullocks in Gujarat and Kathiawar

KOT—Battlements

KOTHI—A large house

KOTWAL—The head of the police in a town, under native rule The term is still used in Hyderabad and other parts of India.

KOTWALI—The chief police station in a head-quarters town

KUCHA BAKDI—A barrier or gateway erected to close a lane.

KUFY—Infidelity unbelief in the Quran and the Prophet

KULKARNI—See PATWARI

KUMHAR—The great fair at Harwar called *Kumbha* when it is held every 12 years, Jupiter and Sun are in the sign *Kumbha* (Aquarius) M. *Kumhar*

KUMHAR—A potter (*Kumhar*

KUMBI—An agriculturist (*Kumbi* in Gujarat *Kumbi* in N India)

KUNWAR OR **KUMAR**—The heir of a Raja (Every son of any chief in Gujarat and Kathiawar)

KURAN—A big grass land growing grass fit for cutting

KURHI (U), **KUSHI** (M)—Wrestling

KYARI—Land embanked to hold water for rice cultivation

KYAUNG—A Buddhist monastery, which always contains a school, Burma

LAKH, *lac*—A hundred thousand

LAL—A younger son of a Raja (strictly a 1st son but see under *Isbu*)

LAMBARDAR—The representative of the co-sharers in a zamindari village, Northern India

LANGUR—A large monkey *SEMNOTRICHUS*

LASCAR, correct *lashkar*—(1) an army, (2) in English usage an Indian sailor

LAT—A monumental pillar Lat *Hindus* tant corruption of Lord eg, *Bara Lat*—Viceroy *Jung Lat*—Commander-in-Chief Governor

LATERITE—A vesicular material formed of disintegrated rock, used for buildings and making roads, also probably valuable for the production of aluminium. Laterite produces a deep brick-red soil.

LINGAM—The phallic emblem, worshipped as the representative of Shiva.

LITCHI—A fruit tree grown in North India (*LITCHI CHINENSIS*).

LOKAMANYA—(Lit.) Esteemed of the people. A national hero.

LOKENDRA OR LOKENDRA—"Protector of the World" title of the Chiefs of Dholpur and Datta.

LONGY—A waistcloth, Burma.

LOTA—A small brass water pot.

LUNGI, loongi—A cloth (coloured dhoti) simply wound round the waist.

MADRASA—A school especially one for the higher instruction of Mahomedans.

MAHAJAN—The guild of Hindu or Jain merchants in a city. The head of the Mahajan is the *Nagarabhoj* (q.v.).

MAHAL—(1) Formerly a considerable tract of country, (2) now a village or part of a village for which a separate agreement is taken for the payment of land revenue, (3) a department of revenue, e.g., right to catch elephants, or to take stone, (4) in Bombay a small Taluka under a *MAHAJAN*.

MAHANT—The head of a Hindu conventual establishment.

MAHARAJA—The highest of hereditary rulers among the Hindus, or else a personal distinction conferred by Government. It has several variations as under: 'Raja' with the addition of *MAHARAJ RANA* its feminine is *MAHARANI* ('MAHA=great').

MAHARAJ KUMAR—Son of a Maharaja.

MAHATMA—(Hk.) A great soul applied to men who have transcended the limitations of the flesh and the world.

MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA—A Hindu title denoting learned in Hindu languages and literature.

MAHSEER, mahasr—A large carp, *BALPUS* (Hk. the 'big headed').

MAKWA—A tree, *BASIA LAHFOLEA*, producing flowers used (when dried) as food or for distilling liquor, and seeds which furnish oil.

MAHURAT—The propitious moment fixed by astrologers for an important undertaking.

MAIDAN—An open space of level ground like the park at Calcutta.

MAINA—A bird.

MAJOR WORKS—Irrigation works for which separate accounts are kept of capital, revenue, and interest.

MAJUR—A labourer (in Bombay).

MAKTAB—An elementary Mahomedan school.

MALGUNAR (revenue payer)—(1) The term applied in the Central Provinces to a co-sharer in a village held in ordinary proprietary tenure, (2) a cultivator in the Chamba State.

MAKTA—Licence, monopoly.

MAKTADAR—A licensee, monopolist.

MALL—A gardener.

MALIK—Master proprietor.

MANLATDAR (Mār Mamlodār)—The officer in charge of a taluka, Bombay whose duties are both executive and magisterial syn. *tahasildar* *Mār Mamledār*.

MANDAP, or mandapam—A porch or pillared hall, especially of a temple.

MANGOSTEEN—The fruit of *CAROLINA MANGOS TANA*.

MARI—A Baluch tribe (Bhugtis and Maris generally spoken of together).

MARKHOR—A wild goat in North-Western India, *CAPIA PALCOENNI*.

MASJID—A mosque. *Jama Masjid*, the principal mosque in a town, where worshippers collect on Fridays.

MAHWAD—Seat of state or throne, *Maho median* syn. *gaddi*.

MATH—A Hindu conventual establishment.

MATLAS—The ultimate and hidden object of a long rambling and apparently pointless conversation.

MAULAYA—A Mahomedan skilled in Arabic and religious knowledge.

MAULVI—A person learned in Muhammadan law.

MAUND *ver* *Man*—A weight varying in different localities. The Ry maund is 80 lbs.

MAYA—Sanskrit term for cosmic illusion in Vedanta philosophy.

MIHKL or MAHAL—A palace.

MELA—A religious festival or fair.

MIAN—Title of the son of a Rajput Nawab resembling the Scottish "Master".

MIRAB—The niche in the centre of the western wall of a mosque.

MIRAB—Steps in a mosque, used as a pulpit.

MINAR—A pillar or tower.

MINOR WORKS—Irrigation works for which regular accounts are not kept, except, in some cases, of capital.

MIN—A leader, an inferior title which like Khan, has grown into a name, especially used by descendants of the Chiefs of Sind.

MIRZA—If prefixed, 'Mr' or 'Esquire'.

MISTRI—(1) a foreman, (2) a cook.

MOHUR—A Gold coin no longer current, worth about Rs. 16.

MOLESALAM—A class of land holding Rajput Muslims in Gujarat who have retained Hindu rites and customs.

MONG, MONG OR MAUNG (Arakanese)—Leader.

MORA—Stool.

MONSOON—Lat. Season, and specifically (1) The S. W. Monsoon, which is a Northward extension of the S. E. trades, which in the Nor. then Summer cross the equator and circulate into and around the low pressure area over North India, caused by the excessive heating of the land area and (2) The N. E. Monsoon which is the current of cold winds blowing down during the Northern winter from the cold land areas of Central Asia, giving rain in India only in S. E. Madras and Ceylon through moisture acquired in crossing the Bay of Bengal, and passing across the equator into the low pressure areas of the Australasian Southern summit.

MUFLAR (Mappila)—A fanatical Mahomedan sect in Malabar

MOULVI OR MAILVI—A learned Musliman or Muslim teacher

MUDALIAR OR MUD LIAR—A personal proper name, but implying steward of the lands.

MUKHIN—Person employed to sound the Mahomedan call to prayer

MUFASSAS, mofussil—The outlying parts of a District, Province or Presidency, as distinguished from the head-quarters (Sadr)

MUFAHID—Lat. One who wages war against infidels. Learned Mahomedan Generic name given to custodian of Mahomedan sacred places in some parts

MUKADAM—Chief leader in Bombay leader of coolie gang, also one employed by a merchant to superintend landing or shipment of goods.

MUKHTAR (corruptly mukhtiar)—(1) A legal practitioner who has not got a sanad, and therefore cannot appear in court as of right (2) any person holding a power of attorney on behalf of another person

MUKHTYARKAR—The officer in charge of a taluka, Sind, whose duties are both executive and magisterial, syn. tahasildar

MUKH, release '—The perfect rest attained by the last death and the final reabsorption of the individual soul into the world soul, syn. NIRVANA, MOSHA.

MUKTA-UD-DAULA—Distinguished in the State. **MUKK**, in the country

MUKH, mug—A pulse, **PHAKHOLUN MADIA TUS** syn. mag. Gujarat

MUKH—(1) A tall grass (**SAOCHARUM MUKHA**) in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahman sacred thread worn, (2) the ash thread

MUNSHI—A teacher of Hindustani or any Perso Arabian language. President or presiding official. Also Secretary or writer

MUNSHI—Judge of the lowest Court with civil jurisdiction.

MURLI (DEVADASI)—A girl dedicated to a God or temple.

MUKUM, moorum—Gravel and earth used for metalling roads.

MUSALMAN Muslim, Momin (plural Mominin) —The names by which Mahomedans describe themselves. Momin is also name of a particular caste of Muhammadans in Gujarat also called **Mumias**

MYOWUN—'Mr

NACHARI NAGIA—See **RAGI**

NAGARKHANA Nakkarkhana.—A place where drums are beaten

NAGARSHEKH—The head of the trading guild of Hindu and Jain merchants in a city

NALB—Assistant or Deputy

NALB—A leader, hence (1) a local chieftain in Southern India, (2) a native officer of the lowest rank (corporal) in the Indian army (in Bombay a head peon)

NAT—A demon or spirit, Burma

NAWAH—A title borne by Mussalmans, corresponding roughly to that of Raja among Hindus. Originally a Viceroy under the Moghal Government now the regular leading title of a Mohammedan Prince, corresponding to Maharaja of the Hindu

NAWABZADA—Son of a Nawab

NAZAR, nazara—A due paid on succession or on certain ceremonial occasions.

NAZIM—Superintendent or Manager

NET ASSETS—(1) In Northern India, the rent or share of the gross produce of land taken by the landlord, (2) in Madras and Lower Burma, the difference between the assumed value of the crop and the estimate of its cost of production

NEWAR—Broad webbing woven across bed stools instead of iron slabs.

NGAPI—Pressed fish or salted fish paste largely made and consumed in Burma

NILGAD—Blue Bull. A large antelope

NIM, neem—A tree, **MELIA AKADINACHTA**, the berries of which are used in dyeing

NIRVANA—See **MUKH**

NIKAH—Muslim legal marriage

NISSAH—Sign, Honorary symbol carried in a procession.

NIZAM—The title of the ruler of Hyderabad, the one Mohammedan Prince superior to Nawab

NIZAMAT—A sub-division of a Native State, corresponding to a British District, chiefly in the Punjab and Bhopal

NON AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT—Enhanced assessment imposed when land already assessed as agricultural is diverted to use as a building site or for industrial concerns

NON-OCCUPANCY—An offence for which the culprit cannot be arrested by the police without a warrant

NONO (Thibetan)—The ruler of Spitta

NON-OCCUPANCY TENANTS—A class of tenant, with few statutory rights, except in Oudh beyond the terms in their leases or agreements.

NON REGULATION—A term formerly applied to certain Provinces to show that the regulations of full code of legislation was not in force in them.

NULLAH, NALA—A ravine, watercourse, or drain.

OCCUPANCY TENANTS—A class of tenants with special rights in Central Provinces, in United Provinces.

PADAUK—A well known Burmese tree (*PREOCARPUS* sp.) from the behaviour of which the arrival of the monsoon is prognosticated.

PADDY—Unhusked rice.

PAGA—(Persian Paigah) troop of horses among the Marathas.

PAGL—A tracker of thieves of strayed or stolen animals.

PAHAR—A mountain.

PAIGAH—A tenure in Hyderabad State (Ltr Jagir for maintaining Paigah i.e., mounted troops).

PAIK—(1) A foot soldier, (2) in Assam formerly applied to every free male above sixteen years.

PAILL—A grain measure.

PAILWAN, PAHLWAN—Professional Wrestler.

PAIRER—The name of the second best variety of Bombay mango, distinguishable from the *ATVUS* (q.v.) by its pointed tip, and by the colour being less yellow and more green and red.

PAKKA, PUGGA—Ripe, mature, complete.

PALAR—See **DHAK**.

PALKE—A palangquin or litter.

PAN—The betel vine, *PYR BETLE*.

PANCHAMA—Low caste, Southern India.

PANCHAYAT—(1) A committee for management of the affairs of a caste, village, or town (2) arbitrators. Theoretically the panchayat has five (panch) members.

PANDA—A Hindu priest especially at holy places.

PANDIT—A Hindu title, strictly speaking applied to a person versed in the Hindu scriptures, but commonly used by Brahmans in Assam applied to a grade of inspectors of primary schools.

PANUPALI—Distribution of PAN and SUFARI (q.v.) as a form of ceremonial hospitality.

PARAITA—Fruit-tree or its fruit Pawpaw *Carica Papaya*.

PARAN—A public place for the distribution of water, maintained by charity.

PARABADI—A platform with a smaller platform like a dove-cot on a centre pole or pillar built and endowed or maintained by charity where grain is put every day for animals and birds.

PARDA, purdah—(1) A veil or curtain, (2) the practice of keeping women secluded, syn *gosh*.

PARDANASHIN—Women who observe purdah.

PARDHRI—Foreign. Used in Bombay especially of Hindu servants, spies, etc. from North India.

PARNANA—Fiscal area or petty sub-division of a tahsil Northern India.

PASHM—The fine wool of the Tibetan goat. Hence Pashmina cloth.

PASHTO, PUSHTO—Language of the Pathans.

PASO—A waistcloth.

PAT, put—A stretch of firm, hard clay Desert.

PATEL—A village headman, Central and Western India, syn. reddi, Southern India, raobhuta, Assam padhan Northern and Eastern India, Mukhl, Gujarat (Patil in Maharashtra).

PATIDAR—A co-sharer in a village, Gujarat.

PASTAWALLA—See **CHAPRAISI**.

PATWARI—A village accountant, syn. karnam Madras, kulkarni, Bombay Deccan, talati, Gujarat shanbhog, Mysore, Kanara and Coorg mandal Assam tapedar, Sind.

PEON—See **CHAPRAISI**.

PESHKAR—One who brings forward, submits papers, etc., personal clerk.

PESHKASH—A tribute or offering to a superior.

PIERKUP—Manager or agent.

PILAO (pulav)—A dish of rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specifically used of chicken with rice and spices.

PHULKARI—An embroidered sheet, lit flower-work.

PICH, paisa—A copper or bronze coin worth one farthing, also used as a generic term or money.

PICOTTAH—A lever for raising water in a bucket for irrigation, Southern India, syn. dhenkul or dhenkuli, or dhiki, Northern India.

PITAL—Sacred fig tree *Ficus Religiosa*.

PIR—A Mahomedan religious teacher or saint.

PIRADER—A class of legal practitioner.

PONGYI—A Buddhist monk or priest, Burma.

POSTIN, Postern—A coat or rug of sheep skin tanned with the wool on, Afghanistan.

PRABHAT PHERRI—Lit. Morning round of parties going round early in the morning singing political songs.

PRANT—An administrative sub-division in Maratha States corresponding to a British District (Baroda) or Division (Gwalior), also in Kathiawar.

PRANT OR PRANT NAGES—Sub Divisional Officer.

PRESIDENCY—A former Division of British India.

PRINCE—Term used in English courtesy for Shahzada but specially conferred in the case of "Prince of Arcot" (called also 'Armin Arcot').

PROTECTED—Forests over which a considerable degree of supervision is exercised but less than in the case of reserved forests.

PROVINCE—One of the large Divisions of British India.

PUNJ—Worship, Hindu.

PUNAM—The priest attached to a temple.

PUNDIT—See **Pandit**.

PURANA—Lit. old Sanskrit (1) applied to certain Hindu religious books, (2) to a geological 'group', (3) also to 'punch marked' coins.

PURNA SWARAJ—Complete independence.

PURONIT—A domestic chaplain or spiritual guide, Hindu.

PWM—An entertainment, Burma.

PRALIS—Bands of revellers who accompany the Muharram processions.

QILLA—A Fort.

RABLI—Any crop sown after the main South West monsoon.

RAG, RAGINI—Mode in Indian music.

RAGI (*Eleusine coracana*)—A small millet used as a food grain in Western and Southern India, syn *marus*, Nagli Nachli.

RAIL-GARL—Railway train.

RAIYAT OR RIOT—Farmer.

RAJA—A Hindu Prince of exalted rank but inferior to Maharaja. The feminine is *Rani* (Princess or Queen), and it has the variations *Raj Rana*, *Rao*, *Rat*, *Rawal*, *Rawal*, *Rakhar*, *Rakhar* and *Rakhar*. The form *Rao* is common in Bengal *Rao* in S & W India.

RAJ KUMAR—Son of a Raja.

RAJ RAJESHWAR—King of Kings.

RAMOSHI—A caste whose work is watch and ward in the village lands and hence used for any chankidar (g s). Actually a criminal tribe in Maharashtra.

RAMA—A title borne by some Rajput chiefs equivalent to that of Raja.

RANI—The wife or widow of a Raja.

RANI OR RONY—Flat land flooded in the monsoon and in crusted with salt when dry s g, the Rann of Cutch.

RAYLA—Mausoleum, shrine.

RAO—A title borne by Hindus, either equivalent to or ranking below, that of Raja.

REBAR—Name for a black soil in Central and Southern India, which is very retentive of moisture, and suitable for growing cotton.

REGULATION—A term formerly applied to certain provinces to show that the Regulations or full code of legislation applied to them.

REK—Saline or alkaline efflorescences on the surface of the soil, Northern India.

RESERVED—Forests intended to be maintained permanently.

RICKSHAW—A one or two seat vehicle on two wheels drawn by coolies, used in the hills.

RISALDAR—Commander of a troop of horse.

ROHI, ROZ—Nilgai.

ROHU—A kind of fish, LASSO ROHITA.

ROZI—Bread.

ROZA—Muslim fast during Ramazan. Also Mausoleum (corruption of *raza*).

RYOTWARI—The system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on the actual occupants of holdings.

SADHU—A Hindu ascetic.

SADH suttar—Chief (adjective). Hence the headquarters of a District formerly applied to the Appellate Courts.

SABA JANG—A long handled battleaxe carried by Jat Sikhs.

SAFFLOWER—A thistle which yields a yellow dye from its petals and oil from its seeds (*CARTHAXUS TINCTORIUS*) ver *kardal*, *kushanti*.

SAHEB—The Native Hindu term used to or of a European (Mr Smith) would be mentioned as Smith Sahab and his wife Smith Mem Sahab but in addressing it would be Sahab jem 'Sahaba without the name), occasionally appended to a title in the same way as Bahadur, but inferior (=master).

SAHIBZADA—Son of a person of consequence.

SAID, SAYID, BAYID, SYDI, SYED, SYUD—Various forms for a title adopted by those who claim direct male descent from Mohammed's grandson Husain.

SAL—A useful timber tree in Northern India, *SHOREA ROBUSTA*.

SAMBAR—A deer, *CERVUS UNICOLOR*, syn *BARU*.

SAN—Bombay hemp, *CROTALARIA JUNCOSA*.

SANAD—(1) A charter or grant, giving its name to a class of States in Central India held under a sanad (2) any kind of deed of grants.

SANGATHAN—Literally tying together. A movement which aims at unity and the knowledge of the art of self defence among Hindus. Roughly similar to Fascismo.

SAYRAM SANITI—War Council in the present (1911) Disobedience movement.

SANNYASI—A Hindu mendicant.

SARI—A long piece of cloth worn by women as a shawl.

SARANJAM—Land held revenue free or on a reduced quit rent in consideration of political services rendered by the holder s ancestors originally feudal tenure land for maintaining troops.

SARDAR (corrupted to *SERDAR*)—A leading Government official either civil or military even a Grand Vizier. Nearly all the Punjab Barons bear this title. It and *Din as* are like in value and used by both Hindus and Mohammedans but Mohammedans only are *Wali*, *Sultan*, *Amir*, *Mir*, *Mirza*, *Mian*, and *Khan*.

SARKAR—(1) The Government, (2) a tract of territory under Muhammadan rule, corresponding roughly to a Division under British administration.

SARSUBAR—An officer in charge of a Division in the Baroda State corresponding to Commissioner of British territories.

SATI—Suicide by a widow especially on the funeral pyre of her husband.

SARUKAR SARKAR SOWKAR—Banker, dealer in money, exchange, etc, money lender.

SATTYAGRAHA—(lit. Insistence on truth) passive resistance.

- BATTAGHAN**—A passive resistor one who will follow the truth wherever it may lead
- BATTA**—Speculation
- BAUDAGAR**—Merchant
- BAWAL**—A Hindu title implying a right distinction (lit one-fourth better than others)
- BAWWA**—A title borne by chiefs in the Shan States, Burma
- BEHAL** or cotton tree—A large forest tree with crimson flowers and pods containing a quantity of floss, **BOMBAX MALABARICUM**
- BHROW, SARAD**—A goat antelope, **NEMORHANDUS SUBALANUS**
- BETH, BETHK**—Merchant, banker
- SETTLEMENT**—(1) The preparation of a cadastral record and the fixing of the Government revenue from land, (2) the local inquiry made before Forest Reserves are created (3) the financial arrangement between the Government of India and Local Governments
- SHAHID**—A Muslim martyr
- SHAHADA**—Son of a King
- SHAIKH or SHEIKH** (Arabic)—A chief
- SHAME UL-ULAMA**—A Mohammedan title denoting learned
- SHAMSHER JAYS**—"Sword of Battle" (a title of the Maharaja of Travancore)
- SHAMSHOG**—See **PAFWANI**
- SHASTRAS**—The religious law-books of the Hindus
- SHIGADI, seggare** Shigri—A pan on 3 feet with live charcoal in it
- SHER**—Tiger
- SHER ser, seer**—A weight, or measure varying much in size in different parts of the country The Railway ser is about 2 lbs
- SHERK, shetbla**—A Hindu or Jain merchant
- SHIGRAM**—See **TONGA**
- SHIRHAM or shau**—Blackwood A valuable timber tree. **DALBERGIA Sissoo**
- SHEUTH**—Literally heard 'Vedas revealed to inspired Rishis
- SHEROFF**—Banker
- SHUDDHI**—Literally purification. A movement started in Rajputana and Northern India for the reconversion to Hinduism of those, like the Malakans Rajputs, who, though Mohammedans for some generations, have retained many Hindu practices
- SIDI**—A variation of "Said" Generic name for negroes domiciled in the Bombay Presidency Also applied by the French to the negroes in their Army
- SILLADAR**—A native trooper who furnishes his own horse and equipment
- SINDHIA**—See under "Gachwar"
- SIRUTI**—Unrevealed Laws, as opposed to Shruti, revealed Vedas
- SOLA**—A water plant with a valuable pith, **AMSONYXOMERIS ASPERA**
- SONI, SONAR**—Goldsmith
- SOWAR**—A mounted soldier or constable
- SOWKAR**—Merchant
- SWADISHI**—Intensive form of *deshi* preferred by politicians as sounding more dignified
- HAI or SHRI**—Lit fortune beauty, a Sanskrit term used by Hindus in speaking of a person much respected (never addressed 'o him nearly = 'Esquire) used also of divinities The two forms of spelling are occasioned by the intermediate sound of the *s* (that of *s* in the German *Stadt*)
- SRAJYU SRAJYU**—Modern Hindu equivalent of Mr
- STUPA or tope**—A Buddhist tumulus, usually of brick or stone and more or less hemispherical containing relics
- SURAB**—(1) A province under Mahomedan rule (2) the officer in charge of a large tract in Baroda corresponding to the Collector of a British District (3) a group of Districts or Division, Hyderabad
- SUBANDAR**—(1) The governor of a province under Mahomedan rule, (2) a native infantry officer in the Indian Army, (3) an official in Hyderabad corresponding to the Commissioner in British territory
- SUB DIVISION**—A portion of a District in charge of a junior officer of the Indian Civil Service or a Deputy Collector
- SULIAN**—A King
- SUNNAT**—Traditional law followed by Sunnis
- SUPARI**—The fruit of the betel palm, **ARECA CATECHU**
- SUPERINTENDENT**—(1) The chief police officer in a District (2) the official in charge of a hill station, (3) the official usually of the Indian Medical Service in charge of a Central Jail
- SURAJ SURYA**—Sun
- SURTI**—Native of Surat, specially used of persons of the dhed caste who work as house servants of Europeans and whose house speech is Gujarati Also called *Lala* or *Lalla*
- SWAMI**—A Hindu religious ascetic Also applied to Shankaracharyas, Mahants of Math, etc
- SYCH sala**—A groom
- SYED SYED**—More variations of "Said"
- TABLIQH**—The Mahomedan conversion movement
- TABUT**—See **TAFIAH**
- TAKHIL**—A revenue sub-division of a District syn. taluka, Bombay taluka, Madras and Mysore township, Burma
- TAKHILDAR**—The officer in charge of a tahsil syn. Mamlatdar, Bombay, township officer or myo-ok, Burma, Mukhtiar, Sind Vahl-vaidar, Baroda His duties are both executive and magisterial
- TAKAVI**—Loans made to agriculturists for seed, bullocks, or agricultural improvements, syn. tagal Also "Tagavi" Bombay

PAKLI—Small distaff for spinning yarn brought into fashion by Mr Gandhi.

TAL—Lake Musical time

TALAK—Mahomedan term for divorce

TALATI—Village accountant

TALAV or **talamo**—A lake or tank

TALUK, taluka—The estate of a talukdar in Oudh, Gulerat and Kathiawar. A revenue sub-division of a District, in Bombay Madras and Mysore *syn tasul*

TALUKDAR—A landholder with peculiar tenures in different parts of India. (1) An official in the Hyderabad State, corresponding to the Magistrate and Collector (First Talukdar) or Deputy Magistrates and Collectors (Second and Third Talukdars), (2) a land holder with a peculiar form of tenure in Gujarat

TALPUR—The name of a dynasty in Sind

TAMAKHT TAMHAKT—Tolacco

TAMASHA—Lobartainment gala In nautical name exhibition

TAMBU—Tent in the Bombay Presidency

TAMTAK tumtum—A North Indian name for a light trap or cart

TANK—In Southern, Western, and Central India, a lake formed by damming up a valley, in Northern India, an excavation holding water

TANZIM—Literally organization. A movement among the Mahomedans which aims at securing better education and a closer approach to unity among Mahomedans in India

TARENDAR—See **PATWARI**

TARAI—A moist swampy tract, the term especially applied to the tract along the foot of the Himalayas

TARI toddy—The sap of the date, palmyra, or coconut palm used as a drink, either fresh or after fermentation. In Northern India the juice of the date is called *Sandhi*

TASAR, tusore—Wild silkworms, *ANTHRAXA PAPHA*, also applied to the cloth made from their silk

TALUL—Brush wood fence or hurdle

TAKIA—Leth and paper models of the tombs of Hasan and Husain carried in procession at the Muharram festival, *syn tabut*

TAKL—A valuable timber tree in Southern and Western India and Burma, *TECTONA GRANDIS*.

TELEGRAPHIC TRANSFERS—See Council bills.

THAGI, thuggee—Robbery after strangulation of the victim

THAKUR—(1) The modern equivalent of the caste name *Kshatriya* in some parts of Northern India, (2) a title of respect applied to Brahmins, (3) a petty chief, (4) a hill tribe in the Western Ghats

THAMIN—The brow-antlered deer, Burma *CERVUS ELDI*

THANA—Military or Police-Station hence the circle attached to it

TID or **TIR**—Locust

TIKA—(1) Ceremonial anointing on the forehead, (2) vaccination

TIKA SARIN—Heir-apparent in several North Indian States

TIKAM—The English pickaxe (of which the *Dikass* is the common corruption of *Tikam* is derived in dictionaries from *Tikama*—Sharp)

TIH—An oilseed, *SERANUM INDICUM*, also known as gingelly in Madras.

TILAK—(Short a) the caste mark on the forehead among Hindus

TINDAL, tandel—A foreman, subordinate officer of a ship

TIPAI, Teapoy—A table with 3 legs, and hence used of any small European style table

TITAR—Partridge

TOLA—A weight equivalent to 180 grains (troy).

TONGA—A one or two horsed vehicle with a covered top *syn SIGHRAM*

TOTL—The word invariably used in South Indian planters to describe their estates. It is derived from the *Tamara* *thota* and similar words in *Jamal* and *Mekhalam* meaning an estate

TRUNK—Wild cattle found in Burma and to the southward, *BOE GONDALOUS syn. haling and banteng*

TUMKANDAR—A Persian word denoting some Office

ULANA SINGULAR ALUN—Mahomedan learned man

UMARA—Term implying the Nobles collectively. Plural of *'Amir*

UMBAR—A wild fig—(*FICUS BLOMBERATA*)

UMEDWAR—A hopeful person, one who works without pay in the hope of gaining a situation, anyone who aspires to soar

URTI—A term in famine administration denoting one person relieved for one day

URDU—Hindustani language as spoken and written by Mussalmans opposed to Hindi, spoken and written by Hindus

URIAL—A wild sheep in North Western India, *OVIS VIGORI*

URID, URID—A pulse, black grain' (*PHASEOLUS MUGGO*)

URUS—Mahomedan fete held in connexion with celebration at the tomb of a saint

USAR.—Soil made barren by saline effluence, Northern India

USTAD.—Master teacher, one skilled in any art or science

VARIVATDAR.—Officer in charge of a revenue sub-division with both executive and magisterial functions, Baroda, sru tahsildar

VAID or **Baidya** (is also a caste in Bengal).—A native doctor practising the Hindu system of medicine

VAKIL.—(1) A class of legal practitioners, (2) an agent generally

VEDA.—Revealed sacred books of Hindus

VEDANTA.—The philosophy of the Upanishads

VIHARA.—A Buddhist monastery

VILLAGE.—Usually applied to a certain area demarcated by survey, corresponding roughly to the English parish

VILLAGE UNION.—An area in which local affairs are administered by a small committee

WAAZ.—Mahomedan sermon

WADA or **WADI**.—(1) An enclosure with houses built round facing a centre yard, (2) private enclosed land near a village

WAKF.—A Muhammadan religious or charitable endowment

WALI.—Like "Sardar" The Governor of Khelat is so termed whilst the Chiefs of Kabul are both Wali and Mir

WAO.—A step well

WATAN.—A word of many senses In Bombay Presidency used mostly of the land or cash allowance enjoyed by the person who performs some service useful for Government or to the village community

WAZIR.—The chief minister at a Mahomedan court

WAT RATA.—The rate of revenue for land assured of irrigation

WRITER.—South Indian equivalent of *babu*

YAMA.—Hindu god of death

YOGA.—A system of Hindu philosophy Practices of breath control etc, said to give supernatural powers

YOGI.—A Hindu ascetic who follows the yoga system a cardinal part of which is that it confers complete control over bodily functions

YUNANI.—Lit. Greek, the system of medicine practised by Mahomedans

ZABARDAST.—Lit. Upper hand, hence strong, oppressive

ZABARDASTI.—Oppression

ZAMINDAR.—A landholder

ZAMINDARI.—(1) An estate, (2) the rights of a landholder, zamindar, (3) the system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on an individual or community occupying the position of a landlord

ZANANA.—Of women Women's apartment, harem

ZIARAT.—Pilgrimage Ziarat-gah, any shrine or tomb to which people go in pilgrimage

ZIKR.—Commemorative prayer said at the tomb of the prophet or a Mahomedan saint

ZILA.—A District

ZOR-TAKHRI.—Tribute paid to Junagadh Durbar by numerous Kathiawar States

ZULM ZULUM.—Tyranny, Oppression

The Peoples of India.

It is essential to bear in mind, when dealing with the people of India, that it is a continent rather than a country. Nowhere is the complex character of Indians more clearly exemplified than in the physical types of its inhabitants. No one would confuse the main types, such as Gurkhas, Pathans, Sikhs, Rajputs, Burmans, Nagas, Tamils, etc., nor does it take long to carry the differentiation much farther. The typical inhabitants of India—the Dravidians—differ altogether from those of Northern Asia, and more nearly resemble the tribes of Malaya, Sumatra and Madagascar. Whatever may be their origin, it is certain that they have settled in the country for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. They have been displaced in the North West by successive hordes of invaders, including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the North East by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma, which is India only in a modern political sense. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of the Indian Empire are divided by Sir Henry Hiley (Caste, Tribe and Race, Indian Census Report, 1901, the Gazetteer of India, Ethnology and Caste, Volume I, Chapter 4) into seven main physical types. There would be eight if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Turko-Iranian, represented by the Baluch, Turakul and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North West Frontier Province. Probably formed by a fusion of Turki and Persian elements in which the former predominate. Stature above mean complexion fair, eyes mostly dark but occasionally grey, hair on face plentiful, head broad, nose moderately narrow, prominent, and very long. The feature in these people that strikes one most prominently is the portentous length of their noses, and it is probably this peculiarity that has given rise to the tradition of the Jewish origin of the Afghans.

The Indo-Aryan occupying the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir and having as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattis, and Jats. This type, which is readily distinguishable from the Turko-Iranian, approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall, complexion fair, eyes dark, hair on face plentiful, head long, nose narrow, and prominent but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian, comprising the Maratha Brahmans, the Kunbis and the Coorgs of Western India. Probably formed by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index. All of these characters except perhaps the last, may be due to a varying degree of intermixture with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight, in the lower Dravidian elements are more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani, found in the United Provinces, in parts of Raj-

putana and in Bihar and represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman and in its lower by the Chamar. Probably the result of the intermixture in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head form is long with a tendency to medium, the complexion varies from lightish brown to black, the nose ranges from medium to broad being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans, the stature is lower than in the latter group and usually below the average according to the scale. The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo-Aryans while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is essentially a mixed one yet its characteristics are readily definable and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type is the character which gives the real clue to its origin and stamps the Aryo-Dravidian as racially different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportions of the nose.

The Mongolo-Dravidian, or Bengali type of Lower Bengal and Orissa, comprising the Bengali Brahmans and Kayasthas, the Mahomdians of Eastern Bengal, and other groups peculiar to this part of India. Probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad, complexion dark, hair on face usually plentiful, stature medium, nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India and its members may be recognized at a glance through out the wide area where their remarkable aptitude for clerical pursuits has procured them employment. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa, the western limit coincides approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam, and Burma, represented by the Kanets of Lahul and Spiti, the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim, the Limbus, Mursis and Gurungs of Nepal, the Bodos of Assam, and the Burmese. The head is broad, complexion dark, with a yellow tinge, hair on face scanty, stature short or below average, nose fine to broad, face characteristically flat, eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type extending from Ceylon to the valley of the Ganges, and pervading Madras, Hyderabad, the Central Provinces, most of Central India and Chota Nagpur. Its most characteristic representatives are the Panjyans of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur. Probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens the stature is short or below mean, the complexion very dark, approaching black, hair plentiful, with an occasional tendency to curl, eyes dark, head long, nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear

lat. This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest clad ranges, turreted plateau, and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking, from the Vindhya to Cape Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is nonterminous with the Gange while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravalli, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original characteristics have been unchanged by contact with Indo Aryan or Mongoloid people, the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. Labour is the birthright of the pure Dravidian whether hoeing tea in Assam, the Duars, of Ceylon, cutting rice in the swamps of Eastern Bengal or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Bangoon and Singapore, he is recognisable at a glance by his black skin, his

squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social deposit which is here treated as Dravidian these typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among them traces of the original stock survive in varying degrees.

The areas occupied by these various types do not admit of being defined as sharply as they must be shown on an ethnographic map. They melt into each other insensibly and although at the close of a day's journey from one ethnic tract to another, an observer whose attention had been directed to the subject would realise clearly enough that the physical characteristics of the people had undergone an appreciable change, he would certainly be unable to say at what particular stage in his progress the transformation had taken place.

MAIN STATISTICS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE

The Indian Empire has an area of 1,805,332 square miles, about 3,000 square miles being added at the last census owing to the enumeration by estimate of certain tracts in Burma which had been excluded from previous censuses.

Of this total area 1,094,800 square miles, or 61 per cent lie in British Territory, while the Indian States cover an area of 711,032 square miles, or 39 per cent. The total population is 318,942,480, British Territory containing 247,003,293 persons, or 77 per cent and the Indian States 71,939,187 persons, or 23 per cent of the whole population. It is usual to illustrate

these figures by comparison with the countries of Europe and in respect of area and population the Indian Empire has been frequently compared to Europe without Russia. The war has however, considerably altered the national and political distribution of countries and the new political map of Europe is perhaps hardly yet sufficiently familiar to form a graphic contrast. Turning further west we find that India with an area about half that of the United States has a population almost three times as large.

The most important statistics are set out in the following table—

	India	British Provinces	Indian States
Area in Square Miles	1,805,332	1,094,800	711,032
Number of Towns and Villages	637,931	500,088	137,893
(a) Towns	2,316	1,561	755
(b) Villages	635,665	498,527	137,138
Number of Occupied Houses	65,198,389	50,441,636	14,756,753
(a) In Towns	6,765,014	5,046,820	1,718,194
(b) In Villages	58,433,375	45,394,816	13,038,559
Total Population	318,942,480	247,003,293	71,939,187
(a) In Towns	32,476,276	25,044,368	7,430,908
(b) In Villages	286,467,204	221,958,925	64,508,279
Males	163,995,554	123,872,116	37,123,438
(a) In Towns	17,845,248	13,971,136	3,874,112
(b) In Villages	146,150,306	112,900,980	33,249,326
Females	154,946,926	123,131,177	34,815,749
(a) In Towns	14,630,028	11,073,232	3,556,796
(b) In Villages	140,316,898	109,057,945	31,258,953

Density.—Over the whole of India the population per square mile averages 177, the mean density in the British Provinces being 226 and in the States 101. If the districts (and small States) are taken as a unit and the cities are excluded the mean density ranges between a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 1,832 per square mile. The unequal distribution of the population of India is due to causes analysed in previous editions of the Year Book, it is chiefly dictated by physical conditions. Other influences are at work, such as the state of law and order, the means of communication, climate, and the existence of irrigation. Industrial factors are becoming more and more important as the population moves out of the congested rural tracts to supply the labour needed for industrial enterprise—for the tea in Assam

the docks and jute mills of Calcutta, the mineral of Bengal and Chota Nagpur the cotton of Bombay and the coffee and rubber of Southern India. For the purposes of comparison the manner in which this population is distributed in other countries of the world is indicated in the following statement —

Belgium	654
England and Wales	649
France	184
Germany	332
The Netherlands	544
Austria	199
Spain	107
Japan	215
United States	32
New Zealand	1 18

MOVEMENT OF THE POPULATION

The population of India has increased by 1·2 per cent during the decade. The figures of previous censuses with the variations per cent are given below. The average increase since the census of 1872 falls at a rate of 5·5 per cent., but the real gain is considerably less than this figure owing to two factors, (a) the additions of area and population included at each census and (b) the progressive increase in the accuracy of the enumeration from census to census. So far as the present census is concerned the additional area and population included amount to 2,675 square miles and 86,583 persons, respectively, while for the present purpose it may be taken that the enumeration of 1921 was, as regards numbers, as accurate but not more accurate than that of 1911. The real increase in the population during the last 49 years is thus estimated at about fifty four millions or 29·1 per cent.

Census of	Population	Variation per cent since previous census
1872	206,162,960	—
1881	258,696,330	+23·2
1891	287,314,671	+18·2
1901	294,381,056	+2·5
1911	315,156,396	+7·1
1921	318,942,480	+1·2

Factors in the Movement.—The increase was slightly greater in the British districts (1·3) than in the States (1·0). Assam and Burma show comparatively high rates of increase, immigration is an important factor in the rise in Assam, but neither of these Provinces was exposed to the invasion of influenza which wiped out the whole of the natural increase in the Central Provinces and Berar, Bihar and Orissa, and Bombay, and substantially reduced the population in the United Provinces and Rajputana, the Central India Agency, and Hyderabad State. The stimulus given to agricultural property in the Punjab by a large expansion of canal irrigation did much to neutralise the effects of the high death rate in 1918. In Bengal

and Madras unhealthy conditions were more localised and the development of the population was only partially retarded.

The War.—The war itself had little direct effect on the population of India. Such effect could operate in three ways (1) by death casualties (2) by increasing the number of persons outside India at the census, and (3) by decreasing the birth rate. The actual number of death casualties among the officers and ranks of Indian Army units and labour corps was 88,238. The maximum number serving out of India in combatant and labour units at any one time between 1914 and 1919 was, approximately, Indian troops 250,000, labour corps 230,000, total 480,000 the number about the time of the census being troops 105,000, labour corps 20,800, total 125,800. So far as the larger totals are concerned the war is not a direct factor of any importance in the census in any province.

Economic Conditions.—In considering the economic factors which determined the movement of the population during the decade it can be divided into two periods, a fairly normal period from 1911 to 1917 and the disastrous epidemic year 1918, accompanied by scarcity and followed by a second crop failure in 1920. In 1917 conditions in India began to respond to the world conditions of the war, men for the fighting and labour units and food, munitions and war material of all kinds were demanded. The strain on the railway organisation dislocated the local markets and the distribution system of the country was impaired. The rising prices of imported necessities hit the poorer classes. Then followed the disastrous seasons of 1918 and 1919. Famine relief organisation is now so highly perfected in India that scarcity is not necessarily accompanied by high mortality but influenza, starting in 1918, visited almost every portion of the country and in a few months wiped out the natural increase in the population of the previous seven years.

Public Health.—The distinctive feature of the decade 1901-1911 was plague. The recorded number of deaths from plague in the ten years was 64 millions. In the recent decade the deaths were less than half that number. Cholera is normally most prevalent in the Eastern Provinces.

Virulent as the epidemic can still be when its hold is established it is now usually of a temporary and local nature, and the total death rate in British India from the disease during the decade did not amount to more than 1.6 per cent. By far the largest number of deaths in India are entered under the category of fever, and allowing for inaccuracy of diagnosis it has usually been assumed that about two thirds of the deaths so recorded may be ascribed to malaria. Recent investigations made in special areas however, suggest that this proportion has been considerably over-estimated and that malaria only accounts for from one fifth to one fourth of the number of reported fever cases the remainder being cases of dysentery, pneumonia, phthisis and other diseases.

In the last few years the prevalence of an affection which is the cause of considerable mortality called *Relapsing Fever* has received considerable attention by the Health Department. This disease has been diagnosed as common in most parts of the country, specially in the northern provinces and in the Central Provinces and Berar and Bombay, but the extent of the mortality which can be ascribed to it cannot at present be estimated. Nor can figures be given of phthisis which is undoubtedly responsible for considerable mortality especially in the towns of western India, the deaths from this disease in Ahmedabad amounting in 1918 to 5 per mille of the population. All other factors in the health of the people have been overshadowed by the influenza epidemic of 1918 and 1919 which has dominated the population figures at the 1921 census.

Influenza.—The influenza epidemic of 1918 invaded India in two distinct waves. The first infection apparently radiated from Bombay, but it is impossible to say where the more virulent virus of the second invasion came from.

The rural areas were most severely infected the reason probably being that while villages have little advantage over towns in the matter of overcrowding, sanitation and ventilation the urban areas have the benefit of qualified medical aid and organised effort. Mortality was especially high among adults (20-40), particularly among adult females the disease being generally fatal to women in pregnancy. At the worst period whole villages were absolutely laid desolate by the disease. There was sometimes no means of disposing of the dead, crops were left unharvested and all local official action was largely paralysed owing to the fact that the majority of the official staff were put out of action by the epidemic. To add to the distress the disease came at a period of widespread crop failure and reached its climax in November when the cold weather had set in, and, as the price of cloth happened at the time to be at its highest, many were unable to provide themselves with the warm clothing that was essential in the case of an illness that so readily attacked the lungs. The disease lasted in most provinces well into 1919 and gave a high mortality in that year in Bengal and the United Provinces. Even after it had subsided there were in the Central Provinces, Bombay and Burma mild recrudescences later in the year, while local outbreaks continued over the country during the next two years.

There is no direct means of ascertaining the mortality from the epidemic. Various estimates have been made based on the excess mortality over some suitable mean. The average of these calculations gives a total number of deaths in the areas under registration of about 7,100,000 in 1918, to which must be added, as the results of similar calculation, another 1½ million deaths in 1919 giving a total recorded mortality of nearly 8½ millions in the two years. Even this, however, must be a substantial under-estimate since, owing to the complete breakdown of the reporting staff the registration of vital statistics was in many cases suspended during the progress of the epidemic in 1918.

The total influenza mortality for India is put at between 12 and 13 millions. This is a conservative estimate. Even this estimate makes the influenza mortality, a large part of which occurred in three or four months, exceed by nearly two millions the total estimated deaths from plague in twenty years. On an estimated case mortality of ten per cent the total number of persons affected was 125 millions or two fifths of the population of India. There was a further reaction on the birth rate.

Houses and Families.—The average number of persons per house has not changed in the last decade though there was a decline between 1881 and 1911. The trend of the figures varies in different provinces but they do not afford substantial ground for any material inference. It would, for example, be expected that the incidence of the influenza mortality would fall fairly evenly upon the individual households and would therefore cause a reduction in the number of persons per house. It does not appear to have done so either in Bombay, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, or Rajputana, while in Bengal, where there is a rise in the population, there is a fall in the size of the household. The figures are unsatisfactory, and though they invite a discussion on the condition of the joint family it is doubtful if they can really be held to illuminate it. The general opinion of the Provincial Superintendents is that they do not do so and that other indications do not show that the joint family system has yet undergone any radical change, at any rate in the agricultural tracts of the country.

Census	Persons per house	Houses per square mile
1921	4.9	36.1
1911	4.9	35.8
1901	5.2	31.6
1891	5.4	33.9
1881	5.3	31.7

Variation in Natural Population

19

Variation in Natural Population 1911-1921

Provinces, State of Agency	POPULATION IN 1921				POPULATION IN 1911				Variation per cent (1911-1921) in Natural Population Increase (+) Decrease (-)
	Actual population	Immigrant grants	Emigrant grants	Natural population	Actual population	Immigrant grants	Emigrant grants	Natural population	
INDIA	318,885,980	607,526	1,050,051	319,332,405	316,110,231	625,122	1,023,505	315,508,614	+ 1 2
Ajmer-Merwara	495,271	109,890	42,420	437,861	501,859	96,578	84,370	495,987	- 12 5
Andaman & Nicobar	27,066	15,120	15,310	12,326	26,495	14,402	14,402	13,027	- 12 7
Assam	7,990,246	1,980,187	75,978	6,776,067	7,089,857	832,068	74,894	6,952,063	+ 8 4
Baluchistan	709,635	76,387	60,421	656,947	811,889	93,569	76,273	802,476	+ 2 3
Bengal	47,692,452	1,929,610	697,041	46,394,899	46,305,622	1,870,712	581,757	44,919,621	+ 1 0
Bihar & Orissa	27,961,558	1,935,048	652,008	26,211,508	27,036,152	1,870,712	652,008	25,965,139	- 1 7
Bombay	26,701,148	1,031,649	405,783	26,211,508	27,036,152	1,870,712	652,008	25,965,139	+ 1 0
Burma	13,812,192	706,725	405,783	12,577,782	12,036,152	706,725	405,783	11,538,418	+ 5 6
C. P. & Berar	16,979,530	609,394	407,298	15,777,450	16,038,317	696,965	315,233	15,598,538	+ 1 1
Coorg	42,738,555	238,827	91,523	42,340,755	41,870,160	253,277	1,613,179	43,124,403	+ 0 4
Madras	9,074,176	187,562	81,483	8,903,400	8,810,027	135,545	1,673,778	9,751,060	+ 38 2
N. W. P. Province	438,188	185,770	69,250	371,798	384,187,750	660,319	517,486	24,045,016	+ 5 6
Punjab	25,101,080	627,137	519,429	25,083,523	25,187,750	660,319	517,486	24,045,016	+ 5 6
United Provinces	46,610,668	480,134	1,402,511	47,432,795	48,014,080	660,195	1,429,810	46,783,308	- 2 7
Baroda State	2,126,232	282,464	231,602	2,115,630	2,082,768	232,927	235,628	2,046,369	- 3 4
Gwalior State	3,186,075	290,940	239,029	3,184,764	3,184,764	232,927	235,628	3,118,853	- 3 1
Central India (Agency)	5,997,053	548,094	486,645	5,935,678	5,935,678	474,255	536,133	5,400,963	+ 16 5
Cochin State	979,050	89,759	28,838	967,652	918,110	47,266	21,268	936,842	+ 3 2
Hyderabad State	12,471,770	202,781	86,751	12,362,238	13,374,676	260,713	306,888	13,420,761	+ 5 8
Kashmir State	5,520,518	69,420	84,291	5,476,707	5,476,707	78,773	91,068	5,385,639	- 2 3
Mysore State	6,878,392	314,631	108,104	6,768,457	6,804,191	312,008	139,607	6,564,584	+ 2 5
Rajasthan (Agency)	9,844,384	243,003	868,117	10,469,499	10,530,432	308,553	555,917	11,086,350	+ 2 1
Sikkim State	81,721	23,978	4,198	82,876	87,020	29,895	3,445	83,571	+ 1 6
Travancore State	4,006,062	75,591	302,200	3,962,721	3,438,975	61,165	91,143	3,400,963	+ 16 5

NOTE—

- (1) The figures for the Provinces are inclusive of the States attached to them except in the case of Madras where they exclude Cochin and Travancore
- (2) The Actual and Natural population shown in this table is less by 26 500 persons owing to the exclusion of Aden where Table XI was not compiled
- (3) Columns 2 and 6—Persons not enumerated by birth place or whose birth place was not returned have been included in these columns
- (4) Columns 4 and 8—The figures against India in columns 4 and 8 represent emigrants to foreign countries details of which for 1921 will be found in Subsidial Table V of Chapter III

AREA OF INDIA AND THE PROVINCES AND STATES

Province, State or Agency	AREA IN SQUARE MILES IN		Difference Increase +, Decrease —
	1921	1911	
INDIA	1,802,332	1,802,657	+2 675
<i>Provinces</i>	1 094,800	1,093 074	+ 1,220
Ajmer Merwara	2,711	2 711	—
Andamans and Nicobars	3,143	3,143	—
Assam	53,016	53 015	—
Baluchistan (Districts and Administered Territories)	54,228	54,228	—
Bengal	76 843	78,090	-1,836
Bihar and Orissa	83 161	83,181	-20
Bombay	123 621	123 059	+56*
Burma	233 707	240,839	+2 868
Central Provinces and Berar	99,876	99,823	+53
Coorg	1,582	1,582	—
Madras	142,260	142,330	-70
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and Administered Territories)	13,419	13 418	+1
Punjab and Delhi	100,439	99 779	+660
United Provinces	106,290	107 267	-972
<i>States and Agencies</i>	711,032	709,583	+1,449
Assam State (Manipur)	8 458	8 408	—
Baluchistan States	80,410	80,410	—
Baroda State	8,127	8,182	-55
Bengal States	5 434	5 393	+41
Bihar and Orissa States	28,648	28,648	—
Bombay States	63 453	63 804	-411
Central India Agency and Gwalior State	77,888	77,367	+521
Central Provinces States	31,176	31,174	+2
Hyderabad State	82,698	82,698	—
Kashmir State	84,258	84 432	-174
Madras States	10 696	10,040	+147
Mysore State	29,475	29,170	—
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal Areas)	25,500	25,500	—
Punjab States	37,059	36 561	+508
Rajputana (Agency)	128,987	128,987	—
Sikkim State	2,818	2 818	—
United Provinces States	5 949	5 079	+ 870

NOTE.—The difference in areas is due to the use of revised survey figures and to corrections for trivial action, in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Punjab and the United Provinces it is also due to inter provincial transfers.

THE POPULATION OF INDIA AT SIX CENSUSES

		India	British Provinces.	Indian States
Total Population	1821	318,942,480	247,003,297	71,939,183
	1831	315,156,398	243,933,178	71,223,218
	1901	294,361,056	231,209,098	63,151,958
	1891	287,314,671	220,879,388	66,435,283
	1881	253,806,330	196,546,780	55,259,550
	1872	206,182,360	181,858,172	24,324,188
Males	1821	163,995,554	126,872,116	37,123,438
	1831	161,335,935	124,707,910	36,628,025
	1901	149,951,824	117,482,836	32,468,988
	1891	146,769,629	112,394,551	34,375,078
	1881	129,849,200	101,185,117	28,664,083
	1872	106,005,445	95,136,615	10,868,830
Females	1821	154,946,926	120,131,177	34,815,749
	1831	153,817,461	119,225,263	34,592,198
	1901	144,409,232	113,726,262	30,682,970
	1891	140,545,042	108,484,637	32,060,405
	1881	123,917,040	97,360,663	26,556,377
	1872	100,100,915	89,721,567	10,379,348

Future Population of India.—A study of the growth of the population of India and the problems which it presents is vitiated by the abnormal conditions of the past decade. It was pointed out in the census report of 1911 that the rate of increase of population between 1872 and 1911 was equivalent to about 19 per cent., and that at this rate the population would double itself in about a century and a half. The real increase in the last fifty years in the population of India is just over 20 per cent. At this rate the doubling will take another 190 years. But calculations of this kind, though of interest, can hardly be taken seriously. Almost every one of the last five decades has witnessed some special disaster. A severe famine in South India checked the increase in the decade 1872-1881. The decennium 1881-1901 was dominated by the great famines of the closing period. Growth in North and Western India was checked in the succeeding decade by plague and we have had in the past decennium an epidemic which has caused more concentrated mortality than any previous calamity. The decade 1881-1891 alone

was free from any exceptional calamity and is usually considered a period of fairly normal progress.

Difference between the birth rate and death rate estimated by the actuary for certain provinces in certain decades

Province	1881-1891	1901-1911
Bengal	7.0	7.3
Bombay	18.9	5.2
Barma		11.1
Madras	13.3	8.5
Punjab	9.3	5.7
United Provinces	6.5	0.6
Combined Provinces		8.2

TOWN AND COUNTRY

The progress of urbanisation in India—if there has been any progress at all—has been very slow during the past thirty years, the whole increase being less than one per cent. An examination of the statistics shows that whilst towns with populations above 50,000, increased by over 16 per cent. in the decade, the increase was considerably less in those

between 5,000 and 50,000 whereas the population of towns between 10 to 20 thousand did not keep abreast of the progress of the general population of the country. The statistics reveal the gradual decadence of the medium-size country towns and the growth of the larger cities under the influence of commercial and industrial development.

**DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN GROUPS OF TOWNS ACCORD-
ING TO SIZE AND IN RURAL TERRITORY**

Class of places	1931		1921
	Places	Population	Per cent
Total Population	687,935	316,017,751	100.0
Urban Territory	2,313	32,418,776	10.2
Towns having—			
I 100,000 and over	85	8,211,704	2.6
II 50,000 to 100,000	84	3,517,739	1.1
III 20,000 to 50,000	199	5,925,675	1.8
IV 10,000 to 20,000	450	6,209,583	2.0
V 5,000 to 10,000	885	6,223,011	2.0
VI Under 5,000	690	2,881,054	.7
Rural Territory	685,622	283,598,975	89.8

Cities—Statistical information for the 33 largest cities of India which have 100,000 or more inhabitants is given in the statement below —

CITY	Popula- tion 1921	Number of per- sons per sq. mile	Propor- tion of foreign born per mile	Percentage or variation 1911-21
Calcutta with suburbs and Howrah	1,327,547	21,412	629	+ 4.3
Bombay	1,175,914	48,996	340	+20.1
Madras and Cantonment	526,911	38,169	335	+ 1.6
Hyderabad and Cantonment	404,187	7,925	275	-10.4
Rangoon and Cantonment	341,962	4,500	677	+18.6
Delhi and Cantonment	304,420	4,683	450	+30.7
Lahore and Cantonment	281,781	6,715	440	+23.2
Ahmedabad and Cantonment	274,007	24,909	397	+17.7
Lucknow and Cantonment	240,566	1,850	229	- 4.6
Bangalore	237,496	20,931	340	+25.3
Karachi and Cantonment	210,833	19,716	605	+42.8
Cawnpore and Cantonment	216,436	22,620	425	+21.2
Poona and Cantonment	214,700	5,369	878	+13.8
Benares and Cantonment	198,447	19,930	140	- 2.6
Agra and Cantonment	185,532	21,000	219	
Amritsar and Cantonment	160,218	16,584	181	+ 4.9
Allahabad and Cantonment	157,220	10,250	206	- 8.4
Mandalay and Cantonment	148,917	6,917	209	+ 7.7
Nagpur	145,193	7,259	258	+42.2
Srinagar	141,735	13,653	21	+ 8.9
Madurai	138,894	17,105	178	+ 2.8
Bareilly and Cantonment	129,459	16,800	128	
Meerut and Cantonment	123,609	15,642	210	+ 5.1
Trichinopoly and Cantonment	120,422	13,622	176	- 2.5
Jaipur	120,207	40,069	68	-12.8
Patna	119,976	7,998	160	-11.9
Solapur	119,581	17,083	391	+34.9
Dacca	119,450	17,566	140	+10.0
Surat and Cantonment	117,434	89,144	135	+ 2.2
Ajmer	113,512	6,977	537	+31.7
Jubbulpore and Cantonment	108,788	7,252	366	+ 8.1
Peshawar and Cantonment	104,452	34,317	349	+ 4.7
Bawalpindi and Cantonment	101,142	11,802	532	+17.0

In these statistics the population of Calcutta is taken as embracing the suburbs, and this method is apparently adopted in dealing with Calcutta only. It is not, for instance, adopted in dealing with the considerable suburbs of Bombay just outside the limits of the Island. The actual population of Calcutta within the Municipal area is 866,616.

Migration.—Of the population of the Indian Empire only 603,526 were enumerated as born in other parts of the world. Of these about four fifths came from other Asiatic countries, such as Nepal, Afghanistan, China, Siam, Ceylon, and Arabia and the remainder mostly from Great Britain and other countries of Europe. The emigration from India is approximately 17 million, so the numbers who move between India and other countries is about two millions. Of the total immigrant population of 707,000 in Burma 573,000 are Indians, 102,000 Chinese, representing 80 and 15 per cent respectively of the whole number. Of the Provinces which contribute most largely to the streams of immigrants the most conspicuous are Bihar and Orissa about 1½ million, the United Provinces about 1 million, Madras ¾ of a million, Rajputana 3-5th of a million and Hyderabad 1-4th of a million. The number of persons resident in India who were born outside the Indian Empire is 603,526 and of these 274,000 were born in Nepal, 116,000 in the British Isles, 108,000 in China and 48,000 in Afghanistan.

The statistics of emigration outside India are far from complete.

The number of Indians belonging to regiments and labour-corps outside India at the time of the census was about 125,000. Of these the majority were probably in Mesopotamia and Palestine. According to the returns

the number of Indians in the colonies, irrespective of birth-place, amounts to 1,682,000 of whom 1,028,000 or about two-thirds are males. More than four fifths are Hindus and about half of the remainder are Mussalmans. The colonies which attract an appreciable number of emigrants are shown below. About one-ninth of the emigrants failed to specify their province of birth, and of the remainder no less than 841,000 or 80 per cent were from Madras, 21,000 from Bombay, 18,000 from the Punjab, 17,000 from the North West Frontier Province and 11,000 from Bengal. The majority of the emigrants work as agricultural labourers on rubber, tea, coffee and other plantations. Under the Defence of India Bales indentured labour emigration was stopped in March 1917, but there had been a considerable outflow of labourers to the colonies in the previous years and more than 2½ millions of natives of India passed through the ports of Madras and Calcutta as indentured labourers for the various colonies during the decade. Of the labourers 83,000 went from Calcutta, but the bulk were from the Madras Presidency and their destination was Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. There is very little emigration from the ports of Bombay and Karachi. Altogether about two million labourers returned to India from the colonies during the decade.

Indian emigrants to certain Colonies

	In thousands
Ceylon	461
Straits Settlements and Malay	401
Natal	47
Trinidad	37
Fiji	33
Mauritius	17
Kenya	17

RELIGIONS.

The subject of religion is severely controversial in India, where often it is coloured by politics and racialism. As the Year Book aims at being impartial, all disputed inferences are excluded. Speaking broadly of every hundred persons in the Indian Empire 63 are Hindus, 22 Mahomedans, 3 Buddhists, 3 follow the religion of their tribes, one is a Chris-

tian and one a Sikh. Of the remaining 2 one is equally likely to be a Buddhist or a Christian, and the other most probably a Jain, much less probably a Parsi and just as possibly either a Jew, a Brahmo, or a holder of indefinite beliefs. The enumerated totals of the Indian religions are set out in the following table—

Religion	Actual number in 1921 (000's omitted)	Proportion per 10,000 of population in 1921	Variation per cent (Increase + Decrease -)
Indo Aryan	232,723	7,342	+ 1
Hindu	216,735	6,856	+ 4
Brahmanic	216,361	6,841	+ 5
Arya	463	15	+ 92 1
Brahmo	6	2	+ 16 1
Sikh	3,239	103	+ 7 4
Jain	1,173	37	+ 5 6
Buddhist	1,571	366	+ 7 9
Iranian (Zoroastrian (Parsi))	103	3	+ 1 7
Semitic	73,511	2,325	+ 4 2
Mussalman	68,735	2,174	+ 5 1
Christian	4,764	150	+ 22 6
Jew	23	6	+ 8 8
Primitive (Tribal)	9,775	309	+ 5 1
Miscellaneous (Minor Religions and religions not returned)	18	1	- 51 5

The Hindus largely predominate in the centre and south of India, and in the Madras Presidency they are no less than 89 per cent of the population. Hindus are in the majority in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Central India tracts, Rajputana and Bombay. Muhammadans monopolise the North West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Kashmir and are considerably in excess in the Punjab and Eastern Bengal and Sind. They form about 28 per cent of the population of Assam, 14 per cent in the United Provinces and 10 per cent in Hyderabad. The Buddhists are almost entirely confined to Burma where they are 85 per cent of the population. The Sikhs are localised in the Punjab and the Jains in Rajputana, Ajmer Merwara and the neighbouring States. Those who were classed as following Tribal Religions are chiefly found in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam but Bengal, Burma, Madras, Rajputana, Central India and Hyderabad also returned a considerable number under this head. More than three fifths of the total number of Christians reside in South India including the Hyderabad State. The remainder are scattered over the continent,

the larger numbers being returned in the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma, Bombay and Assam. The Parsis and Jews are chiefly residents of the Bombay Presidency.

Christians.—The Christian community now numbers just 4½ millions of persons in India or 1½ per cent of the population. Fifty-nine per cent of Christians are returned from the Madras Presidency and its States, and the community can claim 32 persons in every 1,000 of the population of the British districts of Madras and as large a proportion as 27 per cent in Cochin and 29 per cent in Travancore, where the increase during the decade was about 30 per cent. Elsewhere the Christians are scattered over the larger Provinces and States of India, the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa each having over 300 thousands. Bombay, Burma and the United Provinces between 200 and 300 thousands and Bengal and Assam between 100 and 150 thousands. Divided racially Europeans (and allied races) number 176 thousands, Anglo Indians 113 thousands and Indians nearly 4½ millions so that out of every 100 Christians 93 are Indians, 4 are Europeans and 3 are Anglo Indians.

SECTS OF CHRISTIANS

Sect.	Total	
	1921	1911
INDIA	4,753,174	3,878,958
Abyssinian	1	25
Anglican Communion	533,180	492,762
Armenian	1,467	1,200
Baptist	444,479	337,226
Congregationalist	123,016	115,245
Greek	237	594
Lutheran	240,814	218,500
Methodist	208,185	171,844
Minor Protestant Denominations	26,862	12,469
Presbyterian	254,838	181,130
Protestants (Unsectarian or Sect not specified)	78,009	82,180
Quaker	1,036	12,405
Roman Catholic	1,823,079	1,490,868
Salvationist	88,222	82,407
South India United Church	65,747	
Syrian, Chaldean	1,926	12,780
Syrian, Jacobite	252,969	235,190
Syrian, Nestorian	97	
Syrian, Reformed	112,017	75,840
Syrian, Romo-Syrian	423,969	413,142
Syrian, Unspecified	559	844
Sect not returned	75,904	17,934

AGE AND SEX

The figures of the total population of India are not tabulated by annual age periods but the table below gives the age distribution of 10,000 males and females in the Indian population

Age-group	1921		1911	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
0-5	1,202	1,316	1,327	1,433
5-10	1,471	1,494	1,383	1,383
10-15	1,246	1,081	1,165	907
15-20	842	815	848	826
20-25	775	681	822	930
25-30	865	885	896	909
30-35	823	833	829	835
35-40	686	595	622	556
40-45	621	621	684	631
45-50	392	345	380	328
50-55	434	438	432	443
55-60	185	198	177	164
60-65	266	298	257	305
65-70	81	79	89	75
70 & over	160	180	145	175
Mean age	24.8	24.7	24.7	24.7

In the whole of British India the infant death rate amounts to about one fifth of the total death rate for all ages and about one fifth of the children die before the age of one year. The ratios of deaths vary in different provinces the birth rate being an important factor. Thus they are especially high in the United Provinces and Central Provinces where the birth rate is high and low in Madras which has a lower general birth rate. The recorded rates in some of the cities are phenomenally high but may owing to the defective reporting of births be somewhat exaggerated.

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in India. Owing to the custom of early marriage cohabitation and child birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and this, combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. Available statistics show that over 40 per cent of the deaths of infants occur in the first week after birth and over 60 per cent in the first month. If the child survives the pre-natal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child birth, it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhoea or dysentery.

Infant mortality in Cities

Bombay	556
Calcutta	386
Rangoon	303
Madras	282
Karachi	249
Delhi	233

Sex Ratio.—In the whole of India there is an excess of males over females, the figures being 945 females per thousand males. These results being opposed to experience in most other countries of the world have been challenged and attributed to errors in the Indian census. This reasoning is rejected by the Census authorities, who insist that the disparity between the sexes is due to special conditions in the Indian Empire. The sex ratio has fallen in the last twenty years throughout India. The statistics of birth suggest that the proportion of females born to males born has if anything, declined during this period, and in any case there has been a marked decline in the last five years of the last decade in most provinces. The decline in the proportion of women however is chiefly due to (a) the absence of famine mortality which selects adversely to males and (b) the heavy mortality from plague and influenza which has selected adversely to females.

Marriage.—The subject of polygamy has been discussed fully in the report of 1911. Both Hindus and Muhammadans are allowed more wives than one Muhammadans being nominally restricted to four. As a matter of practice polygamy is comparatively rare owing to domestic and economic reasons and has little effect on the statistics. The table shows the number of married women per 1,000 married men in India and the main provinces. No definite conclusions however can be drawn from these figures because (1) they probably contain a certain number of widows divorcees and prostitutes who have wrongly returned as married and (2) it is impossible accurately to gauge the effect of migration on the figures of the married in any area. The custom of polyandry is recognized as a regular institution among some of the tribes of the Himalayas and in parts of south India. It is also practised among many of the lower castes and aboriginal tribes. Its effect is reflected in the statistics of a few small communities such as the Buddhists of Kashmir where the proportion of married women to married men is exceptionally low, but otherwise the custom is of sociological rather than of statistical interest.

Number of married females per 1 000 males

India	1 006
Assam	976
Bengal	966
Bihar and Orissa	1,034
Bombay	987
Burma	924
C P and Berar	1,034
Madras	1 061
Punjab	1 021
United Provinces	1,013

Widows.—The proportion of widows in the population, viz., 6.4 per cent., does not differ widely from the figure for European countries, but the number of widows is strikingly

large. The large number of Indian widows is due partly to the early age of marriage, partly to the disparity in the ages of the husbands and wives but chiefly to the prejudice against the remarriage of widows. The higher castes of Hindus forbid it altogether and as the custom

is held to be a mark of social respectability many of the more ambitious of the lower castes have adopted it by way of raising their social status while Muhammadans who are closely brought into touch with their Hindu neighbours are apt to share the prejudice.

Proportion of widows in the population per 1,000

Age	India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911	Age	India, 1921	England and Wales, 1911
All ages	176.0	73.2	20—25	71.5	1.5
0—5	7		25—35	146.9	13.1
5—10	4.5		35—45	325.2	50.5
10—15	16.8		45—55	619.4	103.3
15—20	41.4		55 and over	834.0	565.0

Early Marriage—The figures clearly show an increase in the numbers of those in the early age-categories who are still unmarried. The movement is most marked in the Hindu community but is shared by the other religions,

the change being less noticeable among the Buddhist and Christian communities who are not addicted to early marriage. This change is most conspicuous in the age-categories 10 to 15 for women and 10 to 20 for men.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

Literacy—The number of persons in India literate in the sense of being able to write a letter and read the reply is 22.6 millions, amounting to children under five years of age are excluded, to 82 in every thousand of the population. Of males 139 in every thousand at age five and above are literate the corresponding proportion in the case of females being 21.

The Hindus have one literate person in every thirteen, for males the ratio is one in eight and for females one in six. The proportion of Sikh males who are literate is less than that of Hindus. One Mohammedan male in 11 and one female in 116 can read and write. The low position of Muhammadans is partly due to the fact that in Bengal the Punjab North-West Frontier Province and Sind where they predominate, they are mostly agricultural. Where they are in a minority as in the Central Provinces, United Provinces and Madras they are usually town dwellers and have a considerably higher proportion of literates. The Hindu community embraces every stratum of society and the proportion of literacy is seriously affected by the inclusion of the vast mass of the lower rural classes. Some of the higher Hindu castes have more literate males than the Parsis whilst others are on a level with or even below the aboriginal tribes.

English—In the whole of India 2.5 million persons or 190 males and 18 females in every ten thousand persons of each sex aged five and over can read and write English.

One in thirty males in Bengal and one in forty-three in Bombay are literate in English,

In Madras, Assam and Burma the proportion is 2 per cent while in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and the United Provinces it is below 1 per cent. Of the States Cochin and Travancore have between 3 and 4 per cent but in others the proportions are much lower. More than half the number of Parsi males and one-fourth of their females can read and write English. Of Christians nearly all the Europeans and many of the Anglo Indian are literate in English, but except on the southern coast English literacy is rare among the Indian Christians and the regional proportions therefore largely follow the racial distribution. Though the proportions in the other communities, taken on the total populations are small some of the higher castes have a fairly large number of English knowing members. In Bengal about half of the Baidya males and a quarter of the Brahman and Kayastha males are literate in English while in Madras more than a quarter of the Tamil Brahmans can claim this accomplishment. Of the Jains in Kathiawar nearly a tenth are literate in English though the Chaturth Jains of Kolhapur, who are cultivators, are less literate than the average of the Presidency. During the decade the number of males knowing English rose by 51 per cent and that of females by 67 per cent. Among the main Provinces the greatest progress has been made by Bengal, Assam and Bombay and in the States by Cochin, Travancore, Mysore and Baroda.

Languages—In the whole Indian Empire 222 languages were returned at the census, dialects, as has been previously explained, not having been separately considered. The

principal languages are given in the following statement —

Language	Number of speakers in (000's omitted)		Percentage in increase or decrease
	1921	1911	
Western Hindi	96,714	96,011	+ 1
Bengali	49,894	48,763	+ 2
Telugu	25,601	23,443	+ 2
Marathi	18,798	19,807	- 5
Tamiz	18,798	18,128	+ 4
Punjabi	16,334	15,877	+ 2
Rajasthani	12,681	14,068	- 10
Kannaree	10,974	10,426	- 1
Oriya	10,143	10,162	- 2
Gujarati	9,562	9,238	+ 3
Burmese	8,423	7,894	+ 7
Malayalam	7,498	6,792	+ 10
Lahnda or Western Punjabi	5,652	4,779	+ 18

The necessity of a common medium of conversation and intercourse which has given rise to bilingualism and the consequent displacement

of tribal languages, has formed the subject of a considerable amount of discussion and suggestion during the last decade and a good deal has been written on the possibility of a *lingua franca* for India. The combined speakers of Eastern and Western Hindi considerably exceed in number the strength of any other individual language in India, and if we add to these two languages Bihari and Rajasthani, which so resemble Hindi as to be frequently returned under that name in the census schedules we get well over 100 millions of speakers of tongues which have some considerable affinities and cover a very large area of northern and central India. In their pure forms these four languages may be scientifically distinct but this is not the popular view. There is a common element in the main languages of northern and central India which renders their speakers with out any great conscious change in their speech mutually intelligible to one another and this common basis already forms an approach to a *lingua franca* over a large part of India.

Infirmities.—These are classes under four main heads—insanity, deaf mutism, blindness and leprosy. The appended statement shows the number of persons suffering from each infirmity at each of the last five censuses and the proportion per hundred thousand of the population —

Infirmity	NUMBER AFFLICTED WITH EACH PER HUNDRED THOUSAND OF THE POPULATION				
	1921	1911	1901	1891	1881
Insane	88,305	81,006	66,205	71,279	81,132
	28	26	23	27	45
Deaf mutes	189,644	199,891	153,168	196,861	197,215
	60	64	52	75	86
Blind	479,837	443,603	374,104	459,963	526,748
	152	142	121	167	229
Lepers	102,513	109,094	97,310	124,244	131,948
	32	35	33	46	57
TOTAL	860,099	833,644	670,817	856,252	937,083
	272	267	229	315	407

There had been a continuous decline in the total number as well as in the proportion of persons recorded as afflicted up to 1901. This fall has been ascribed, partly, to a progressive improvement in the accuracy of the diagnosis and, partly, to an actual decrease in the prevalence of the infirmities, owing to the improvement in the material condition of the people to better sanitation and (especially in the case of blindness) to the increasing number of cures effected with the aid of modern medical and surgical science. In the decade ending 1901 the relatively high mortality of the afflicted in the two severe famines must have been a considerable factor in the decline shown at that census, but the method of compilation adopted in 1901 and in the previous census was defective, and, certainly in 1901, many of the persons

afflicted must have escaped notice in the course of tabulation. Compared with the year 1891 there was a slight decrease in the total number of persons recorded as afflicted in 1911, the proportion per hundred thousand persons falling from 315 to 267. The small increase in the present decade, amounting to 26,455 persons or one per 100,000 may be due to improvement in record and tabulation but is certainly unexpected.

Caste.—The enormous complexity of the caste system makes it impossible to give more than the briefest results here. The curious must be referred to the extensive literature on the subject and to the whole chain of census reports where it is discussed in various aspects. All we can do here is to give the census figures of the main castes with a comparison with 1911,

Variation in certain main castes

CASTE	PERSONS	
	1921	1911
Ahir	9,082,861	9,481,194
Arain	1,119,486	998,222
Babbar	1,167,378	1,264,579
Bagdi	806,897	1,015,738
Baliya	1,042,097	1,041,246
Baluch	1,324,053	1,834,756
Baniya	2,728,007	2,085,427
Banjara	651,627	866,020
Barhal	969,047	1,032,879
Bhil	1,795,808	1,590,690
Brahman	14,254,991	14,568,472
Burmese	8,370,152	7,643,742
Chamar	11,224,557	11,448,786
Chuhra	1,146,779	1,354,150
Dhobi	2,020,531	2,029,490
Dosadh	1,167,686	1,189,274
Fakir	790,714	865,511
Gadaria	1,299,770	1,340,631
Galla	1,416,758	1,515,794
Gond	2,902,502	2,995,598
Gujar	2,179,485	2,196,168
Hajjam	2,905,724	2,972,923
Jat	7,374,817	6,897,655
Jolaha	2,698,182	2,799,623
Kachhi	1,228,590	1,381,616
Kabar	1,707,223	1,726,646
Kalbartia	2,877,758	2,711,960
Kamma	1,160,864	1,126,095
Kammalan	1,338,711	1,047,585
Kapu	3,379,328	3,327,179
Karen	1,042,181	1,102,695
Kayastha	2,312,245	2,138,313
Kewat	1,150,427	1,129,799
Kokri	1,680,615	1,726,877
Koli	2,499,014	3,164,868
Kori	837,025	900,082
Kumhar	3,353,099	3,423,942
Kunbi	3,194,604	4,512,152
Kurmi	3,574,808	3,707,090
Langayat	2,793,214	3,968,440
Lodha	1,616,662	1,703,556
Lohar	1,546,313	1,517,587
Kamar	779,836	786,431
Madiga	1,687,857	1,820,462
Mahar	3,002,516	3,325,712
Mal	1,968,414	2,067,521
Mali	1,875,610	1,930,860
Mappilla	1,108,885	1,044,557
Maratha	6,566,334	4,972,054
Mochi	923,714	926,426
Yamasudra	2,172,828	2,082,547

Variation in certain main castes—*contd*

CASTE	PERSONS	
	1921	1911
Nayar	1 311 112	1 127 264
Pali	2 809 093	2 820 161
Parniyan	2,407 309	2 447 370
Parli	1 488 582	1 461 902
Pathan	3 047 868	3,029,534
Rajbanshi	1 818 674	1 914,864
Koch	360 602	357,100
Rajput	9,772 518	9 400 896
Salvi	1 601 247	1 544,629
Santal	2 265 282	2 127,878
Sheikh	33,387 909	31,851 028
Sindhi	858 054	1,697 486
Sonar	1 137 011	1 180 624
Tell or Tili	4,159 479	4 178 145
Vakkaliga	1 302 552	1,346 758
Vellala	2 716 159	2 692 282

There has been much discussion of recent years of the position and numbers of The Depressed Classes—a term which has never been accurately defined but which may be described as the classes outside the pale of

Hindu Society. Their numbers are given in the census as between 55 and 60 millions.

The main figures of Europeans and Anglo-Indians are given below—

Province, State or Agency	European and Allied Races in 1921			Total European and Allied Races in 1911	Anglo-Indians	
	British Subjects	Others	Total		1921	1911
India	163,915	10,129	174,057	197,639	113,012	100,420
Provinces	148,525	9 124	157,649	178,130	96,529	86,196
States and Agencies	15,194	1 015	16,408	19 509	16,483	14,224

OCCUPATIONS

India is essentially an agricultural country and agriculture proper supports 234 millions of persons or 71 per cent of the population of the Empire. If we add the pastoral and hunting occupations the percentage rises to 73, while a considerable proportion of the unfortunate large number of persons in the category of vague and unclassifiable occupations are probably labourers closely connected with the occupations of the land. Industries support 10 per cent of the population, but the bulk of these are engaged in unorganised industries connected with the supply of personal and household necessities and the simple implements of work

Organized industries occupy only 1 per cent of the people. In trade and transport on which less than 6 per cent and 2 per cent, respectively, depend a not inconsiderable number are connected with the disposal of the various kinds of agricultural products. The administration and protection of the country engage only 4 825 479 persons or 1½ per cent of the population, and the remainder are supported by domestic, miscellaneous and unproductive occupations. Though the extent to which agriculture predominates in individual provinces varies, there is no region in which it does not in some form easily take the first place.

In spite of the trade of Calcutta and the numerous industrial and mining concerns of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the population of the eastern provinces is overwhelmingly agricultural and contains a higher percentage of persons supported by the land than any other tract of India. Of industrial workers the largest proportions in the local population are in the Punjab the United Provinces and Bombay. Of these three provinces however agriculture dominates the economic life of the first two where the industrial occupations though they engage a substantial number of persons are mostly of the cottage industry type. In Bombay the development of organized industry is of some economic importance but is at present largely confined to a few of the biggest cities. In the category of unclassified occupations the majority of persons are labourers whose particular form of labour is unspecified and the rest mostly unspecified clerks.

Compared with 1911 the agriculturists have increased a little faster than the total population, though fishermen and hunters are fewer. Miners have risen in number with the recent expansion of the industry. Industries have substantially decreased and of the principal forms of industry the textile workers have dropped considerably, as also have potters and workers in wood and metal. An increase under transport by rail is countered by a drop under transport by road. Trade has increased, trade in textiles showing a slight rise and trade in food a slight drop. The number employed in public administration is practically stationary, but the army has risen while the police has fallen heavily. Law and medicine have gained at the expense of religion and though instruction has spread letters have fallen. Beggars are fewer and domestic servants as many. Beggars and vagrants, the raw material of crime and disease, have decreased but criminals the finished article, have risen in numbers.

Occupation or means of livelihood.

Occupation	Number of persons supported
INDIA	216,065,231
Pasture and agriculture	229,045,019
Fishing and hunting	1,607,281
Mine quarries salt etc	542,053
Industry	33,167,018
Textiles	7,247,229
Dress and toilet	7,425,373
Wood	3,613,583
Food industries	3,100,361
Ceramics	2,215,041
Building industries	1,753,720
Metals	1,803,208
Chemicals, etc	1,194,293
Hides skins etc	731,124
Other industries	3,438,876
Transport (including postal telegraph and telephone services)	4,531,054
Trade	19,114,022
Hotels cafes etc, and other trade in foodstuffs	3,983,983
Trade in textiles	1,286,277
Banks, exchange, insurance etc	993,492
Other trades	5,846,870
Army and Navy	757,064
Air force	1,033
Police	1,422,610
Public administration	2,643,882
Professions and liberal arts	5,020,571
Religion	2,457,614
Instruction	805,228
Medicine	652,583
Others	1,098,146
Domestic Service	4,570,151
All others	14,831,923

NOTE.—Occupation was not recorded for 2,337,249 persons.

Collieries.—Of a total of 288 thousand supported by collieries 205 thousand are actual workers. The most important coal mines lie in the provinces of Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. The Jherria coal-field in Manbhum the importance of which is due to its accessibility and the superior quality of its coal alone produces over fifty per cent of the total annual output of coal in India. According to the industrial census the total population employed in the coal mines of Manbhum was 82,619, of whom 747 were managers, 1,519 belonged to the supervising and technical staff and 1,432 to the clerical staff, while 32,843 were skilled and 46,423 unskilled workers.

Textiles—Cotton.—Of the industries the textile industries are by far the most important the number of persons occupied in industries connected with cotton being returned as 872,000 or just three quarters of the whole number of those supported by textile industries.

The bulk of the organized establishments are in the western tracts, where the large cities owe a considerable portion of their prosperity to the development of the textile industries and the cotton-growing country is covered with mechanically worked gins and presses for the preliminary treatment of the raw material. Of the 2,037 establishments connected with cotton manufacture, employing in all 434,000 persons, no less than 737 establishments, with 277,000 employees or 64 per cent of the personnel belong to the western Presidency and its States.

Jute.—The spinning, pressing and weaving of jute support a population of 493,000, as compared with 342,560 ten years ago. There are a few mills and presses in Assam, Bihar and Orissa and Madras but the industry is practically confined to Bengal.

Nature of Ownership.—Of the total number of 15,606 establishments 677 are owned by Government 3,292 by registered companies and 11,637 by private persons. The Government owned concerns are mostly railway and engineering workshops and other concerns such as brick and tile factories connected with the construction of roads and building and printing presses. The tea and rubber plantations are mostly the property of companies. Out of the 795 tea plantations in Assam 632 belong to companies. On the other hand the coffee plantations of Madras, which are much smaller concerns than the tea gardens, are mostly privately owned only 23 out of 127 belonging to companies in Madras and 10 out of 242 in Mysore. The collieries are mostly company-owned, but of the 42 manganese mines of the Central Provinces half are owned by companies and half by private persons. Of the 392 cotton ginning mills in Bombay 353 are private owned, but of the cotton weaving mills 129 out of 345 are owned by companies. Similarly the jute presses are mostly private, while 60 out of the 62 jute mills of Bengal are company owned. Practically all the printing presses are private concerns, and so are a large number of the general workshops and such concerns like flour and rice mills and brick and tile works, which are mostly on a small scale. European companies own the majority of the tea gardens of

Assam and Bengal but as has already been seen Indian enterprise is growing in regard to the private ventures.

Women as Workers.—The adult women (unskilled) number 508 per 1,000 adult men and the proportion of the children of both sexes under 14 years old is 140 per 1,000 adults. By far the majority of women labourers, viz., 323 out of 540 thousand, are on the plantations where their proportion per 100 men is as high as 84, the children being 190 per 1,000 adults. Women and children are also numerous in the textile and mining industries and in the former there are 408 adult women (unskilled) per 1,000 men and in the latter 521. Nearly 30 per cent of the women employed in textile industries are recorded as skilled. About 61 per cent of the total number of children employed in organized industries are boys and the girls almost equal the boys on the plantations and in the mines and form about one-fifth of the child labour in the textile industries. In the larger industries (20 persons and above) both female and child labour has dropped since 1911 the proportion of women (unskilled) being 515 now against 561 in 1911 per 1,000 men and the proportion of children per 1,000 adults 143 against 191 in 1911. The figures vary curiously in different industries and suggest that they are not altogether trustworthy. Women have increased in the plantations and textiles and declined in the mines. Children have decreased in the plantations and textiles and increased in the mines. Both women and children find considerable employment in the establishments connected with glass, pottery, cement and building and to a less extent in those of food and dress.

Occupation of Europeans.—Of the 103,405 male Europeans 63,538 are in some capacity to the category of Public Force, i.e., the Army, Navy, Air Force and Police over 9,000 to Transport, i.e. largely railway officials and about 6,000 to Public Administration, 4,800 to Mines and Industries, 5,900 to professions, 4,800 to trade while there are about 4,300 imperfect entries a number which together with the known deficiency in the census of Europeans generally somewhat detracts from the value of the details. The abnormal constitution of the foreign European population is exhibited by the small number of dependants viz. 82,000 as against 121,000 workers whereas the number of Anglo-Indian dependants is just about double the number of their workers. Nearly one-third of the Anglo-Indian males are employed on Transport, i.e. chiefly Railway, and the remainder mostly find employment as clerks and upper subordinates.

The Next Census.—The next Census is due to be taken in 1931 and the Government of India last September negotiated through their Legislature a Bill giving the necessary authority for this purpose. The measure is similar to preceding decennial Bills of the same kind and its principal object is to confer upon the large number of non-official agents who are necessarily employed in making the Census the position and protection of public servants and also to secure that the necessary information shall be provided by those who are responsible for giving it. Dr J. H. Burton, D.Sc., C.I.E., I.O.B., was last autumn appointed Census Commissioner and has since then been engaged upon his duties.

Manners and Customs.

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn by their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form a Hindu's dress consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Mahomedan always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Hill men and women, who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear to-day within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the homes of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in his pictures and images.

Dress.—The next stage in the evolution of the Hindu dress brings the loincloth nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, as in Burma, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of India, they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior or one and is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt. When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves; the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puffed from the wrist to the elbow. Before Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Mahomedan prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon. If allowed the greatest variety is shown in the head dress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans may be seen in the city of Bombay in the Punjab and the United Provinces, in Bengal, in Burma and in Madras other varieties prevail. Cones and cylinders, domes and truncated pyramids, high and low, with sides at different angles folded brims projecting brims long strips of cloth wound round the head or the cap in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the 'parrot's beak' of the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Mahomedan or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations.—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fisherman may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a wad in his pocket, yet, as he must work for long hours in water, he would not cover his legs, but suspend only a coloured kerchief from his waist in front. The Pathan of the cold north-west affects loose baggy

trousers, a tall head-dress befitting his stature and covers his ears with its folds as if to keep off cold. The poorer people in Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable. Many well-to-do Indians wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes; notably the Indian Christians and Parsis. Most Parsis however have retained their own head-dress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs. The majority of the people do not use shoes; those who can afford them wear sandals, slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots after the European fashion in public.

Women's Costumes.—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of India women wear a bodice on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats or drawers, or both are worn. Many Musselman ladies wear gowns and scarves over them. The vast majority of Mahomedan women are *goshes* and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public. A few converts from Hinduism have not borrowed the custom. In Northern India Hindu women have generally adopted the Musselman practice of seclusion. In the Dekhan and in Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed, parted in the middle of the head plaited and rolled into a chignon, by most women. Among high caste Hindu widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not as a rule, completely shave their heads, Mahomedans in most cases do. The former generally remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temples, and near the neck, and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many keep the hair cropped in the European fashion, which is also followed by Parsis and Indian Christians. Most Musselmans grow beards, most Hindus do not, except in Bengal and elsewhere where the Mahomedan influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow their individual inclinations. Hindu ascetics, known as Sadhus or Bairagis as distinguished from Banyas, do not clip their hair and generally coil the uncombed hair of the head into a crest, in imitation of the god Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than others of the corresponding grade in society. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers, the waist—until motherhood is attained, and by some even later—and the toes. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads, and flowers, like the lotus, the rose, and the champaka, are among the most popular objects of representation in gold or silver.

Caste Marks.—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. It may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot, and as Lakshmi is the goddess of prosperity, it is said to represent her. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of U or V, generally with the central line, sometimes without it, and represents Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the eyes, with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay. To smear the arms and the chest with sandalwood paste is a favourite kind of toilet, especially in the hot season. Beads of Tulsi or sacred Basil and berries of *Rudraksha* *elaeagnus garitrus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shivas, respectively. The Lingayats, a Shiva sect, suspend from their necks a metallic casket containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Bairagis, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha rosaries round their necks and matted hair smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, as also to deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chignon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms, and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. The choice of the same colour for different purposes cannot always be explained in the same way. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may be a substitute for the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. In many other cases this colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikh Akali is fond of blue, the Banyas adopt orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned with any degree of certainty.

Shiva.—India is a land of temples, mosques and shrines, and the Hindu finds at every turn some supernatural power to be appeased. Shiva has the largest number of worshippers. He has three eyes, one in his forehead, a moon crescent in his matted hair and at the top of the coil a woman's face representing the river Ganges. His abode is the Mount Kailas in the Himalayas, from which the river takes its source. Round his neck and about his ears and limbs are serpents, and he also wears a necklace of skulls. In his hands are several weapons, especially a trident, a bow, and a thunderbolt, and also a drum which he sounds while dancing for he is very fond of this exercise. He sits on a tiger's skin, and his vehicle is a white bull. His wife Parvati and his son Ganesha sit on his thighs. An ascetic mean-

ing is attached to every part of his physical personality. The three eyes denote an insight into the past, present and future, the moon, the serpents, and the skulls denote months, years and cycles, for Shiva is a personification of time, the great destroyer. He is also worshipped as a Linga or phallus which represents creative energy.

Ganpati.—Ganesh or Ganpati, the controller of all powers of evil subject to Shiva, is worshipped by all sects throughout India. Every undertaking is begun with a prayer to him. He has the head of an elephant, a large abdomen, serpents about his waist and wrists, several weapons in his hands, and a piece of his tusk in one hand. He is said to have broken it off when he wanted to attack the moon for ridiculing him. The different parts of his body are also esoterically explained. His vehicle is a rat.

Parvati.—Parvati, the female energy of Shiva, is worshipped under various names and forms. She is at the head of all female supernatural powers, many of whom are her own manifestations. Some are benign and beautiful others terrible and ugly. Kail, the tutelary deity of Kalighat or Calcutta, is one of her fierce manifestations. In this form she is black, a tongue smeared with blood projects from her gaping mouth, besides her weapons, she carries corpses in her hands, and round her neck are skulls. Bombay also takes its name from a goddess, Mumbadevi Gauri, to whom offerings are made in Indian homes at an annual festival in benign. On the other hand the epidemic diseases like the plague and small pox are caused by certain goddesses or "mothers."

Vishnu. The second member of the Hindu trinity is the most popular deity next to Shiva. He is worshipped through his several incarnations as well as his original personality. His home is the ocean of milk, where he reclines on the coils of a huge, many-headed serpent. At his feet sits Lakshmi, shampooing his legs. From his navel issues a lotus on which is seated Brahma, the third member of the trinity. In his hands are the conch, which he blows on the battlefield, and the disc, with which the heads of his enemies are severed. Round his neck are garlands of leaves and flowers and on his breast are shining jewels. As Shiva represents destruction, Vishnu represents protection, and his son is the god of love. To carry on the work of protection, he incarnates himself from time to time, and more temples are dedicated nowadays to his most popular incarnations, Rama and Krishna, than to his original personality. Rama is a human figure, with a bow in one of his hands. He is always accompanied by his wife Sita, often by his brother Lakshmana, and at his feet, or standing before him with joined hands, is Hanuman, the monkey chieftain, who assisted him in his expedition against Ravana, the abductor of his wife. Krishna is also a human figure, generally represented as playing on a flute, with which he charmed the damsels of his city, esoterically explained to mean his devotees.

Brahma is seldom worshipped, only a couple of temples dedicated to him have yet been discovered in all India.

Minor Deities.—The minor gods and goddesses and the deified heroes and heroines who fill the Hindu pantheon, and to whom shrines are erected and worship is offered, constitute a legion. Many of them enjoy a local reputation, are unknown to sacred literature, and are worshipped chiefly by the lower classes. Some of them, though not mentioned in ancient literature, are celebrated in the works of modern saints.

The Jains in their temples, adore the sacred personages who founded and developed their sect, and venerate some of the deities common to Hinduism. But their view of Divinity is different from the Hindu conception, and in the opinion of Hindu theologians they are atheists. So also the Buddhists of Burma pay almost the same veneration to Prince Siddhartha as if he was a god and indeed elevate him above the Hindu gods, but from the Hindu standpoint they are also atheists.

Images.—Besides invisible powers and deified persons, the Hindus venerate certain animals, trees and inanimate objects. This veneration must have originated in gratitude, fear, wonder and belief in spirits as the cause of all good or harm. Some of the animals are vehicles of certain gods and goddesses—the eagle of Vishnu the swan of Brahma the peacock of Saraswati Hanuman the monkey of Rama one serpent upholds the earth, another makes Vishnu's bed, elephants support the ends of the universe, besides one such animal being Indra's vehicle the goddess Durga or Kali rides on a tiger one of Vishnu's incarnations was partly man and partly lion. The cow is a useful animal to the Brahman vegetarian her milk is indispensable, and he treats her as his mother. So did the Rishi of old, who often subsisted on milk and fruits and roots. To the agriculturist cattle are indispensable. The snake excites fear. Stones, on which the image of a serpent is carved, may be

seen under many trees by the roadside. The principal trees and plants worshipped are the Sacred Fig or Pipal, the Banyan, the Sacred Basil, the Bilva or Wood Apple, the Asoka, and the Acacia. They are in one way or another associated with some deity. The sun, the moon, and certain planets are among the heavenly bodies venerated. The ocean and certain great rivers are held sacred. Certain mountains, perhaps because they are the abodes of gods and Rishis, are holy. Pebbles from the Gandak and the Narmada, which have curious lines upon them, are worshipped in many households and temples.

Worship.—Without going into a temple, one can get a fair idea of image worship by seeing how a serpent-stone is treated under a tree. It is washed, smeared with sandal, decorated with flowers food in a vessel is placed before it, lamps are waved, and the worshipper goes round it, and bows down his head, or prostrates himself before the image. In a temple larger bells are used than the small ones that are brought to such a place. Jewels are placed on the idol and the offerings are on a larger scale. Idols are carried in public procession in palanquins or cars. The lower classes sacrifice animals before their gods and goddesses.

Domestic Life.—Of the daily domestic life of the people a tourist cannot see much. He may see a marriage or funeral procession. In the former he may notice how a bridegroom or bride is decorated the latter may shock him for a Hindu dead body is generally carried on a few pieces of bamboo and together a thin cloth is thrown over it and the body is tied to the frame. The Mahomedan bier is more decent, and resembles the Christian coffin. Some Hindus, however, carry the dead to the burial ground in a palanquin with great pomp. The higher castes cremate the dead others bury them. Burial is also the custom of the Muslims, and the Parsis expose the dead in Towers of Silence.

Indian Names.

The personal name of most Hindus denotes a material object, colour, or quality, an animal, a relationship, or a deity. The uneducated man, who cannot correctly pronounce long Sanskrit words, is content to call his child, father, brother, uncle, or mother, or sister, as the case may be. This practice survives among the higher classes as well. Appa Babeh, Anus Rao, Bahad, Bapu Lal, Bhai Shankar, Tatacharya, Jijibhai, are names of this description, with homoclitic titles added. It is possible that in early society the belief in the re-birth of departed kinsmen lent popularity to this practice. Nothing could be more natural than to call a man white, black, or red, gold or silver, gem, diamond, ruby, pearl, or merely a stone, small or tall, weak or strong, a lion, a snake, a parrot, or a dog, and to name a woman after a flower or a creeper. Thus, to take a few names from the epic, Pandu means

white, and so does Arjuna. Krishna black. Bhima terrible. Nakula a mongoose. Shunaka a dog. Shuka a parrot. Shringa a horn. Among the names prevalent at the present day Hira is a diamond. Rakna or Rakna a jewel. Souru or Chinna gold. Vell or Bell, in the Dravidian languages, means white metal or silver. Men are often called after the days of the week on which they were born, and hence they bear the names of the seven heavenly bodies concerned. When they begin to assume the names of the Hindu deities, they practically enter upon a new stage of civilisation. It is doubtful whether the Animists ever venture to assume the names of the dreaded spirits worshipped by them. To pronounce the name of a devil is to invite him to do harm. If the spirits sometimes bear the names of human beings, the reason seems to be that they were originally human.

High-caste practices.—The high caste Hindu, on the other hand, believes that the more often the name of a deity is on his lips, the more merit he earns. Therefore he deliberately names his children after his gods and goddesses, so that he may have the opportunity of pronouncing the holy names as frequently as possible. These are also sonorous and picturesque. Shiva is happy Vishnu is a paviour Govinda is the cowherd Krishna Kumbhara has fine hair Rama is a delighter Lakshmana is lucky Narayana produced the first living being on the primeval waters Ganesha is the Lord of Shiva's hosts Dinakara is the luminary that makes the day Subrahmanya is a brother of Ganesha Sita is a furrow Savitri a ray of light Paras a star Radha prosperity Rukmini is one of golden ornaments Bhama of the glowing heart Shiva and Vishnu has each got at least a thousand names, and they may be freely drawn upon and paraphrased in naming one's children and the whole Hindu pantheon is as crowded as it is large. When a mother loses several children, she begins to suspect that some evil spirit has conspired against her and in order to make her offspring unattractive to the powers of darkness she gives them ugly names, such as Kuru, rubbish, or Ukirda, dunghill or Maroba, the mortal. Women are named after rivers, as Sarasvati, Ganga, Bhagirathi, Godavari, or Kaveri, just as men are sometimes called after mountains. Many counsels young men not to choose a wife with such a name, perhaps because a river is an emblem of deviceness and inconstancy as a hill is an emblem of stability. But the names of rivers have not been discarded. The Burmans have a curious custom if a child is born on a Monday its name must begin with a guttural, on Tuesday with a palatal, on Thursday with a labial, on Saturday with a dental.

Family names.—When a person rises in importance, he adds to his personal name a family or caste name. It was once the rule that the title Sharma might be added to a Brahman's name, Varma to a Kshatriya, Gupta to a Vaisya, and Dasa to a Shudra. This rule is fairly well observed in the case of the first two titles, but the meaning of the other two has changed. Dasa means a slave or servant, and the proudest Brahman cannot disdain to call himself the servant of some god. Thus, although Kalidas, the famous poet, was a Shudra Ramadas, the famous guru of Shivaji, was a Brahmin. The Vaisya, as have made this fashion of calling one self a servant of some god exceedingly popular, and in Western India high caste Hindus of this sect very commonly add Dasa to their names. The Brahmans of Southern India add Aiyer or Aiyangar to their names. Shastri, Acharya, Bhat, Bhatnagar, Upadhyaya, Mukhopadhyaya, changed in Bengal into Mukerji, are among the titles indicative of the Brahmanical profession of studying and teaching the sacred books. Among warrior classes, like the Rajputs and Sikhs, the title Singh (lion) has become more popular than the ancient Varma. The Shadi Mal, as in Gidural, means brave and has the same force. Raja changed into Raya, Rao and Rai was a political title, and is not confined to any caste. The Bengali family names, like Bose and Ghose,

Datta and Mitra, Sen and Guha, enable one to identify the caste of their bearers, because the caste of a family or clan cannot be changed. Shet, chief of a guild or a town, becomes Chetty, a Vaisya title, in Southern India. Mirdaliyar and Nayudu, meaning leaders, are titles which were assumed by castes of political importance under native rulers. Kayar and Menon are the titles of important castes in Malabar. Ram, Lal, Nand, Chand, are among the additions made to personal names in Northern India. Suffixes like Ji, as in Ramji or Jambhaji, the Kanarese Appa, the Telugu Gari, the feminine Bai or Devi are honorific. Prefixes like Baba, Baba, Lala, Sodhi, Pandit, Raja, and the Burmese Maung are also honorific.

Professional names.—Family names sometimes denote a profession in some cases they might have been conferred by the old rulers. Mehta, Kulkarni, Deshpande, Chitnavis, Mahanavis are the names of offices held in former times. One family name may mean a flour seller, another a cane-seller, and a third a liquor-seller. To insert the father's name between one's personal and the family name is a common practice in Western India. It is rare elsewhere. When a family comes from a certain place, the suffix kar or wallah is added to the name of the place and it makes a family surname in Western India. Thus we may have Chiplunkar and Suratwallah, or without these affixes we may have Bhavnagar, Malabar and Bihmorias, as among Parsis. Thus Vasudev Pandurang Chiplunkar would be a Hindu, whose personal name is Vasudev's father's name Pandurang, and family name derived from the village of Chiplun, is Chiplunkar. In Southern India the village name precedes the personal name. The evolution of Musalman names follows the same lines as Hindu names. But Muslims have no god or goddesses, and their names are derived from their religious and secular history. These names and titles are often as long and picturesque as Hindu appellations. The surnames Baksh, Din, Ghulam, Khwaja, Fakir, Kazi, Munsif, Sheikh, Syed, Begum, Bibi and others, as well as honorific additions like Khan have meanings which throw light on Muslim customs and institutions. The Parsis also have no gods and goddesses, and their personal names are generally borrowed from their sacred and secular history. Their surnames frequently indicate a profession or a place, as in the case of Hindus in Western India. Bati wallah, Ready-money, Contractor, Bakhtwallah, Adenwallah and others like them are tell-tale names.

Conversions.—As a rule, a child is named soon after it is born, and in the case of males the appellation is not changed. The higher Hindu castes have a separate ceremony called the name-giving ceremony performed on the twelfth day after birth. When a girl is married in these castes, the husband's family give her a new personal name. When a boy is invested with the sacred thread and is made a twice-born, his name is not changed, but when a man joins an order of ascetics, his lay name is dropped, and he assumes a new name. So also when a Burman joins an order of monks or nuns, the lay name is superseded by a Pali name. Christian converts change their original name when they are baptised.

Indian Art.

In India there has never been so marked a separation between what are now known as the *Fine Arts*, and those applied to *Industry* as was the case in Europe during the nineteenth century. As, however, industrial art forms the subject of a special article in this book, the term Indian Art will here be confined to *Architecture, Sculpture and Painting*.

Historical—The degree of proficiency attained in art by Indians prior to B.C. 250, can only be conjectured by their advancement in literature and by the indirect evidences of indebtedness shown by the works of the historic period, to those which preceded them or direct records of artistic work of an earlier date than B.C. 250 do not exist. The chief historic schools of architecture are as follows—

Name	Dates	Locality of the best Examples
Buddhist	B.C. 250— A.D. 750	Ellora, Ajanta, Kailash, Sanchi
Jaina	A.D. 1000— 1300	Ellora, Mount Abu, Pulitana
Brahminical	A.D. 500 to the present day	Ellora, Elephanta, Orissa, Bhuvaneshwar, Dharwar
Chalukyan	A.D. 1000— 1200	Umer, Somnathpur, Ballur
Dravidian	A.D. 1350— 1750	Ellora, Tanjore, Madura, Tinnevely
Pathan	A.D. 1200— 1550	Delhi, Mandi, Jaunpore
Indo-Saracenic	A.D. 1520— 1760	Lahore, Delhi, Agra, Amber, Bijapur

Buddhist Architecture is mainly exemplified by the rock-cut temples and monasteries found in Western India and in the *Tepes* or sacred mounds. The interior decorations, and external facades of the former, and the rails and gates surrounding the latter point unmistakably to their being derived from wooden structures of an earlier period. The characteristic features of these temples are horse-shoe openings in the facades to admit light, and colonnades of pillars with richly ornamented caps in the interior halls. Jaina Architecture is found in its most highly developed form in the Dilwara temples at Mount Abu. The ground plan consists of a shrine for the god or saint, a porch, and an arched courtyard with niches for images. The characteristic of the style is grace and lightness, with decorative carving covering the whole interior executed with great elaboration and detail. Constructional methods suggest that original types in wood have been copied in marble.

Brahminical, Chalukyan and Dravidian styles differ little in essential plan, all having a shrine for the god, preceded by pillared porches. The outer forms vary. The northern Brahminical temples have a curved pyramidal roof to the shrines, which in the southern or Dravidian style are crowned by a horizontal system of storied towers, and each story, decreasing in size, is ornamental with a central oval and figures in high relief. The Chalukyan style is affected by its northern and southern neighbours, taking features from each without

losing its own special characteristics of which the star-shaped plan of the shrine, with five *fold* hands of external ornament, is a principal feature. Turkish Architecture was introduced into India by the Mahomedan invasion of the thirteenth century. At old Delhi are fine examples in the Kutub Mosque and Minar. The characteristics of the style are severity of outline which is sometimes combined with elaborate decoration due, it is stated, to the employment of Hindu craftsmen. The mosque and tombs at Ahmedabad already show Hindu influence but purer examples are to be found at Jaunpore and Mandu. Indo-Saracenic Architecture reached the climax of its development during the reigns of the Moghul Emperors Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. It eclipsed in richness of material and refinement of taste the building efforts of previous periods, its crowning example being the Taj Mahal at Agra. The buildings erected during the Adil Shahi dynasty at Bijapur at a slightly later date exhibit a certain Turkish influence, especially in the great tomb of Mahmud. Though less refined and lacking the attraction of precious materials in their decoration, these splendid edifices are held in higher esteem by some critics than those of the Moghals, on account of their simplicity, grandeur and fine proportions. The era of great civil architecture in India was revived by the Mahomedan powers. Splendid palaces and fortresses were built at Madras, Delhi, Agra, Fatehpore Sikri and Bijapur, and the example thus set was copied by the Hindu princes at Jaipur, Udaipur and elsewhere in India. The application of great architectural treatments unequalled in extent elsewhere, is to be seen in the Ghats or steps enclosing lakes and on the banks of rivers. The most notable constructional contribution of the Mahomedans to Indian architecture was the introduction of the true arch and dome.

Sculpture—The use of sculpture and painting in isolated works of art was practically non-existent in India until modern times. One or two reliefs and certain gigantic figures may be quoted as exceptions, but taken generally it may be stated that these arts were employed as the decorative adjuncts of architecture. No civil statuary such as is now understood by the term was executed for no contemporary portrait figures, or busts in marble, or bronze, have come down to us from the ruins of ancient India, as they have from those of Egypt, Greece and Rome. Sculpture has been used exclusively as the handmaid of religion, and to this fact may be attributed the stereotyped forms to which it became bound. The lavish use of sculpture on Indian temples often exceeds good taste, and mars the symmetry and dignity of their mass and outline, but for exuberance of imagination, industrious elaboration and vivid expression of movement Indian sculpture is perhaps without its equal elsewhere in the world. The most impressive specimens are the earliest, found in the Buddhist and Brahminical cave temples of Ellora, Ajanta and Elephanta. The great Trimurti in the last named of these temples ranks for mystery

and expressive grandeur with the greatest masterpieces of Egyptian art. The outstanding characteristics of Hindu sculpture are the power displayed in suggesting movement, the fine sense of decorative arrangements of line and mass and an overpowering ingenuity in intricate design. Mahomedan sculpture in India, though not exclusively confined to geometric forms as is that of the more severe Arabian school, is very restrained as compared with that of the Hindus. Floral motifs are often used in the ornaments to tombs and palaces but rarely in those of mosques. Their geometric ornament shows great ingenuity and invention, and wonderful decorative use is made of Persian, Arabic and Urdu lettering in panels and their borders. The representation of human or animal figures is rarely to be met with. Sculptured and modelled relief is, as a rule, kept very low, and is mainly confined to the decoration of mouldings, archedways, kiosks, or the bands of ornament which relieve large exterior wall spaces. Buildings of purely Mahomedan design and workmanship show greater restraint than those upon which Hindu workmen have been employed and are more satisfactory, but at Ahmedabad the two celebrated windows are striking examples of a happy combination of the two styles.

Painting.—Much of the carved stonework upon ancient Indian buildings was first plastered and then decorated with colour but the only paintings, in the modern acceptance of the term, now existing, which were executed prior to the Moghul period, are those upon the walls of the cave temples at Ajanta. These remarkable works were produced at intervals during the first 600 years of the Christian era. They exhibit all the finer characteristics of the best Indian sculpture, but with an added freedom of expression due to the more tractable vehicle employed. They remained hidden in the Deccan jungles for nearly twelve hundred years, until accidentally discovered in 1816. They are painted in a species of fresco and when first brought to light were well preserved, but they have greatly deteriorated owing to the well meant, but misguided action of copyists, and the neglect of the authorities. Their origin is as wrapped in mystery as is that of the artists who painted them, for no other paintings of similar power and character are known to exist, and the artists, so far as is known, left no successors. Nine hundred years elapsed between the completion of the Ajanta paintings and the commencement of the second period of Indian painting. This owed its origin to the introduction of Persian artists by the Moghul Emperor Akbar and the establishment of the indigenous Moghul school was due to the encouragement and fostering care of his successors, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. Unlike the works of the Ajanta painters, which were designed upon a large scale, the pictures of the Moghul school were miniatures. They were executed in a species of opaque water colour upon paper or vellum, resembling in technique the illuminated manuscripts produced by the monks in Europe during the middle ages. Some of the finest of the earlier specimens in India are of a religious character, this phase of development being closely allied to the art

the calligraphist. As its range extended, a remarkable school of portrait painters arose notable for restrained but extremely accurate drawing, keen insight into character, harmonious colour, fine decorative feeling, and extraordinary delicacy and finish in the painting of detail. The artists of a Hindu offshoot of this movement, known as the Rajput school, were less fully endowed with the technical and purely aesthetic qualities than were the Moghul painters, but they brought to their work poetry and sentiment which are not to be found in that of the Mahomedans. The pictures of both branches of the Moghul school, although highly decorative in character, were not intended for exhibition upon the walls of rooms, according to Western practice, and, when not used as illustrations or decorations to manuscript books, were preserved in portfolios. As this school of painting was the last expression of traditional art in India, in the restricted sense here applied to the term, and, as the question has a distinct bearing upon the modern development of painting, a few words may be added regarding the difference between the conventions followed by Eastern and Western painters. Until the middle of the fourteenth century the conventions of both East and West were practically the same, though the use of them differed according to environment and national temperament. These conventions the artists of the East have retained and development has been upon the line of decorative fitness, harmony of colour, and expressive action. Their art has throughout been decorative and when natural objects have been depicted their treatment has been that of a flat pattern. The European painters after the period above mentioned on the contrary, sought to attain the appearance of actuality in the objects depicted by the study of the science of light and shade, and perspective and in achieving this end, and developing it into the realisation of atmosphere and light, they sacrificed a large measure of the decorative quality which characterised the work of the earlier school. Eastern artists have ignored or been blind to light and shade, and in works entirely free from European influence one will look in vain for any suggestion of it in their figures or for shadows of objects cast upon the ground. During the last fifty years there has been a strong movement toward a return to decorative conventions, on the part of European artists who have assimilated much that the East has to teach them, without thereby affecting the distinctively Western character of their work. Indian and Japanese artists have been less successful when attempting the reverse of this practice, and appear to lose whatever is best in their traditional practice without acquiring the finer qualities of that of the West.

Modern Painting.—As the reign of Shah Jahan exhibits the high tide of artistic development in India, so the reign of his successor Aurangzeb marks the period of its rapid decline. The causes of this are attributable to the absence of encouragement by this Emperor, to his long periods of absence from the court at Delhi or Agra, entailed by the continuous wars he waged in his efforts to bring the whole of the Peninsula under his rule, and partly to the tendency strongly inherent in the Indian artist

to become stereotyped in his practices. All foreign designers, painters and craftsmen who had been attracted to India by the great works carried out by Akbar, Jahangir and Shah Jahan left the country, and their places were taken by no successors. The indigenous artists left to themselves in the isolated courts of small Indian princes, or collected in schools in remote districts, employed themselves mainly upon repeating the works of a previous age, instead of seeking new motifs for artistic treatment. So purely mechanical did the work become that in some of the schools or guilds of painters, the execution of a single picture was subdivided: one craftsman painting the face, a second the drapery, and a third the background. Such methods could only lead to deterioration and decay. At the time when the British East India Company ceased to be only a guild of merchants and became a great administrative power in 1757, very little vitality survived in the ancient art of the country. During the century of its administrative history between the battle of Plassey and the Indian Mutiny the "Company" was too fully occupied in fighting for its existence, extending its borders and settling the internal economy of its ever increasing territories, to be able to give much attention to conserving any remnant of artistic practice which had survived. Without any deliberate intention of introducing western art into the country, Greek and its derivative styles of architecture were adopted for public and private buildings in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras because these were found to be more suitable for their purpose than buildings of indigenous pattern. The practical result was the same for the Indian craftsmen employed upon their erection were confronted with styles affording no scope for the application of their traditional ornament and concerning which they had no knowledge or sympathy. As there were no sculptors in India capable of modelling or carving civil sculpture, the monuments to distinguished public servants were all imported from England, and the portraits, or other paintings which decorated the interior walls of the buildings, were furnished by European painters who visited India or by artists in England. Although a considerable amount of research work of a voluntary nature was done by Archaeologists, no official interest was taken in artistic education until the Government of India was transferred to the British Crown in 1859. In England itself, the first fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of gross commercialism and artistic degradation, but with the advent of the International Exhibition of 1851 the eyes of the nation were opened to the value of art as applied to industry.

The Schools of Art then instituted throughout England were imitated in a timid and tentative manner in India, and were attached to the educational system, which had been previously modelled upon a definitely European basis. These schools of art, it should be remembered, were specially established to assist the artistic industries of the country, and not to provide instruction in architecture, sculpture and painting. In fact at a subsequent period they narrowly escaped extinction by the Secretary of State, upon the ground that they had become schools of painting and had thus

been diverted from performing the original function for which they were established. The work of the Schools of Art in regard to industrial art is referred to elsewhere, and as two of them, that at Madras and that at Lahore, have confined their activities almost exclusively to this branch of the subject it is necessary to mention only the work of the Schools at Calcutta and Bombay in the present article. The Calcutta school except for occasional experiments in the application of the graphic arts to lithography, engraving and stained glass, has become a school of painting and drawing. That at Bombay covers a wider field for in addition to classes for modelling, painting and design it possesses a special school of architecture, a range of technical workshops, in which instruction is given in the applied arts and research laboratories and studios devoted solely to the improvement of the Pottery industry. It is in the principles underlying the instruction in painting that the schools at Calcutta and Bombay have taken almost diametrically opposite roads to reach the end they both have in view, namely, the revival of the art of painting in India by means of an indigenous school of Indian painters. Mr. Havell, who several years ago was the Principal of the Calcutta School, banished from within its walls every vestige of European art and claimed that the traditional art of India, in its old forms, is not dead, but merely sleeping or smothered by the blanket of European culture laid upon it for the last 150 years and needed but to be released from this incubus to regain its pristine vigour. Well equipped with literary ability backed by intense enthusiasm for the views he held, which he advocated with admirable persistence he imposed upon his students an exclusive and severe study of the Moghul and Rajput schools of painting. He was fortunate in finding a willing and equally enthusiastic disciple in Mr. Abhinandranath Tagore, an artist of the imagination and fancy, endowed with technical ability of a high order, combined with a serious devotion to his art. He with other Bengal painters, inspired by Mr. Havell's precepts, founded, about twenty years ago, what has since become known as the Calcutta School of painting. In their early work the painters of this school closely adhered to the conventions of Moghul and Rajput artists, whom they took as their models, and these early examples made a great impression upon all European critics who saw them. They were welcomed as the first sign of a genuine revival of Indian painting, based upon traditional lines, and it was confidently hoped that the movement would meet with the support it merited from Indians of all classes. Interesting as many individual works of the school undoubtedly are the anticipations which greeted its inception have scarcely been fulfilled by the Calcutta school. The painters themselves have never reached the high technical standard of the artists who produced the best works of the Moghul or Rajput schools, and, as time has passed, their outlook appears to have shifted, and, while stemming the flood of western influence, they appear to have drifted into a backwater of Japanese conventions. The Indian public has failed to give the school the support it was hoped they would afford and the movement has had to depend for encourage-

ment mainly upon Europeans in England and India

Bombay School of Art—The attitude towards the development of art in modern India taken by Mr Cecil Burns, who long guided the policy of the Bombay school, was diametrically opposite to that favoured by Mr Havell. While yielding to no one in his admiration for the ancient art of India, and giving every encouragement to his students to study its masterpieces, the view he takes is that with European literature dominating the system under which the educated classes in India are trained with European ideas, and science permeating the professional, commercial, industrial, and political life of the country, it is not possible for modern Indians now to recapture the spirit which alone gave vitality to the great works of the past, that without this spirit, the conventions the ancient artists adopted are mere dead husks; and that to copy these would be as unprofitable as it would be for the artists of Europe to harness themselves to the conventions of the Greek and Roman sculptors or to those of the medieval painters that with European pictures, often of inferior quality illustrating every educational text book, and sold in the shops of every large city, it is essential for the proper education of art students that they should have before them the masterpieces of European art and that, with the wide adoption of European styles of architecture in India, it is necessary for a school of art to possess the best examples of ornament applicable to the great historic styles, for the purpose of study and reference. There are certain basic principles common to the technique of all great art, such as fine and accurate drawing in its widest sense, composition and design, and the science of colour harmony. By means of these an artist can express his individuality and emotions, and Mr Burns held that the main function of a School of Art is to equip its students with the power of expression, untrammelled by any set conventions, so that when they leave the school, they do so with the capacity to employ their faculties in any direction their sympathies and tastes may impel them to take.

Among the developments during Mr Burns' administration were the founding of the Architectural School, the extension of drawing classes in the Government Schools, and the appointment of an Inspector of Drawing to inspect and report on the drawing classes in the Schools. A Pottery Department was also started and was collapsed in 1926. Mr Burns retired in 1918 and was succeeded in 1919 by the present Principal, Mr W E Gladstone Solomon, A.R.C.S. He later has studiously avoided any utopian theories as to the ultimate and which Indian art is destined to attain though he has insistently pointed out the Indian's pre-eminence in the decoration of wall spaces.

The guiding principle with Mr Solomon has been to teach the students to draw and to let what they see and further to encourage by all possible means their natural progress the decorative direction towards which their present instinct most obviously urges them.

He has always maintained that theory in regard to the training of Indian Art students is in itself unproductive and can only be proven by practice, and as Mr Solomon has now held the post of Principal for several years it is possible to gauge the results achieved by his system of training.

The Life Classes which were started at the end of 1919 have recently been pronounced by competent judges as well up to the level of the Life Classes of the European Schools of Art. But proficiency in technique forms only one side of the present system of training for even in Europe, too much of the study from life is quite capable of negating its own object. In India, where the decorative instinct is inherent, and where the possibilities of freehand drawing are still understood, the danger of overdoing the Life Class is even more palpable. So side by side with these realistic aids to study, and at the same period, a Class of Indian Decorative Training was inaugurated in the Bombay School of Art under the direction of the Governor of Bombay (Lord Lloyd). As this class specialises in Mural Painting it has long been popularly known as the Class of Mural Painting. This class has executed the decorations for many public and private buildings and painted the ceiling and panels of a specially constructed Indian Room which was exhibited at Wembley in 1924. A great deal of controversy which has been characterised by its academic rather than its practical note has centred round these new movements in art training in India, but the Bombay School of Art has retained the patronage and support of the public and the increase in the number of its students (who now number over 800 in all sections of the School) has been continuous since it took its present line. It is significant that the wide spread revival of public interest in Art in Western India has synchronised with these activities.

The School of Art has of late years enjoyed the patronage of successive Governors of Bombay and largely due to the efforts of Sir Leslie Wilson the Government of India inaugurated a competition of Indian Artists in 1927 for the decoration of wall spaces in the new buildings at New Delhi. The result of the Competition was notified in October 1928, when five artists of Bombay, and the students of the Bombay and Lahore Schools of Art were commissioned to paint Mural Decorations in the new Secretariat buildings. The Bombay School undertook the decoration of Committee Room 'A' (in the North Block) and the paintings, which were executed in oils on canvas were finished and successfully placed in position on the dome and walls by the middle of September 1929. These decorations were original compositions of life size figures symbolising the main periods of Indian Art, and the different branches of the Fine and Applied Arts. In April 1929, the Government of Bombay converted the Bombay School into a Department under the Hon. his Minister of Education and Independent of the Director of Public Instruction, the Principal (Mr W E Gladstone Solomon) being made Director.

Indian Architecture.

I ANCIENT

The architecture of India has proceeded on lines of its own, and its monuments are unique among those of the nations of the world. An ancient civilization, a natural bent on the part of the people towards religious fervour of the contemplative rather than of the fanatical sort, combined with the richness of the country in the sterner building materials—these are a few of the factors that contributed to making it what it was, while a stirring history gave it both variety and glamour. Indian architecture is a subject which at the best has been studied only imperfectly, and a really comprehensive treatise on it has yet to be written. The subject is a vast and varied one, and it may be such a treatise never will be written in the form of one work at any rate. The spirit of Indian art is so foreign to the European of art culture that it is only one European in a hundred who can entirely understand it, while art criticism and analysis is a branch of study that the modern Indian has not as yet ventured upon to any appreciable extent. Hitherto the one and with a few exceptions the only recognized authority on the subject has been Fergusson, whose compendious work is that which will find most ready acceptance by the general reader. But Fergusson attempted the nearly impossible task of covering the ground in one volume of moderate dimensions, and it is sometimes held that he was a man of too purely European a culture, albeit wide and eclectic, to admit of sufficient depth of insight in this particular direction. Fergusson's classification by races and religions is, however, the one that has been generally accepted hitherto. He asserts that there is no stone architecture in India of an earlier date than two and a half centuries before the Christian era, and that India owes the introduction of the use of stone for architectural purposes, as she does that of Buddhism as a state religion to the great Asoka, who reigned B.C. 272 to 236.

Buddhist Work

Fergusson's first architectural period is then the Buddhist, of which the great topes at Sanchi with its famous Northern gateway is perhaps the most noted example. Then we have the Gandharan topes and monasteries. Perhaps the examples of Buddhist architecture of greatest interest and most ready to come to the general student are to be found in the Chaitya halls or rock-cut caves of Karli, Ajanta, Naik, Ellora and Kanheri. A point with relation to the Gandhara work may be alluded to in passing. This is the strong European tendency, variously recognized as Roman, Byzantine but most frequently as Greek, to be observed in the details. The foliage seen in the capitals of columns bears strong resemblance to the Greek acanthus, while the sculptures have a distinct trace of Greek influence, particularly in the treatment of drapery, but also of hair and facial expression. From this it has been a fairly common assumption amongst some authorities that Indian art owed much of its debt to European influence, an assumption that is strenuously combated by others as will be pointed out later.

The architecture of the Jains comes next in order. Of this rich and beautiful style the most noted examples are perhaps the Dilwara temples near Mount Abu, and the unique 'Tower of Victory' at Chittora.

Other Hindu Styles

The Dravidian style is the generic title usually applied to the characteristic work of the Madras Presidency and the South of India. It is seen in many rock-cut temples as at Ellora, where the remarkable 'Kylas' is an instance of a temple cut out of the solid rock, complete, not only with respect to its interior (as in the case of mere caves) but also as to its exterior. It is, as it were, a life size model of a complete building or group of buildings, several hundred feet in length, not built, but sculptured in solid stone, an undertaking of vast and, to our modern ideas, unprofitable industry. The Pagoda of Tanjore, the temples at Srirangam, Chidambaram, Vellore, Vijayanagar &c. and the palaces at Madura and Tanjore are among the best known examples of the style.

The writer finds some difficulty in following Fergusson's two next divisions of classification, the 'Chalukyan' of South-central India, and the 'Northern or Indo-Aryan style.' The differences and the similarities are apparently so intermixed and confusing that he is loath to fall back on the broad generic title of Hindu—however unscientific he may thereby stand confessed. Amongst a vast number of Hindu temples the following may be mentioned as particularly worthy of study—Those at Mukteswara and Bhuvaneswar in Orissa at Khajuraho, Bindraban, Udaipur, Benares, Gwalior, &c. The palace of the Hindu Raja Man Singh at Gwalior is one of the most beautiful architectural examples in India. So also are the palaces of Amber, Dattya, Uchla, Dig and Udaipur.

Indo-Saracenic

Among all the periods and styles in India the characteristics of none are more easily recognisable than those of what is generally called the 'Indo-Saracenic' which developed after the Mahomedan conquest. Under the new influences now brought to bear on it the architecture of India took on a fresh lease of activity and underwent remarkable modifications. The dome, not entirely as unknown feature hitherto became a special object of development, while the arch, at no time a favourite constructional form of the Hindu builders was now forced on their attention by the predictions of the ruling class. The minaret also became a distinctive feature. The requirements of the new religion—the mosque with its wide spaces to meet the needs of organized congregational acts of worship—gave opportunities for broad and spacious treatments that had hitherto been to some extent denied. The Moslem hatred of idolatry set a taboo on the use of sculptured representations of animate objects in the adornment of the buildings, and led to the development

of other decorative forms. Great ingenuity came to be displayed in the use of pattern and of geometrical and foliated ornament. This Moslem trait further turned the attention of the builders to a greater extent than before to proportion, scale and mass as means of giving beauty, more richness of sculptured surface and the æsthetic and symbolic interest of detail being no longer to be depended on to the same degree.

The art was thus the gainer by the new conditions. It gained in power and variety much as Classic architecture gained under the Romans. But it equally lost something too. The Indo-Saracenic is apt to appear cold and hard. The writer was impressed by this on his first view of the Gwalior palace already mentioned. Though a Hindu building, that palace has yet much of what might be called the more sophisticated quality of the Indo-Saracenic work as well as some similarity of detail. It has, being Hindu, a certain amount of sculptured ornament of animated forms, and the general effect of roundness, richness and interest thereby imparted seemed eloquent in suggestion as to what is lacking in so many of the Mahometan buildings.

Foreign Influence

There would appear to be a conflict between archaeologists as to the extent of the effect on Indian art produced by foreign influence under the Mahometans. The extreme view on the one hand is to regard all the best of the art as having been due to foreign importation. The Gandharan sculptures with their Greek tendency, the development of new forms and modes of treatment to which allusion has been made, the similarities to be found between the Mahometan buildings of India and those of North Africa and Europe, the introduction of the minaret and above all, the historical evidences that exist of the presence in India of Europeans during Mogul times are cited in support of the theory. On the other hand those of the opposite school hold the foregoing view to be due to the prevailing European preconception that all light and leading must come by way of Europe, and the best things in art by way of Greece. To them the Gandharan sculpture, instead of being the best, is the worst in India even because of its Greek tincture. They find in the truly indigenous work beauty and significance not to be seen in the 6th or 7th century sculptures and point to those of Borobudur in Java, the work of Buddhist colonists from India, wonderfully preserved by reason of an immunity from destructive influences given by the insular position, as showing the best examples of the art extant. It is probable that a just estimate of the merits of the controversy, with respect to sculpture at any rate, cannot be formed till time has obliterated some of the differences of taste that exist between East and West.

To the adherents of the newer school the undisputed similarities between Indo Mahometan and Hindu buildings outweigh those between Indian and Western Mahometan work, especially in the light of the dissimilarity between the latter. They admit the changes produced by the advent of Islam, but contend that the art, though modified,

yet remained in its essence what it had always been, indigenous Indian. The minaret, the dome, the arch, they contended, though developed under the Moslem influence, were yet, so far as their detailed treatment and craftsmanship are concerned, rendered in a manner distinctively Indian. Ferguson is usually regarded as the leader of the former school while the latter and comparatively recent school has at present found an eager champion in Mr. E. B. Havell, whose works, on the subject are recommended for study side by side with those of the former writer. Mr. Havell practically discards Ferguson's racial method of classification into styles in favour of a chronological review of what he regards to a greater extent than did his famous precursor as being one continuous homogeneous Indian mode of architectural expression though subject to variations from the influences brought to bear upon it and from the varied purposes to which it was applied.

Agra and Delhi

Agra and Delhi may be regarded as the principal centres of the Indo-Saracenic style—the former for the renowned Taj Mahal, for Akbar's deserted capital of Fatehpur Sikri, its tomb at Secundra the Moti Masjid and palace buildings at the Agra fort. At Delhi we have the great Jamma Masjid, the Fort, the tombs of Humayun, Sudar Jung, &c., and the unique Qutb Minar. Two other great centres may be mentioned, because in each there appeared certain strongly marked individualities that differentiated the varieties of the style there found from the variety seen at Delhi and Agra, as well as that of one from that of the other. These are Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Bijapur on the Dekhan, both in the Bombay Presidency.

Ahmedabad

At Ahmedabad with its neighbours Sirkeji and Champanur there seems to be loss of a departure from the older Hindu forms a tendency to adhere to the lintel and bracket rather than to have recourse to the arch, while the dome though constantly employed, was there never developed to its full extent as elsewhere, or carried to its logical structural conclusion. The Ahmedabad work is probably most famous for the extraordinary beauty of its stone "jail"—or pierced lattice work, as in the palm tree windows of the Sidai Sayyid Masjid.

Bijapur

The characteristics of the Bijapur variety of the style are equally striking. They are perhaps more distinctively Mahometan than those of the Ahmedabad buildings in that here the dome is developed to a remarkable degree, indeed the tomb of Mahmud—the well-known Gol Gumbaz—is cited as showing the greatest space of floor in any building in the world roofed by a single dome, not even excepting the Pantheon. The lintel also was here practically discarded in favour of the arch. The Bijapur style shows a bold masculine quality and a largeness of structural conception that is unequalled elsewhere in India though in richness and delicacy it does not attempt to rival the work of the further North. In this we recognize among other influences

that of the prevailing material, the hard uncompromising Dekhan basalt in a similar manner the characteristics of the Ahmedabad work with its greater richness of ornamentation are bound up with the nature of the Gujarati freestone while at Delhi and Agra the freer

choice of materials available—the local red and white sandstones, combined with access to marble and other more costly materials—was no doubt largely responsible for the many easily recognizable characteristics of the architecture of these centres

II MODERN.

The modern architectural work of India divides itself sharply into two classes. There is first that of the indigenous Indian 'Master-builder' to be found chiefly in the Native States, particularly those in Rajputana. Second there is that of British India, or of all those parts of the peninsula wherever Western ideas and methods have most strongly spread their influence, chiefly, in the case of architecture, through the medium of the Department of Public Works. The work of that department has been much undervalued upon as being all that building should not be, but, considering it has been produced by men of whom it was admittedly not the master, and who were necessarily contending with lack of expert training on the one hand and with departmental methods on the other, it must be conceded that it can show many notable buildings. Of recent years there has been a tendency on the part of professional architects to turn their attention to India, and a number of these have even been drafted into the service of Government as the result of a policy initiated in Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. In time, therefore, and with the growth of the influence of these men, such of the reproach against the building of the British in India as was just and was not merely thoughtlessly maintained as a corollary to the popular jape against every thing official, may gradually be removed. If this is so as to Government work progress should be even more assured in the freer atmosphere outside of official life. Already in certain of the greater cities, where the trained modern architect has established himself, in private practice, there are signs that his influence is beginning to be felt. He still complains, however, that the general public of India needs much educating up to a recognition of his value, both in a pecuniary sense and other wise. It is also to be observed that the survival of a relic of the popular idea of the time before his advent, to the effect that though an architect might occasionally design a building it was always an engineer who built it, is still indicated by the architect in some cases deeming it advisable to style himself "architect and engineer."

To the work of the indigenous "master builder" public attention has of recent years been drawn with some insistence, and the suggestion has been pressed that efforts should be directed towards devising means for the preservation of what is pointed out—and now universally acknowledged—to be a remarkable survival—almost the only one left in the world—of "living art," but which is threatened with final extinction by reason of the spread of Western ideals and fashions. The matter

assumed some years ago the form of a mild controversy centring round the question of the then much discussed project of the Government of India's new capital at Delhi. It was urged that this project should be utilised to give the required impetus to Indian art rather than that it should be made a means of fostering European art which needed no such encouragement at India's expense. The advocates of this view appear for the most part to have been adherents of the indigenous Indian "school" of archaeologists already mentioned, and to have based their ideas on their own reading of the past. They still muster a considerable following not only amongst the artistic public of England and India, but even within the Government services. Their opponents, holding what appears to be the more official view both as to archaeology and art, have pointed to the 'death' of all the arts of the past in other countries as an indication of a natural law and deprecate as waste of energy all efforts to resist this law, or to institute what they have termed 'another futile revival.' The British in India, they contend, should do as did the ancient Romans in every country on which they planted their conquering foot. As those were wont to replace indigenous art with that of Rome, so should we set our seal of conquest permanently on India by the erection of examples of the best of British art. This is the view which as we have indicated, appears to have obtained for the moment the more influential hearing, and the task of designing and directing the construction of the principal buildings in the new Capital has accordingly been entrusted jointly to a London and to a South African architect, neither of whom can be unduly influenced by either past or recent architectural practice so far as India is concerned.

But this controversy, however vital to the interests of the country's architecture, is too purely technical and academic for its merits to be estimated by the general reader or discussed here. Its chief claim on our attention lies in the fact that it affords an added interest to the tourist, who may see the fruits of both schools of thought in the various modern buildings of British India as well as examples of the master builders work in nearly every native town and bazaar. The town of Lashkar in Gwalior State may be cited as peculiarly rich in instances of picturesque modern Indian street architecture, while at Jaipur, Udaipur, Benares, etc., this class of work may be studied in many different forms both civil and religious. The extent to which the 'unbroken tradition from the past' exists may be taken as gauged by the traveller who is architect enough for the purpose.

Industrial Arts.

The ancient industrial arts of India formed two distinct groups. The first included those allied to, and dependent upon, architecture, the second comprise those applied to articles devoted to religious ritual, military weapons and trappings, domestic accessories and to personal adornment.

The articles of the first group were intended for some fixed and definite position, and the style of their design and the character of their workmanship were dictated by that of the building with which they were incorporated. Those of the second group were movable, and the range of their design was less constricted and their workmanship was more varied. Examples of work in both groups are so numerous, and the arts comprise such a diversity of application, that only a cursory survey can be attempted within the limits of a short review. Although the design and treatment differ in the two groups, the materials used were often the same. These materials cover a very wide range but space only permits of reference to work applied to the four materials upon which the Indian craftsman's skill has been most extensively displayed. These are stone, wood, metal and textiles.

Before dealing separately with each of these materials a few words upon the principal Indian styles are necessary. The two distinctive styles are Hindu and Mahomedan. The former may be termed indigenous, dating as it does from remote antiquity, the latter was a variation of the great Arabian style, which was brought into India in the fourteenth century and has since developed features essentially Indian in character. The art of both Hindu and Mahomedan is based upon religion and the requirements of religious ritual. The obvious expression of this is shown in the different motifs used for their ornament. In Hindu art all natural forms are accepted and employed for decorative purposes but in that of the Mahomedans nearly all natural forms are rejected and forbidden. The basis of Mahomedan decoration is therefore mainly geometrical. In each of them, racial characteristics are strikingly exhibited. The keynote of Hindu work is exuberance, imagination and poetry, that of Mahomedan, reticence, intellect and good taste. The Hindus are lavish, and often indiscriminate in their employment of ornament, the Mahomedans use more restraint. In fact the two styles may be compared, without straining the analogy, to the Gothic and classic styles in Europe. In both styles the fecundity of ideas and invention in design are marvellous, and the craftsmanship often reaches a very high standard. Hindu art had been subjected throughout the ages to many foreign influences, but the artistic instincts of the people have proved so conservative that, whether these alien ideas came from the east or the west, they have been absorbed, and are now stamped with a definite Indian character. Recognition of this fact alone should relieve the anxiety of those critics who fear that the penetration of Western art and culture into India at the present time will eventually rob Indian art of its national character.

Stone Work.—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration employed in Hindu temples. In variety and scope it ranges from the massive figures in the Buddhist and Brahminical Cave Temples, and the detached sculpture of the temples of Southern India, to the delicately incised reliefs and elaborately fretted ornament of the Jain temples at Mount Abu. A curious fact in relation to Hindu work is that priority of date appears to have no relation to artistic development. It is not possible to trace, as in the case of Greek, Roman and Medieval craftwork, the regular progressive steps from art in its primitive state to its culminating point and its subsequent decay. Styles in India seem to spring into existence fully developed, the earlier examples often exhibiting finer craftsmanship than those of a later date. There can be little doubt that stone carving in India was simply the application of the wood carver's art to another material. The treatment of stone by the Hindu craftsmen, even in the constructive principles of their buildings, bears a closer resemblance to the practices of the wood-worker than to that of the stone mason. The earlier wooden examples from which the stone buildings and their decorations were derived have long since disappeared, but their influence is apparent. The keynote of Hindu design is rhythmic rather than symmetrical, that of their craftsmanship, vigour rather than refinement. In the carving of the human figure and of animals great power of expressing action is shown, and this spontaneous feeling is preserved despite the greatest elaboration and detail. The industry displayed is amazing, no amount of labour appears to have daunted the Hindu craftsmen in carrying out their huge and intricate schemes of decoration.

The stone carving on Mahomedan buildings except where Hindu carvers have been allowed a free hand, is much more restrained than that on Hindu temples. The fact that geometrical forms were almost exclusively used dictated lower relief and greater refinement in the carving, while the innate good taste of the designers prompted them to concentrate the ornament upon certain prominent features, where its effect was heightened by the simplicity of the rest of the building. The invention displayed in working out geometrical patterns for work screens, inlay, and other ornamental details appears to be inexhaustible, while wonderful decorative use has been made of Arabic and Persian lettering in panels and their framing. To obtain a rich effect the Hindus relied upon the play of light and shade upon broken surfaces, the Mahomedans to attain the same end used precious materials veneering the surfaces of their buildings with polished marble which they decorated with patterns of mosaic composed of jade, agate, onyx and other costly stones. Although the art of inlaying and working in hard stones was of Italian origin, it proved to be so eminently suited to the genius of the Indian craftsman and many wonderful examples of their skill in the form of book rests, tables, thrones, footstools, vases and sword handles are extant to show the height of proficiency they attained. The treatment of precious

stones by Indian jewellers may here be referred to Sir George Birdwood states that "the Indian, jeweller shows a prodigious variety of rich and brilliant colours and nothing of the purity of his gems. This is true in a general sense and 'full many a gem of purest ray serene' was utterly ruined by crude cutting and polishing. But although as early as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries diamonds and precious stones from the Indian mines were taken to Europe to be cut many of the finest jewels found their way back to the treasure houses of Indian princes.

Wood Work.—With a fine range of timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has played a great part in the construction and decoration of Indian buildings. Unfortunately most of the ancient wood work has been destroyed by the action of the climate and the terming insectivorous life of India, and that which escaped these enemies was wiped out by fire and the sword. It is therefore only possible to conjecture the height of artistic development these buildings and their decorations displayed by the copies in stone which have been preserved. Few if any examples of a date earlier than the sixteenth century are to be found. Many of these, and specimens of a later date to be seen in towns and cities throughout the country, are masterpieces of design and craftsmanship. The carved timber fronts and inner courtyards of houses in Ahmedabad, Naik, and other parts of Western India are notable for their picturesqueness and beauty, the structural beams, the overhanging balconies, with their screens and supporting brackets, being carved in a manner which unites richness of effect with good taste and propriety. Of furniture as the term is now understood few examples were in use in India before Europeans introduced their own fashions. These were confined to small tables and stools, book rests, cloth chests and screens, the designs of which conformed somewhat closely to the architectural style of the period. Many of these were decorated with inlays of coloured woods, ivory and metal while in some cases the wooden parts were entirely plated with copper, brass or silver. In Southern India, where close grained sandalwood is grown, jewel cases and boxes are enriched with carving executed with the attention to detail and the finish generally associated with the carving of ivory. Coloured lac was freely used to decorate many articles of furniture, especially those turned on the lathe and rich colour effects were obtained in this perhaps the most distinctive and typically Indian development of decoration as applied to woodwork.

Metal Work.—With the exception of weaving, the metal working industry employed and still employs the greatest number of artists and craftsmen in India. Copper and brass have always been the two metals most widely used for domestic purposes by Mohammedans and Hindus. The shapes of many of these humble vessels are among the most beautiful to be found in the country. They exhibit that sense of variety and touch of personality which are only given by the work of the human hand, and the shapes are those which grow naturally from the working of the material with the simplest implements. In the technical treatment of

brass and copper Indian craftsmen have shown a taste and skill unsurpassed by those of other nations except in the department of fine casting. In this, and in the working of gold and silver a higher standard of technical and constructive exactness has been reached by the metal workers of Europe and Japan. It may be taken as an axiom that the more beautiful the shape of an article is, and this especially applies to metal work, the less need exists for the decoration of its surface. It is equally true that the highest test of craftsmanship is the production of a perfect article with out any decoration. The reason being that the slightest technical fault is apparent on a plain surface, but can be hidden or disguised of one which is covered with ornament. The goldsmiths and silversmiths of India were extremely skilful and industrious, but judged by this test their works often exhibit a lack of care and exactness in the structural portion and a completely satisfactory example of perfectly plain work from the hands of the gold and silversmiths of India is rarely to be met with. Much of the excessive and often inappropriate ornamentation of the articles that they produced owed its application as much to the necessity of hiding defective construction as it did to any purely decorative purpose. For many generations ornaments of gold and silver were regarded in the light of portable wealth, a practice which naturally made for massiveness. These solid ornaments are most effective and picturesque and, despite an enormous output of elaborate and delicate work from their hands, the most valuable contribution of the Indian metal workers to the sum total of man's artistic use of the precious metals will probably be found to lie in a certain barbaric note which distinguishes these pieces—a note not present in the craft work of other countries. In the design of Hindu gold and silver ornaments, religious symbols have been extensively used. The ornaments which bedeck the early sculptured figures, and those depicted in the paintings at the Cave Temples of Ajanta are precisely the same in design and use as similar articles made at the present time, thus affording a striking evidence of the inherent conservatism of the Hindu people and its effect upon an industrial art that makes a closer personal appeal than any other.

Textiles.—The textile industry is the widest in extent in India and is that in which her craftsmen have shown their highest achievements. Other countries, east and west of India have produced work equal, if not superior, in stone, wood, and metal but none has ever matched that of her weavers in cotton and wool, or excelled them in the weaving of silk fabrics. Some of the products of the looms of Bengal are marvels of technical skill and perfect taste, while the plum blossom quality of the old Cashmere shawls is an artistic achievement which places them in a class by themselves. Weaving being essentially a process of repetition, was the first to which machinery was applied, and modern science has brought power loom weaving to such a state of perfection that filaments of a substance finer even than those of Dacca, which astonished our ancestors, are now produced in the mills of Lancashire. But for beauty of surface and variety of texture no machine-made fabrics have ever equaled

the finest handwork of the ancient weavers of India. Many of the most beautiful varieties of Indian textile work have disappeared, killed by the competition of the power loom and it is to be feared that under modern conditions they are never likely to be revived. In other branches of art as applied to textiles India does not hold so pre-eminent a position as in that of weaving. The printed silks and calicoes of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries deservedly held a high place in the estimation of Western nations, whose craftsmen learnt many valuable lessons from the technical skill, and artistic taste they display. In embroidery and fine needlework the West and the Far East have more than held their own, while nothing approaching the tapestries made in Europe in the middle ages has been produced in India. The nearest approach to these is in carpets and rugs. This art was introduced from Persia, but Indian craftsmen have never succeeded in equalling the finest work of their instructors either in colour or design.

Modern Conditions.—In the foregoing sketch of the ancient industrial art of India, as applied to the four principal materials employed only a general indication of its more striking characteristics has been possible. A volume would be required to give a detailed description of any one of them, and would leave many other minor arts to be considered. All these branches of art came into existence, were developed and flourished in India when social and economic conditions were vastly different from those of the present day. Like similar artistic crafts carried on in Europe up to the end of the eighteenth century they were executed by hand labour. The processes involved had no been discovered by scientific inquiry such as is now understood by the phrase, but were the outcome of generations of slowly built up experience. We now come to the effect upon them of the changed conditions which have revolutionised industrial art in Europe during the last century.

The invention of the steam engine, and the application of mechanical power and scientific research to industry in Europe, mark the dividing line between ancient and modern industrial art. Not only on its technical side is this so, but the effect of these changes has been to alter the character of the work itself and the spirit which animated the craftsman. In place of the ancient ideal of variety in design and treatment, which meant a limited output, the modern one of uniformity and unlimited output has been substituted. The capitalist has displaced the master craftsman, the organised factory, the small workshop, specialisation and division of labour have taken the place of general proficiency among the artisans, the function of the designer has been separated from that of the craftsman, local markets have been extended to serve the whole world, and the skilled handicraftsman has in a great measure become a machine minder. It took about one hundred years of gradual change for the craftsmen of Europe fully to adjust themselves to these altered conditions, and during the greater portion of that period India, protected by the difficulties of transport, continued its immemorial practice. Fifty years ago this protective barrier was removed by the

opening of the Suez Canal, and the handicraftsmen of India have since been struggling to avoid the same fate which overtook those of Europe half a century before. With less time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions the Indian craftsmen have had to meet the competition of European rivals already fully equipped with new and unknown weapons. Even before this period of intense competition, observers interested in Indian craftwork had noticed evidences of its deterioration. The falling off, both in design and workmanship, was attributed to the conservative practice of the craftsmen to the gradual loss of foreign markets, and to the long period of internal disorder which had deprived them of both the patronage of the rulers of an earlier age and the stimulating contact with foreign craftsmen who had previously been attracted to the splendid courts at Delhi and Agra. During the same period, an even greater degradation in design had overtaken the craftwork of Europe. This was due to entirely different causes namely, to the introduction of machinery. Attention had been so concentrated upon speedy production, mechanical accuracy and commercial organisation that beauty of design had been almost entirely neglected. This was so forcibly demonstrated at the International Exhibition of 1881 that efforts were at once made to bring art and industry together once more. Schools of Art and Museums were founded throughout England and the same system was copied in a tentative and timid fashion in India. The function of these institutions was accurately estimated in England where the artistic industries were already highly organised and were commercially successful, and whose products were to be found in every market of the world. Their business was to assist these industries by training a body of efficient designers capable of furnishing the factories with suitable designs, new or old, and in any style, to satisfy the requirements of customers in any country. It was never supposed for an instant that a School of Art could lead an industry in India, their function was as completely misunderstood as were the causes of the depression in Indian craftwork. The schools were not only expected to lead the industries which were living, but to revive those which were moribund, and resurrect those which were dead. In the report of the Indian Industrial Commission the need for some State-aided system of industrial and commercial organisation of the industrial arts with an expanded scheme of technical and artistic instruction for the craftsmen has been recognised, and valuable suggestions were made by experts who gave their evidence when the Commission visited the different Provinces. The success of the scheme recommended by the Commission will depend entirely upon the energy with which it is applied, and the practical knowledge and the assistance required by each of the different crafts on the part of those who control it. In addition the same financial assistance and encouragement are given by the Imperial and Local Governments to the Indian craftsmen that have been bestowed by their own Government upon the art workers of Japan. Industrial art in India will quickly emerge from the cloud of depression, which has hung over it for a century past into the sunlight of prosperity.

Archæology.

The ancient monuments of India are as varied as they are numerous. Until a few years ago the earliest known were the brick and stone erections of the Maurya period, a group of mounds at Lauriya Nandangarh, illustrative of the Vedic funeral customs and assignable roughly to the 7th or 8th century B.C., and some rough stone walls at the ancient city of Rajagriha of about the same period. The absence of structures of an earlier period was then supposed to be due to the fact that all previous architecture has been of wood and had completely perished. The recent excavations, however, at Mohenjo-daro in Sind and at Harappa in the Punjab have completely revolutionised ideas on this subject and proved that as far back as the 3rd or 4th millennium B.C. and probably much earlier still, India was in possession of a highly developed civilisation with large and populous cities, well built houses, temples and public buildings of brick and many other amenities enjoyed at that period by the peoples of Mesopotamia and Egypt. Both at Mohenjo-daro and Harappa there are the remains of some 5 or 6 cities superimposed one upon the ruins of another.

The structures that have so far been exposed at Mohenjo-daro belong to the three latest cities on the site. Those of the third or earliest are the best in style, those of the first the poorest. Most of the structures are dwelling houses or shops, but there are others which appear to have been temples and one of particularly massive proportions is a large bath, surrounded by fenestrated galleries or halls. All were built of well burnt brick and most of them were of two or more storeys with staircases giving access to the upper rooms. In and around the ruins have been found many minor antiquities including gold and silver jewellery engraved seals of stone and ivory and past copper implements and vessels, terracotta figurines and toys, shell ornaments and potteries both painted and plain.

These discoveries establish the existence in Sind and the Punjab during the 4th and 3rd millennia B.C. of a highly developed city life and the presence, in many of the houses, of wells and bathrooms as well as an elaborate drainage system between a social condition of the citizens at least equal to that found in Sumer and superior to that prevailing in contemporary Babylonia and Egypt. The inhabitants of these cities lived largely no doubt by agriculture and it is a point of interest that the specimens of wheat found at Mohenjo-daro resemble the common variety grown in the Punjab to-day. Besides bread, their food appears to have included beef, mutton, and pork, the flesh of tortoises, fowls and garials, fresh fish from the Indus and dried fish from the sea coast. Among their domesticated animals were the humped Indian bull, the buffalo, a short horned bull, the sheep, pig, dog, horse and elephant. Besides gold and silver they used copper, tin, bronze and lead, they were familiar with the arts of spinning and weaving and with the cultivation of cotton and had attained a high degree

of proficiency in the jewellers and potter's arts.

That they possessed a well developed system of writing is evidenced by the discovery of over a thousand tablets engraved with well executed animal devices and pictographic legends in an unknown script. The method of disposal of the dead at Mohenjo-daro is uncertain but at Harappa two types of burial have been met with namely complete burials along with funerary pottery and pot burials. Only 27 of the latter have been examined and these were found to contain skulls and human bones and are seemingly fractional burials.

This Indus Valley culture has now been traced as far as Rupar in the Ambala District relatively close to the watershed of the Sutlej and Jumna and it is therefore highly improbable that this civilisation was confined to the Indus Valley and there can hardly be any reasonable doubt that future researches will trace it into the valley of the Ganges. Of the long period of more than 2000 years that separates the prehistoric monuments referred to above from the historic period of India, little or nothing is yet known but there is every hope that this gap in our knowledge may be filled in by further excavations. From the time of the Mauryas, i.e., 3rd century B.C., the history of architecture and the formative arts of India is clear and can be traced with relative precision.

Monumental Pillars.—The monuments which have come down to us from the Maurya period, include, besides the caves to be referred to below, the wooden palisade (4th century B.C.) which surrounded the ancient city of Patalliputra (modern Patna) and of which a large section has been exposed, the rock and pillar edicts of Asoka (c. 260 B.C.) the remains of a large pillared hall constructed by the same emperor at Patalliputra, a number of brick stupas and a monolithic rail which originally surmounted an Asoka stupa at Sarnath near Benares. Altogether twelve pillars of Asoka are known. Ten of them bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandangarh column in the Champaran District, Tirhut, is practically uninjured. The capital of each column like the shaft, was monolithic, and comprised three members viz., a Persepolitan bell, abacus, and crowning sculpture in the round. By far the best capital of Asoka's time was that carved at Sarnath near Benares. The four lions standing back to back on the abacus are carved with extraordinary precision and accuracy and originally supported a wheel symbolising the law of piety promulgated by the Buddha. Several pieces of this wheel were found and are now preserved in the Archaeological Museum at Sarnath. Of the post-Asokan period one pillar (B.C. 150) stands to the north east of Benares in the Gwalior State another in front of the cave of Karli (A.D. 70), and a third at Eran in Central Provinces belonging to the 5th Century A.D. All these are of stone, but there

is one of iron also. It is near the Quth Minar at Delhi, and an inscription on it speaks of its having been erected by a king called Chandir, identified with Chandragupta II (A.D. 375-413) of the Gupta dynasty. It is wonderful to find the Hindus at that age forging a bar of iron larger than any that have been forged even in Europe to a very late date, and not frequently even now. Pillars of later style are found all over the country, especially in the Madras Presidency. No less than twenty exist in the South Kanara District. A particularly elegant example faces a Jaina temple at Mudabidri, not far from Mangalore.

Topes.—*Stupas*, known as *dagobas* in Ceylon and commonly called *Topes* in North India, were constructed either for the safe custody of relics hidden in a chamber often near the base or to mark the scene of notable events in Buddhist or Jaina legends. Though we know that the ancient Jaiinas built *stupas*, no specimen of Jaina *stupas* is now extant. A notable structure of this kind which existed until recent times, was the Jaina *stupa* which stood on the Kanakalli Tila site at Muttra and yielded a large number of Jaina sculptures now deposited in the Provincial Museum at Lucknow. Of those belonging to the Buddhists the great *Topo* of Sanchi in Bhopal is the most intact and entire of its class. It consists of a low circular drum supporting a hemispherical dome of less diameter. Round the drum is an open passage for circumambulation, and the whole is enclosed by a massive stone railing with lofty gates facing the cardinal points. The gates are essentially wooden in character and are carved inside and out, with elaborate sculptures. The original *stupa* which was of brick and not more than half the present dimensions, was apparently erected by Asoka at the same time as his lion-crowned pillar near the south gate, but as Sir John Marshall's recent explorations have conclusively shown, its outer casing of stone, the railing and the gateway were at least 150 and 200 years later respectively. Other famous Buddhist *stupas* that have been found are those of Sarnath, Bharhut between Allahabad and Jubbulpore, Amravati in the Madras Presidency, and Piprahwa on the Nepalese frontier. The *topo* proper at Bharhut has entirely disappeared, having been utilised for building villages, and what remained of the rail has been removed to the Calcutta Museum. The bas-reliefs on this rail which contain short inscriptions and thus enable one to identify the scenes sculptured with the *Jatakas* or Birth Stories of the Buddha give it a unique value. The *stupa* at Amravati also no longer exists, and portions of its rail, which is unsurpassed in point of elaboration and artistic merit, are now in the British and Madras Museums. The *stupa* at Piprahwa was opened by Mr. W. C. Pope in 1898, and a steatite or soap-stone reliquary with an inscription on it was unearthed. The inscription, according to many scholars, speaks of the relics being of the Buddha himself and anshired by his kinsmen, the Sakyas. If this interpretation is correct, we have here one of the *stupas* that were erected over the ashes of Buddha immediately after his demise.

Caves.—Of the rock excavations which are one of the wonders of India, nine-tenths belong to Western India. The most important groups

of caves are situated in Bhaja Beda, Karli, Kanheri, Junnar, and Nasik in the Bombay Presidency, Ellora and Ajanta in Nizam's Dominions, Barabar and Nagarjuni 16 miles north of Gaya, and Udayagiri and Khandagiri 20 miles from Cuttack in Orissa. The caves belong to the three principal sects into which ancient India was divided, viz. the Buddhists, Hindus and Jainas. The earliest caves so far discovered are those of Barabar and Nagarjuni which were excavated by Asoka and his grandson Dasaratha and dedicated to Ajivikas, a naked sect founded by Mankhaliputta Gosala. The next earliest caves are those of Bhaja, Pitalkhora and cave No. 9 at Ajanta and No. 19 at Nasik. They have been assigned to 200 B.C. by Ferguson and Dr. Burgess. But there is good reason to suppose from Sir John Marshall's recent researches and from epigraphic considerations that they are considerably more modern. The Buddhist caves are of two types—the *chaityas* or chapel caves and *viharas* or monasteries for the residence of monks. The first are with vaulted roofs and horse-shoe shaped windows over the entrance and have interiors consisting of a nave and side aisles with a small *stupa* at the inner circular end. They are thus remarkably similar to Christian basilicas. The second class consist of a hall surrounded by a number of cells. In the latter *viharas* there was a *sanctum* in the centre of the back wall containing a large image of Buddha. Hardly a *chaitya* is found without one or more *staves* adjoining it. Of the Hindu cave temples that at Elephanta near Bombay is perhaps the most frequented. It is dedicated to Shiva and is not earlier than the 7th century A.D. But by far the most renowned cave-temple of the Hindus is that known as Kailasa at Ellora. It is on the model of a complete structural temple but carved out of solid rock. It also is dedicated to Shiva and was excavated by the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna I. (A.D. 768), who may still be seen in the paintings in the ceilings of the upper porch of the main shrine. Of the Jaina caves the earliest are at Khandagiri and Udayagiri, those of the medieval type, in Indra Sabha at Ellora and those of the latest period, at Ankal in Nasik. The ceilings of many of these caves were once adorned with fresco paintings. Perhaps, the best preserved among these are those at Ajanta, which were executed at various periods between 250-650 A.D. and have elicited high praise as works of art. Copies were first made by Major Gill, but most of them perished by fire at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The lost ones were again copied by John Griffiths of the Arts School, Bombay, half of whose work was similarly destroyed by a fire at South Kensington. They were last copied by Lady Herringham during 1903-11. Her pictures, which are in full scale, are at present exhibited at the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington, and have been reproduced in a volume brought out by the India Society. Another group of caves where equally interesting though less well preserved paintings exist is found at Bagh in Gwalior State. These caves form the subject of a monograph issued by the India Society.

Gandhara Monuments.—On the north-west frontier of India, anciently known as Gandhara, are found a class of remains, ruined monasteries

and buried *stupas*, among which we notice for the first time representations of Buddha and the Buddhist pantheon. The free use of Corinthian capitals, frieses of nude Etruscan beaming a long capland, winged Atlantes without number and a host of individual motifs clearly establish the influence of Hellenistic art. The mound at Peshawar, locally known as Shah-i-Ji Dheri, was explored in 1900 brought to light several interesting sculptures of this school together with a reliquary casket, the most remarkable bronze object of the Gandhara period. The inscription on the casket left no doubt as to the mound being the *stupa* raised over a relic of Buddha by the Indo Scythian king Kanishka. They were presented by Lord Minto's Government to the Buddhists of Barina and are now enshrined at Mandalay. To about the same age belong the *stupas* at Manikyal in the Punjab opened by Ranjit Singh's French Generals, Ventura and Court in 1830. Some of them contained coins of Kanishka.

Structural Temples.—Of this class the earliest examples are the Varaha temple at Deogarh District Jhansi, another temple at Sanchi the brick temples at Bhitarwar in the district of Cawnpore all of which belong to the Gupta period and a later one at Jigowa in the Central Provinces. In South India we have two more examples, viz. Lad Khan and Durga temples at Alibole in Bijapur the latter of which cannot be later than the eighth century A.D. The only common characteristic is flat roofs without spires of any kind. In other respects they are entirely different and already here we mark the beginning of the two styles Indo-Aryan and Dravidian whose differences become more and more pronounced from the 7th century onwards. In the Indo-Aryan style the most prominent ones tend to the perpendicular and in the Dravidian to the horizontal. The salient feature of the former again is the curvilinear steeple, and of the latter, the pyramidal tower. The most notable examples of the first kind are to be found among the temples of Dharmawar in Orissa, Kajarihar in Bundelkhand, Oda in Jodhpur, and Dilwara on Mount Abu. One of the best known groups in the Dravidian style is that of the Mamallapuram Kailasa, or Seven Pagodas, on the seashore to the south of Madras. They are each hewn out of a block of granite, and are rather modest examples of typical Dravidian architecture, and belong to the 7th century. To the same age has to be assigned the temple of Kalasaram at Conjevaram, and to the following century some of the temples at Alibole and Pattadakal of the Bijapur District, Bombay Presidency and the monolithic temple of Kailasa at Ellora, referred to above. Of the later Dravidian style the great temple at Tanjore and the Srirangam temple near Trichinopoly are the best examples.

Intermediate between these two main styles comes the architecture of the Deccan, called Chalkyan by Ferguson. In this style the plan becomes polygonal and star-shaped instead of quadrangular, and the high-storied spire is converted into a low pyramid in which the horizontal treatment of the Dravidian is combined with the perpendicular of the Indo-Aryan. Some fine examples of this type exist

at Dambal, Ratihall, Tiliwalli and Hingal in Dharwar Bombay Presidency, and at Hagi and Warangal in Nizam's dominions. But it is in Mysore among the temples at Halebid, Belur, and Somnathpur that the style is found in its full perfection.

Inscriptions.—We now come to inscriptions, of which numbers have been brought to light in India. They have been engraved on varieties of materials, but principally on stone and copper. The earliest of these are found inscribed in two distinct kinds of alphabet known as Brahmi and Kharoshthi, the latter being confined to the north-west of India. The Brahmi was read from left to right, and from it have been evolved all the modern vernacular scripts of India. The Kharoshthi was written from right to left, and was a modified form of the ancient Aramaic alphabet introduced into the Punjab during the period of the Persian domination in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to the 4th century A.D. and was supplanted by the Brahmi. The earliest datable inscriptions are the celebrated edicts of Asoka to which a reference has been made above. One group of these has been engraved on rocks, and another on pillars. They have been found from Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar to Nigdiya in the Nepal Terai from Gumar in Kathiawar to Dhaulvi in Orissa, from Kalsi in the Lower Himalayas to Siddapur in Mysore, showing by the way the vast extent of territory held by him. The reference in his Rock Edicts to the five contemporary Greek Princes Antiochus II of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes B.C. 265 as the date of his coronation. His Ramkund pillar inscription again, discovered in Nepal Terai, now settles, beyond all doubt, the birth-place of Buddha which was for long disputed. Another noteworthy record is the inscription of the Kesgarh pillar. The pillar had been known for a long time but Sir John Marshall was the first to notice the inscription on it. It records the erection of this column, which was a Garuda pillar, in honour of the god Vasudeva by one Heliodorus, son of Dion, who is described as an envoy of King Antialkides of Taxila. Heliodorus is herein called a *Bhagavata*, which shows that though a Greek he had become a Hindu and presumably a Vaishnava. Another inscription worth noticing and especially in this connection is that of Cave No. 10 at Naik. The donor of this cave, Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka and was thus an Indo-Scythian, is therein spoken of as having granted three hundred thousand kins and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmans and as having annually fed one hundred thousand Brahmans. Here is another instance of a foreigner having embraced Hinduism. Thus for the political, social, economical and religious history of India at the different periods the inscriptions are invaluable records, and are the only light but for which we are forlorn and blind.

Saracenic Architecture.—This begins in India with the 13th century after the permanent occupation of the Muhammedans. Their first mosques were constructed of the materials of Hindu and Jain temples, and sometimes with comparatively slight alterations. The mosque called *Akbar-ka-jompra* at Ajmer

and that near the Qutb Minar are instances of this kind. The Muhammadan architecture of India varied at different periods and under the various dynasties, Imperial and local. The early Pathan architecture of Delhi was massive and at the same time was characterised by elaborate richness of ornamentation. The Qutb Minar and tombs of Alauddin and Ala-ud-din Khilji are typical examples. Of the Sharqi style we have three mosques in Jaunpur with several tombs. At Mandu in the Dhar State, a third form of Saracenic architecture sprang up, and we have here the Jamī Masjid, Hoshang's tomb Jahas Mahal and Hindola Mahal as the most notable instances of the secular and ecclesiastical styles of the Malwa Pathans. The Muhammadans of Bengal again developed their own style, and Pandua, Malda and Gaur towns with the ruins of the buildings of this type, the important of which are the Adina Masjid of Sikandar Shah, the Mahkhi mosque Kadam Rasul Masjid and so forth. The Bahmani dynasty of Gulbarga and Bidar were also great builders, and adorned their capitals with important buildings. The most striking of these is the great mosque of Gulbarga which differs from all mosques in India in having the whole central area covered over so that what in others would be an open court is here roofed by sixty three small domes. Of the various forms which the Saracenic architecture assumed says Ferguson, that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant. It is notable for its carved stone work and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved niches of the minars of many other mosques, the sculptured Mihrabs and domed and panelled roofs is so exquisite that it will rival anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindu. In complete contrast with this was the form of architecture employed by the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur. There is here relatively little trace of Hindu forms or details. The principal buildings now left at Bijapur are the Jamī Masjid, Gagan Mahal, Mihtar Mahal, Ibrahim Rauza and mosque and the Gol Gumbaz. Like their predecessors, the Pathans of Delhi, the Moghuls were a great building race. Their style first began to evolve itself during the reign of Akbar in a combination of Hindu and Muhammadan features. Noteworthy among the emperor's buildings are the tomb of Humayun, and the palaces at Fatehpur Sikri and Agra. Of Jehangir's time his mosque at Lahore and the tomb of Imdad ul daula are the most typical structures. "The force and originality of the style gave way under Shah Jahan to a delicate elegance and refinement of detail." And it was during his reign that the most splendid of the Moghul tombs, the Taj Mahal at Agra, the tomb of his wife Mumtaz Mahal, was constructed. The Moti Masjid in Agra Fort is another surpassingly pure and elegant monument of his time.

Archæological Department.—As the archæological monuments of India must attract the attention of all intelligent visitors, they would naturally feel desirous to know something of the Archæological Department. The work of this Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. None but sporadic efforts appear to have been made

by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The next advance was the initiation of the local Surveys in Bombay and Madras three years after. The work of these Surveys, however, was restricted to antiquarian research and description of monuments and the task of conserving old buildings was left to the fiscal efforts of the local Governments, often without expert guidance or control. It was only in 1878 that the Government of India under Lord Lytton awoke to this deplorable condition, and sanctioned a sum of 3½ lakhs to the repair of monuments in United Provinces, and soon after appointed a conservator Major Cole, who did useful work for three years. Then a reaction set in, and his post and that of the Director General were abolished. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government, who established seven of the eight Archæological Circles that now obtain, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of a Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of Imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities. Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.B., Director-General of Archæology, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair and excavation has been prosecuted, and the result of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the scientific excavation of buried sites such as Taxila, Pattali, putra, Sanchi in the Bhopal State Sarnath near Benares, Nalanda in Bihar, Palahpur in Bengal and Nagpur in Madras and in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab and Mohenjodaro in Sind. Of all these works those of most general interest are the Mohenjodaro excavations for here the Archæological Department have unearthed remains of prehistoric cities dating back to 1000 B.C. and further. The Archæological Survey has devoted considerable attention to the organization and development of museums as centres of research and education. It maintains the archæological section of the Indian Museum at Calcutta, small museums at the Taj, and at the Forts at Agra, Delhi and Lahore, the Central Asian Antiquities Museum at New Delhi and has erected local museums at the excavated sites of Taxila, Sarnath and Nalanda with the object of keeping the small movable antiquities recovered at these sites in close association with the structural remains to which they belong, so that they may be studied and their natural surroundings and not lose focus and meaning by being transported to some distant place.

The epigraphical material dealt with by the Archæological Survey has enabled the history and chronology of the various dynasties of India to be established on a firmer base and in greater detail. The *Epigraphia Indica*, is now in the 19th volume. A revised edition of the *Asoka Inscriptions* has been recently published and the companion volume of post Asokan inscriptions will appear shortly.

Indian Time

For many years Indian time was in a state of chaotic confusion. What was called Madras or Railway time was kept on all the railways and each great centre of population kept its own local time, which was not based on any common scientific principle and was divorced from the standards of all other countries. It was with a view to remedying this confusion that the Government of India took the matter up in 1904, and addressed to the Local Governments and through them to all local bodies a long letter which reviewed the situation and made suggestions for the future. The essential points in this letter are indicated below.

In India we have already a standard time, which is very generally though by no means universally, recognised. It is the Madras local time, which is kept on all railway and telegraph lines throughout India and which is 5h 21m 10s. in advance of Greenwich. Similarly, Rangoon local time is used upon the railways and telegraphs of Burma, and is 6h 24m 47s. ahead of Greenwich. But neither of these standards bears a simple and easily remembered relation to Greenwich time.

"The Government of India have several times been addressed by scientific Societies, both in India and in England, and urged to fall into line with the rest of the civilised world. And now the Royal Society has once more returned to the attack. The Committee of that Society which advises the Government of India upon matters connected with its observatories, writes—'The Committee think that a change from Madras time to that corresponding to a longitude exactly 5½ hours east of Greenwich would be an improvement upon the existing arrangements, but that for international scientific purposes the hourly zone system, making the time 5 hours in advance of Greenwich in the west, and 6 hours in advance in the east of India would be preferable.

"Now if India were connected with Europe by a continuous series of civilised nations with their continuous railway systems all of which had adopted the European hour zone system, it would be imperative upon India to conform and to adopt the second suggestion. But as she is not and as she is as much isolated by uncivilised States as Cape Colony is by the ocean, it is open to her to follow the example of that and some other similarly situated colonies and to adopt the first suggestion.

"It is believed that this will be the better solution. There are obvious objections to drawing an arbitrary line right across the richest and most populous portions of India and so as to place all the main lines of communication, and keeping times differing by an hour on opposite sides of that line. India has become accustomed to a uniform standard in the Madras time of the railways, and the substitution for it of a double standard would appear to be a retrograde step, while it would, in all probability, be strongly opposed by the railway

authorities. Moreover, it is very desirable that whatever system is adopted should be followed by all Europeans and Indians alike; and it is certain that the double standard would puzzle the latter greatly, while by emphasising the fact that railway differed from local time, it might postpone or even altogether prevent the acceptance of the former instead of the latter by people generally over a large part of India. The one great advantage which the second possesses over the first alternative is, that under the former the difference between local and standard time can never exceed half an hour whereas under the latter it will even exceed an hour in the extreme cases of Karachi and Quetta. But this inconvenience is believed to be smaller than that of keeping two different times on the Indian system of railways and telegraphs.

"It is proposed therefore to put on all the railway and telegraph clocks in India by 8m. 50s. They would then represent a time 5½ hours faster than that of Greenwich, which would be known as Indian Standard Time, and the difference between standard and local time at the places mentioned below would be approximately as follows, the figures representing minutes, and F and S meaning that the standard time is in advance of or behind local time respectively.—Dibrugarh 51 S, Shillong 38 S, Calcutta 24 S, Allahabad 2 F, Madras 9 F, Lahore 33 F, Bombay 39 F, Peshawar 44 F, Karachi 62 F, Quetta 62 F.

"This standard time would be as much as 54 and 56 minutes behind local time at Mandalay and Rangoon, respectively, and since the railway system of Burma is not connected with that of India, and already keeps a time of its own, namely, Rangoon local time it is not suggested that Indian Standard Time should be adopted in Burma. It is proposed, however, that instead of using Rangoon Standard Time as at present, which is 6h 24m. 47s. in advance of Greenwich, a Burma Standard Time should be adopted on all the Burmese railways and telegraphs, which would be one hour in advance of Indian Standard Time, or 5½ hours ahead of Greenwich time and would correspond with 97° 30' E. longitude. The change would bring Burma time into simple relation both with European and with Indian time, and would (among other things) simplify telegraphic communication with other countries.

"Standard time will thus have been fixed for railways and telegraphs for the whole of the Indian Empire. Its general adoption for all purposes, while eminently advisable, is a matter which must be left to the local community in each case."

It is difficult to recall, without a sense of bewilderment, the reception of this proposal by various local bodies. To read now the letters that were entertained if Standard Time was adopted is a study in the possibilities of human

error. The Government scheme left local bodies to decide whether or not they would adopt it. Calcutta decided to retain its own local time, and to-day Calcutta time is still twenty four minutes in advance of Standard Time. In Bombay the first reception of the proposal was hostile but on reconsideration the Chamber of Commerce decided in favour of it and so did the Municipality. Subsequently the opposing element in the Municipality brought in a side resolution by which the Municipal clocks

were put at Bombay time which is thirty nine minutes behind Standard Time. On the 1st January 1906 all the railway and telegraph clocks in India were put at Indian Standard Time, in Burma the Burma Standard Time became universal. Calcutta retains its former Calcutta time but in Bombay local time is retained only in the clocks which are maintained by the Municipality and in the establishments of some orthodox Hindus. Elsewhere Standard Time is universal.

TIDAL CONSTANTS.

The approximate standard time of High Water may be found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of High Water at London Bridge, given in the calendar, the correction given as below --

			N	M			N	M			
Gibraltar	.		sub	0	32	Rangoon River Entrance	.	add	1	35	
Malta	..	.	add	1	34	Penang	.	sub	1	53	
Karachi	.		sub	2	33	Singapore	.	;	3	25	
Bombay	.		"	1	44	Hongkong	.	..	4	27	
Goa	.	.	"	2	44	Shanghai	.	..	0	34	
Point de Galle	.		add	0	12	Yokohama	.	add	3	8	
Madras	..	.	sub	5	6	Valparaiso	.	..	sub	4	40
Calcutta	.	..	"	0	19	Buenos Ayres	..	add	4	9	
Rangoon Town	add	2	41	Monte Video	.	;	0	32	

Coinage, Weights and Measures.

As the currency of India is based upon the rupee, statements with regard to money are generally expressed in rupees, nor has it been found possible in all cases to add a convenient *into sterling*. Down to about 1873 the gold value of the rupee (containing 165 grains of pure silver) was approximately equal to 2s or one-tenth of a £, and for that period it is easy to convert rupees into sterling by striking off the final cipher (Rs 1000=£100). But after 1873 owing to the depreciation of silver as compared with gold throughout the world, there came a serious and progressive fall in the exchange, until at one time the gold value of the rupee dropped as low as 1s. In order to provide a remedy for the heavy loss caused to the Government of India in respect of its gold payments to be made in England, and also to relieve foreign trade and finance from the inconvenience due to constant and unforeseen fluctuations in exchange it was resolved in 1893 to close the mints to the free coinage of silver, and thus force up the value of the rupee by restricting the circulation. The intention was to raise the exchange value of the rupee to 1s 4d and then introduce a gold standard at the rate of Rs 15=£1. From 1899 onwards the value of the rupee was maintained, with insignificant fluctuations, at the proposed rate of 1s 4d until February 1920 when the recommendation of the Committee appointed in the previous year that the rupee should be linked with gold and not with sterling at 2s instead of 1s. 4d. was adopted. This was followed by great fluctuations (See article on Currency System).

Notation.—Another matter in connection with the expression of money statements in terms of rupees requires to be explained. The method of numerical notation in India differs from that which prevails throughout Europe. Large numbers are not punctuated in hundreds of thousands and millions, but in lakhs and crores. A lakh is one hundred thousand (written out as 1,00,000), and a crore is one hundred lakhs or ten millions (written out as 1,00,00,000). Consequently, according to the exchange value of the rupee, a lakh of rupees (Rs 1,00,000) may be read as the equivalent of £10,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £6 687 after 1899, while a crore of rupees (Rs 1,00,00,000) may similarly be read as the equivalent of £1,000,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £66 687 after 1899. With the rupee at 1s 6d. a lakh is equivalent to £7,500 and a crore is equivalent to £750,000.

Coinage.—Finally, it should be mentioned that the rupee is divided into 16 annas a fraction commonly used for many purposes by both Indians and Europeans. The anna was formerly reckoned as 1/16 it may now be considered as exactly corresponding to 1d. The anna is again sub-divided into 12 pice.

Weights.—The various systems of weights used in India combine uniformity of scale with immense variations in the weight of units. The scale used generally throughout Northern India, and less commonly in Madras and

Bombay, may be thus expressed one maund=40 seers, one seer=10 chittaks or 80 tolas. The actual weight of a seer varies greatly from district to district, and even from village to village, but in the standard system the tola is 180 grains Troy (the exact weight of the rupee), and the seer thus weighs 2 057 lb., and the maund 82 28 lb. The standard is used in official reports.

Retail.—For calculating retail prices, the universal custom in India is to express them in terms of seers to the rupee. Thus, when prices change what varies is not the amount of money to be paid for the same quantity, but the quantity to be obtained for the same amount of money. In other words, prices in India are quantity prices, not money prices. When the figure of quantity goes up, this of course means that the price has gone down which is at first sight perplexing to an English reader. It may, however, be mentioned that quantity prices are not altogether unknown in England especially at small shops where pennyworths of many groceries can be bought. Eggs, likewise, are commonly sold at a varying number for the shilling. If it be desired to convert quantity prices from Indian into English denominations without having recourse to money prices (which would often be misleading), the following scale may be adopted—based upon the assumption that a seer is exactly 2 lb. and that the value of the rupee remains constant at 1s 4d. 1 seer per rupee=(about) 3 lb. for 2s. 2 seers per rupee=(about) 6 lb. for 2s., and so on.

The name of the unit for square measurement in India generally is the *bigha*, which varies greatly in different parts of the country. But areas have been expressed in this work either in square miles or in acres.

Proposed reforms.—Indian weights and measures have never been settled upon an organised basis suitable for commerce and trade characteristic of the modern age. They vary from town to town and village to village in a way that could only work satisfactorily so long as the dealings of towns and villages were self contained and before roads and railways opened up trade between one and the other. It is pointed out that in England a hoghead of wine contains 63 gallons and a hoghead of beer only 54 gallons, that a bushel of corn weighs 46 lbs in Sunderland and 340 lbs in Cornwall, that the English stone weight represents 14 lbs in the popular estimation but only 5 lbs, if we are weighing glass, and eight for meat, but 6 lbs for cheese. Similar instances are multiplied in India by at least as many times as India is bigger than England. If we take, for instance, the maund denomination of weight common all over India, we shall find that in a given city there are nearly as many maunds as there are articles to weigh. If we consider the maund as between district and district the state of affairs is worse. Thus in the United Provinces alone, the maund of sugar weighs 48½ seers in Cawnpore, 40 lb. in Muttra, 72½ in Gorakhpur, 40 in Agra, 50 in Moradabad, 48½ in Saharanpur, 50 in Bareilly, 46 in Fyzabad, 48½ in Shahjehanpur, 51 in Gorhanganje. The maund

varies throughout all India from the Bengal or railway maund of 82.27 lbs. to the Factory maund of 74 lbs 10 oz 11 drs, the Bombay maund of 28 lbs., which apparently answers to the Forest Department maund in use at the Fuel Depot, and the Madras maund, which some authorities estimate at 25 lbs and others at 24 lbs and so on

Committees of Inquiry—These are merely typical instances which are multiplied indefinitely. There are variations of every detail of weights and measures in every part of India. The losses to trade arising from the confusion and the trouble which this state of things causes are heavy. Municipal and commercial bodies are continually returning to the problem with a view to devising a practical scheme of reform. The Supreme and Provincial Governments have made various attempts during 40 years past to solve the problem of universal units of weights and measures and commerce and trade have agitated about the question for the past century. The Indian railways and Government departments adopted a standard tola (180 grains), seer (80 tolas) and maund (40 seers) and it was hoped that this would act as a successful 'lead' which would gradually be followed by trade throughout the empire, but the expectation has not been realised.

The Government of India considered the whole question in consultation with the provincial Governments in 1890-1894 and various special steps have at different times been taken in different parts of India. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee in 1911 to make proposals for reform for the Bombay Presidency. Their final report has not been published, but they presented in 1912 an *ad interim* report which has been issued for public discussion. In brief it points out the practical impossibility of proceeding by compulsory measures affecting the whole of India. The Committee stated that over the greater part of the Bombay Presidency a standard of weights and measures would be heartily welcome by the people. They thought that legislation compulsorily applied over large areas subject to many diverse conditions of trade and social life would not result in bringing about the desired reform so successfully as a 'lead' supplied by local legislation based on practical experience. The want of coherence *savoir faire* or the means of co-operation among the people at large pointed to this conclusion. The Committee pointed out that a good example of the results that will follow a good lead is apparent in the East Khandesh District of the Presidency where the District Officer Mr. Simcox, gradually, during the course of three years, induced the people to adopt throughout the district uniform weights and measures, the unit of weight in this case being a tola of 180 grains. But the committee abstained from recommending that the same weights and measures should be adopted over the whole Presidency, preferring that a new system started in any area should be as nearly as possible similar to the best system already prevailing there.

Committee of 1913.—The whole problem was again brought under special consideration by the Government of India in October, 1913,

when the following committee was appointed to inquire into the entire subject anew —

Mr C A Stibbard (President)
Mr A Y G Campbell
Mr Rustonji Fardoonji

This Committee reported in August 1915 in favour of a uniform system of weights to be adopted in India based on the 180 grain tola. The report says —Of all such systems there is no doubt that the most widespread and best known is that known as the Bengal or Indian Railway weights. The introduction of this system involves a more or less considerable change of system in parts of the United Provinces (Gorakhpur, Bareilly and neighbouring areas) practically the whole of Madras, parts of the Punjab (rural portions of Amritsar and neighbouring districts), of Bombay (South Bombay Bombay city and Gujarat) and the North West Frontier Province. Burma has at present a separate system of its own which the committee think it should be permitted to retain. The systems recommended are —

FOR INDIA

8 khaakhias	= 1 chawal
8 chawals	= 1 rattl
8 rattls	= 1 masha
12 mashes or 4 tanks	= 1 tola
5 tolas	= 1 chatak
16 chataks	= 1 seer
40 seers	= 1 maund

FOR BURMA

2 small ywars	= 1 large ywar
4 large ywars	= 1 pe
2 pes	= 1 mu
5 pes or 2½ mus	= 1 mat
1 mat	= 1 ngamu
2 ngamuts	= 1 sikai
100 sikais	= 1 pelikha or vim

The tola is the tola of 180 grains, equal to the rupee weight. The visa has recently been fixed at 3.60 lbs or 140 tolas.

Government Action.—The Government of India at first approved the principles of the Report and left the Provincial Governments to take action, but they passed more detailed orders in January, 1922. In these they again, for the present and subject to the restrictions imposed by the Government of India Act and the devolution rules, left it entirely to local Governments to take such action as they think advisable to standardise dry and liquid measures of capacity within their provinces. Similarly, they announced their decision not to adopt all Indian standards of length or area.

As regards weights they decided in favour of the standard mentioned under the heading 'Weights', near the commencement of this article this having been recommended by a majority of the Weights and Measures Committee and having received the unanimous support of the Local Governments. At the same time they provisionally undertook to assist provincial legislation or standardisation and stated that if subsequently, opinion develops strongly in favour of the Imperial standardisation of weights, the Government of India will be prepared to undertake such legislation, but at present they consider that any such step would be premature.

The History of India in Outline.

No history of India can be proportionate and the briefest summary must suffer from the same defect. Even a wholesale acceptance of a history of mythology, tradition, and folklore will not make good, though it makes plausible, the many gaps that exist in the early history of India and, though the labours of modern geographers and archaeologists have been amazingly fruitful, it cannot be expected that these gaps will ever be filled to any appreciable extent. Approximate accuracy in chronology and an outline of dynastic facts are all that the student can look for up to the time of Alexander, though the briefest excursion into the by-ways of history will reveal to him many alluring and mysterious fields for speculation. There are, for example, to this day castes that believe they sprang originally from the loins of a being who landed 'from an impossible boat on the shores of a highly improbable sea', and the great epic poems contain plentiful statements equally difficult of reconciliation with modern notions of history as a science. But from the Jataka stories and the Puranas, much valuable information is to be obtained, and, for the benefit of those unable to go to these and other original sources, it has been distilled by a number of writers.

The orthodox Hindu begins the political history of India more than 3,000 years before Christ, with the war waged on the banks of the Jumna between the sons of Kuru and the sons of Pandu. Recent excavations by the Archaeological Department in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab, but more particularly at Mohenjodaro in Sind, carry us back even further. They have uncovered sites of cities bearing the marks and containing the relics of a high civilisation stated by the Department to be Sumerian. The excavations are proceeding under special direction and have excited the greatest interest in scientific circles throughout the world, but the general critic omits several of those remote centuries and takes 600 B.C. or thereabouts as his starting point. At that time much of the country was covered with forest but the Aryan race, who had entered India from the north, had established in parts a form of civilisation far superior to that of the aboriginal savages and to this day there survive cities, like Benares, founded by those invaders in like manner the Dravidian invaders from an unknown land, who overran the Deccan and the Southern part of the Peninsula, crushed the aborigines, and at a much later period, were themselves subdued by the Aryans. Of these two civilising forces, the Aryan is the better known, and of the Aryan kingdoms the first of which there is authentic record is that of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. It was in, or near, this powerful kingdom that Jainism and Buddhism had their origin, and the fifth King of Magadha, Bimbisara by name, was the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha. The King mentioned was a contemporary of Darius, autocrat of Persia (521 to 485 B.C.) who annexed the Indus valley and formed from his conquest an Indian satrapy which paid as tribute the equivalent of about one million sterling. Detailed history, however, does not become possible until the invasion of Alexander in 326 B.C.

Alexander the Great

That great soldier had crossed the Hindu Kush in the previous year and had captured Aornos,

on the Upper Indus. In the spring of 326 he crossed the river at Ohind, received the submission of the King of Taxila, and marched against Porus who ruled the fertile country between the rivers Hydaspes (Jhelum) and Acesines (Chenab). The Macedonian carried all before him, defeating Porus at the battle of the Hydaspes, and crossing the Chenab and Ravi. But at the River Hyphasis (Bias) his weary troops mutinied, and Alexander was forced to turn back and retire to the Jhelum where a fleet to sail down the river to the sea was nearly ready. The wonderful story of Alexander's march through Mekan and Persia to Babylon, and of the voyage of Nearebus up the Persian Gulf is the climax to the narrative of the invasion but is not part of the history of India. Alexander had stayed nineteen months in India and left behind him officers to carry on the Government of the kingdoms he had conquered, but his death at Babylon, in 323, destroyed the fruits of what has to be regarded as nothing but a brilliant raid, and within two years his successors were obliged to leave the Indian provinces, heavily scarred by war but not hellenized.

The leader of the revolt against Alexander's generals was a young Hindu, Chandragupta, who was an illegitimate member of the Royal Family of Magadha. He dethroned the ruler of that kingdom, and became so powerful that he is said to have been able to place 800,000 troops in the field against Seleucus, to whom Babylon had passed on the death of Alexander. This was too formidable an opposition to be faced, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the Syrian and Indian monarchs which left the latter the first paramount Sovereign of India (321 B.C.) with his capital at Pataliputra, the modern Patna and Bankipore. Of Chandragupta's court and administration a very full account is preserved in the fragments that remain of the history compiled by Megasthenes, the ambassador sent to India by Seleucus. His memorable reign ended in 297 B.C. when he was succeeded by his son Bindusara, who in his turn was succeeded by Asoka (269—231 B.C.) who recorded the events of his reign in numerous inscriptions. This king, in an unusually bloody war, added to his dominions the kingdom of Kalinga (the Northern Orissa) and then becoming a convert to Buddhism, resolved for the future to abstain from conquest by force of arms. The consequences of the conversion of Asoka were amazing. He was not intolerant of other religions, and did not endeavour to force his creed on his children. But he initiated measures for the propagation of his doctrine with the result that "Buddhism, which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the greatest religions of the world—the greatest, probably, it measured by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered; this is it which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but in that of the world." The wording of his edicts reveal him as a great king as well as a great missionary, and it is to be hoped that the excavations now being carried on in the ruins of his palaces may throw yet more light on his character and times. On his death the Maurya kingdom fell to pieces. Even during his

reign there had been signs of new forces at work on the borderland of India, where the independent kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia had been formed, and subsequent to it there were frequent Greek raids into India. The Greeks in Bactria, however, could not withstand the overwhelming force of the westward migration of the Yueh-chi horde, which, in the first century A.D., also ousted the Indo-Parthian kings from Afghanistan and North Western India.

The first of these Yueh-chi kings to annex a part of India was Kadphises II (A.D. 85-125), who had been defeated in a war with China, but crossed the Indus and consolidated his power eastward as far as Benares. His son Kanishka (whose date is much disputed) left a name which to Buddhists stands second only to that of Asoka. He greatly extended the boundaries of his empire in the North, and made Peshawar his capital. Under him the power of the Kushan clan of the Yueh-chi reached its zenith and did not begin to decay until the end of the second century concurrently with the rise in middle India of the Andhra dynasty which constructed the Amaravati stupa, 'one of the most elaborate and precious monuments of piety ever raised by man'.

The Gupta Dynasty

Early in the fourth century there arose, at Pataliputra, the Gupta dynasty which proved of great importance. Its founder was a local chief, his son Samudragupta, who ruled for some fifty years from A.D. 320, was a king of the greatest distinction. His aim of subduing all India was not indeed fulfilled but he was able to exact tribute from the kingdoms of the South and even from Ceylon, and, in addition to being a warrior, he was a patron of the arts and of Sanskrit literature. The rule of his son, Chandragupta, was equally distinguished and is commemorated in an inscription on the famous iron pillar near Delhi, as well as in the writings of the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien who pays a great tribute to the equitable administration of the country. It was not until the middle of the fifth century that the fortunes of the Gupta dynasty began to wane—in face of the onset of the White Huns from Central Asia—and by 450 the dynasty had disappeared. The following century all over India was one of great confusion, apparently marked only by the rise and fall of petty kingdoms, until a monarch arose, in A.D. 606 capable of consolidating an Empire. This was the Emperor Harsha who, from Thanagar near Ambala, conquered Northern India and extended his territory South to the Nerbudda. Imitating Asoka in many ways, this Emperor yet "felt no embarrassment in paying adoration in turn to Shiva, the Sun, and Buddha at a great public ceremonial." Of his times a graphic picture has been handed down in the work of a Chinese "Master of the Law," Hsien Tsang by name. Harsha was the last native paramount sovereign of Northern India on his death in 648 his throne was usurped by a Minister, whose treacherous conduct towards an embassy from China was quickly avenged and the kingdom so laboriously established lapsed into a state of internecine strife which lasted for a century and a half.

The Andhras and Rajputs

In the meantime in Southern India the Andhras had attained to great prosperity and

carried on a considerable trade with Greece, Egypt and Rome, as well as with the East. Their domination ended in the fifth century A.D. and a number of new dynasties of which the Pallavas were the most important, began to appear. The Pallavas made way in turn for the Chalukyas, who for two centuries remained the most important Deccan dynasty, one branch uniting with the Cholas. But the fortunes of the Southern dynasties are so involved, and in many cases so little known, that to recount them briefly is impossible. Few names of note stand out from the record except those of Vikramaditya (11th century) and a few of the later Hindu rulers who made a stand against the growing power of Islam, of the rise of which an account is given below. In fact the history of medieval India is singularly devoid of unity. Northern India was in a state of chaos from about 650 to 950 A.D. not unlike that which prevailed in Europe of that time, and materials for the history of these centuries are very scanty. In the absence of any powerful rulers the jungle began to gain back what had been wrested from it; ancient capitals fell into ruins from which in some cases they have not even yet been disturbed, and the aborigines and various foreign tribes began to assert themselves so successfully that the Aryan element was chiefly confined to the Doab and the Eastern Punjab. It is not therefore so much for the political as for the religious and social history of this anarchical period that one must look. And the greatest event of the middle ages was the transition from tribe to caste, the final disappearance of the old four fold division of Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and the formation of the new division of pure and impure largely resting upon a classification of occupations. But this social change was only a part of the development of the Hindu religion into a form which would include in its embrace the many barbarians and foreigners in the country who were outside it. The great political event of the period was the rise of the Rajputs as warriors in the place of the Kshatriyas. Their origin is obscure but they appeared in the 8th century and spread, from their two original homes in Rajasthan and Oudh, into the Punjab, Kashmir, and the Central Himalayas, assimilating a number of fighting clans and binding them together with a common code. At this time Kashmir was a small kingdom which exercised an influence on India wholly disproportionate to its size. The only other kingdom of importance was that of Kanauj—in the Doab and Southern Oudh—which still retained some of the power to which it had reached in the days of Harsha, and of which the renown extended to China and Arabia.

With the end of the period of anarchy, the political history of India centres round the Rajputs. One clan founded the kingdom of Gujarat, another held Malwa, another (the Chauhans) founded a kingdom of which Ajmer was the capital, and so on. Kanauj fell into the hands of the Rashtrah (circa 1040 A.D.) and the dynasty then founded by that branch of the Gaharwars of Benares became one of the most famous in India. Later in the same century the Chauhans were united, and by

1193 one of them could boast that he had conquered all the country from the Vindhya to the Himalayas, including Delhi already a fortress a hundred years old. The son of this conqueror was Prithwi Raj the champion of the Hindus against the Mahomedans. With his death in battle (1192) ends the golden age of the new civilisation that had been evolved out of chaos, and of the greatness of that age there is a splendid memorial in the temples and forts of the Rajput states and in the two great philosophical systems of Sankaracharya (ninth century) and Ramanuja (twelfth century). The triumph of Hinduism had been achieved, it must be added, at the expense of Buddhism, which survived only in Magadha at the time of the Mahomedan conquest and speedily disappeared there before the new faith

was of comparative unimportance though some great men appeared among them. In Gujarat, for example, Ahmad Shah, the founder of Ahmedabad, showed himself a good ruler and builder as well as a good soldier, though his grandson, Mahmud Shah Begara, was a greater ruler—acquiring fame at sea as well as on land. In the South various kings of the Bahamani dynasty made names for themselves especially in the long wars they waged on the new Hindu kingdom that had arisen which had its capital at Vijayanagar. Of importance also was Adil Khan, a Turk who founded (1490) the Bijapur dynasty of Adil Shahs. It was one of his successors who crushed the Vijayanagar dynasty, and built the great mosque for which Bijapur is famous.

Mahomedan India

The wave of Mahomedan invaders that eventually swept over the country first touched India, in 8m, less than a hundred years after the death of the Prophet in 632. But the first real contact was in the tenth century when a Turkish slave of a Persian ruler founded a kingdom at Ghazni, between Kabul and Kandahar. A descendant of his Mahmud (987-1030) made repeated raids into the heart of India, capturing places so far apart as Multan, Kanauj, Gwalior and Somnath in Kathiawar, but permanently occupying only a part of the Punjab. During Mahomedan rule was not established until the end of the twelfth century, by which time, from the little territory of Ghazni, there had arisen one Mahomed Ghori capable of carving out a kingdom stretching from Peshawar to the Bay of Bengal. Prithwi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer, made a brave stand against, and once defeated, one of the armies of this ruler, but was himself defeated in the following year. Mahomed Ghori was murdered at Lahore (1206) and his vast kingdom, which had been governed by satraps, was split up into what were practically independent sovereignties. Of these satraps, Qutb-ud-din, the slave ruler of Delhi and Lahore, was the most famous, and is remembered by the great mosque he built near the modern Delhi. Between his rule and that of the Mughals, which began in 1526, only a few of the many Kings who governed and fought and built beautiful buildings, stand out with distinction. One of these was Ala-ud-din (1206-1310), whose many expeditions to the south much weakened the Hindu Kings, and who proved himself to be a capable administrator. Another was Firoz Shah, of the house of Tughlak, whose administration was in many respects admirable, but which ended, on his abdication, in confusion. In the reign of his successor, Mahmud (1398-1413), the kingdom of Delhi went to pieces and India was for seven months at the mercy of the Turkish conqueror Taimur. It was the end of the fifteenth century before the kingdom, under Sikandar Lodi, began to recover. His son, Ibrahim, still further extended the kingdom that had been recovered, but was defeated by Babur, King of Kabul, at Panipat, near Delhi, in 1526, and there was then established in India the Mughal dynasty.

The Mahomedan dynasties that had ruled in capital other than Delhi up to this date

The Mughal Empire

As one draws near to modern times it becomes impossible to present anything like a coherent and consecutive account of the growth of India as a whole. Detached threads in the story have to be picked up one by one and followed to their ending, and although the sixteenth century saw the first European settlements in India, it will be convenient here to continue the narrative of Mahomedan India almost to the end of the Mughal Empire. How Babur gained Delhi has already been told. His son Humayun, greatly extended his kingdom, but was eventually defeated (1540) and driven into exile by Sher Khan an Afghan of great capabilities whose short reign ended in 1545. The Sur dynasty thus founded by Sher Khan lasted another ten years when Humayun having snatched Kabul from one of his brothers, was strong enough to win back part of his old kingdom. When Humayun died (1556) his eldest son, Akbar, was only 13 years old and was confronted by many rivals. Nor was Akbar well served, but his career of conquest was almost uninterrupted and by 1594 the whole of India North of the Nerbudda had bowed to his authority, and he subsequently entered the Deccan and captured Ahmednagar. His great ruler who was as remarkable for his religious tolerance as for his military prowess, died in 1605, leaving behind him a record that has been surpassed by few. His son Jehangir, who married the Persian lady Nur Jahan, ruled until 1627, bequeathing to an admiring posterity some notable buildings—the tomb of his father at Sikandra, part of the palace of Agra, and the palace and fortress of Lahore. His son, Shahjahan, was for many years occupied with wars in the Deccan, but found time to make his court of incredible magnificence and to build the most famous and beautiful of all tombs, the Taj Mahal, as well as the fort, palace and Juma Masjid at Delhi. The quarrels of his sons led to the deposition of Shahjahan by one of them, Aurangzeb, in 1687. This Emperor's rule was one of constant intrigue and fighting in every direction, the most important of his wars being a twenty five years struggle against the Marathas of Bivaji, became a very powerful faction in Indian politics. His bigoted attitude towards Hinduism made Aurangzeb the more anxious to establish his Empire on a firm basis in the south, but he was unable to hold his many conquests, and on his death (1707) the

Empire, for which his three sons were fighting could not be held together. Internal disorder and Maratha encroachments continued during the reigns of his successors, and in 1782 a fresh danger appeared in the person of Nadir Shah, the Persian conqueror, who carried all before him. On his withdrawal, leaving Mahomed Shah on the throne, the old intrigues recommenced and the Marathas began to make the most of the opportunity offered to them by puppet rulers at Delhi and by almost universal discord throughout what had been the Mughal Empire. There is little to add to the history of Mahomedan India. Emperors continued to reign in name at Delhi up to the middle of the 19th century, but their territory and power had long since disappeared, being swallowed up either by the Marathas or by the British.

European Settlements

The voyage of Vasco da Gama to India in 1498 was what turned the thoughts of the Portuguese to the formation of a great Empire in the East. That idea was soon realized, for from 1500 onwards, constant expeditions were sent to India and the first two Viceroyalties in India—Almeida and Albuquerque—laid the foundations of a great Empire and of a great trade monopoly. Goa taken in 1510, became the capital of Portuguese India and remains to this day in the hands of its captors, and the countless ruins of churches and forts on the shores of Western India as also farther East at Malacca, testify to the zeal with which the Portuguese endeavoured to propagate their religion and to the care they took to defend their settlements. There were great soldiers and great missionaries among them—Albuquerque da Cunha, da Castro in the former class, St. Francis Xavier in the latter. But the glory of Empire loses something of its lustre when it has to be paid for, and the constant drain of men and money from Portugal, necessitated by the attacks made on their possessions in India and Malaya, was found almost intolerable. The junction of Portugal with Spain which lasted from 1580 to 1640 also tended to the downfall of the Eastern Empire and when Portugal became independent again, it was unequal to the task of competing in the East with the Dutch and English. The Dutch had little difficulty in wresting the greater part of their territory from the Portuguese, but the seventeenth century naval wars with England forced them to relax their hold upon the coast of India, and during the French wars between 1795 and 1811 England took all Holland's Eastern possessions, and the Dutch have left in India but few traces of their civilization and of the once powerful East India Company of the Netherlands.

The first English attempts to reach India date from 1498 when Cabot tried to find the North-West passage, and these attempts were repeated all through the sixteenth century. The first Englishman to land in India is said to have been one Thomas Stephens (1579) who was followed by a number of merchant adventurers, but trade between the two countries really dates from 1600 when Elizabeth incorporated the East India Company which had been formed in London. Factories in India were founded only after Portuguese and Dutch position had been overcome, notably in the

sea fight off Swally (Suvali) in 1612. The first factory, at Surat, was for many years the most important English foothold in the East. Its establishment was followed by others, including Fort St. George, Madras, (1640) and Hughli (1651). In the history of these early years of British enterprise in India the cession of Bombay (1661) as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza stands out as a landmark. It also illustrates the weakness of the Portuguese at that date, since in return the King of England undertook to protect the Portuguese in India against their foes—the Marathas and the Dutch. Cromwell, by his treaty of 1654, had already obtained from the Portuguese an acknowledgment of England's right to trade in the East, and that right was now threatened not by the Portuguese, but by Shivaji and by the general disorder prevalent in India. Accordingly in 1686, the Company turned its attention to acquiring territorial power, and announced its intention to establish such a policy of civil and military power and create and secure such a large revenue as may be the foundation of a large, well-grounded, sure English dominion in India for all time to come. Not much came of this announcement for some time, and no stand could be made in Bengal against the depredations of Aurangzeb. The foundations of Calcutta (1690) could not be laid by Job Charnock until after a tumultuous peace had been concluded with the Emperor and, owing to the difficulties in which the Company found itself in England, there was little chance of any immediate change for the better. The union of the old East India Company with the new one which had been formed in rivalry to it took place in 1708, and for some years peaceful development followed, though Bombay was always exposed by sea to attacks from the pirates, who had many strongholds within easy reach of that port, and on land to attacks from the Marathas. The latter danger was felt also in Calcutta. Internal dangers were numerous and still more to be feared. More than one mutiny took place among the troops sent out from England, and rebellions like that led by Kelgwin in Bombay threatened to stifle the infant settlements. The public health was bad and the rate of mortality was at times appalling. To cope with such conditions strong men were needed, and the Company was in this respect peculiarly fortunate, the long list of its servants, from Oxenden and Aungler to Hastings and Raffles, contains many names of men who proved themselves good rulers and far-sighted statesmen, the finest Empire-builders the world has known.

Attempts to compete with the English were made of course. But the schemes of the Emperor Charles VI to secure a share of the Indian trade were not much more successful than those made by Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. By the French, who founded Pondicherry and Chandernagore towards the end of the 17th century, much more was achieved, as will be seen from the following outline of the development of British rule.

The French Wars

When war broke out between England and France in 1744, the French had acquired a

strong position in Southern India, which had become independent of Delhi and was divided into three large States—Hyderabad, Tanjore, and Mysore—and a number of petty states under local chieftains. In the affairs of these States Duplex, when Governor of Pondicherry, had intervened with success, and when Madras was captured by a French squadron under La Bourdonnais (1746) Duplex wished to hand it over to the Nawab of Arcot—a deputy of the Nizam who ruled in the Carnatic. The French however, kept Madras, repelling an attack by the disappointed Nawab as well as the British attempts to recapture it. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the English. The fighting had shown the Indian powers the value of European troops, and this was again shown in the next French war (1750-54) when Clive achieved enduring fame by his capture and subsequent defence of Arcot. This war arose from Duplex supporting candidates for the disputed successions at Arcot and Hyderabad while the English at Madras put forward their own nominees. One of Duplex's officers, the Marquis de Bussy, persuaded the Nizam to take into his pay the army which had established his power, and in return the Northern Circars, between Orissa and Madras, was granted to the French. This territory, however, was captured by the English in the seven years war (1756-63) Duplex had by then been recalled to France. Lally, who had been sent to drive the English out of India, captured Fort St. David and invested Madras. But the victory which Colonel (Sir Eyre) Coote won at Wandiwash (1760) and the surrender of Pondicherry and Gingee put an end to the French ambitions of Empire in Southern India. Pondicherry passed more than once from the one nation to the other before settling down to its present existence as a French colony in miniature.

Battle of Plassey

While the English were fighting the third French war in the South they became involved in grave difficulties in Bengal, where Siraj-ud-Daula had acceded to power. The head quarters of the English at Calcutta were threatened by that ruler who demanded they should surrender a refugee and should cease building fortifications. They refused and he marched against them with a large army. Some of the English took to their ships and made off down the river, the rest surrendered and were cast into the jail known as the "Black Hole." From this small and stifling room 22 persons, out of 146, came out alive the next day. Clive who was at Madras, immediately sailed for Calcutta with Admiral Watson's squadron, recaptured the town (1757), and, as war with the French had been proclaimed, proceeded to take Chandernagore. The Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula then took the side of the French, and Clive, putting forward Mir Jafar as candidate for the Nawab's throne, marched out with an army consisting of 900 Europeans, 1,000 sepoyas and a piece of artillery against the Nawab's host of over 50,000. The result was the historic battle of Plassey (June 23) in which Clive, after beating on the course to be pursued, routed the Nawab. Mir Jafar was put on the throne

at Murshidabad, and the price of this honour was put at \$2,540,000 in addition to the grant to the Company of the land round Calcutta now known as the District of the twenty four Parganas. In the year after Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of Bengal and in that capacity sent troops against the French in Madras and in person led a force against the Oudh army that was threatening Mir Jafar, in each case with success. From 1760 to 1765 Clive was in England. During his absence the Council at Calcutta deposed Mir Jafar and, for a price, put Mir Kasim in his place. This ruler moved his capital to Monghyr, organised an army, and began to intrigue with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. He soon found, in a dispute over customs dues, an opportunity of quarrelling with the English and the first shots fired by his followers were the signal for a general rising in Bengal. About 800 Englishmen and a number of sepoyas were massacred, but his trained regiments were defeated at Gheria and Oodeypullah, and Mir Kasim sought protection from the Nawab of Oudh. But in 1764 after quelling a sepoy mutiny in his own camp by blowing 25 ring leaders from the guns, Major (Sir Hector) Munro defeated the joint forces of Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor, and the Nawab of Oudh in the battle of Buxar. In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned as Governor. "Two landmarks stand out in his policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and by guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But our efforts towards a sound administration date from this second Governorship of Clive, as our military supremacy dates from his victory at Plassey." Before Clive left India, in 1767 he had readjusted the divisions of Northern India and had set up a system of Government in Bengal by which the English received the revenues and maintained the army while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. The performance of his second task, the purification of the Company's service, was hotly opposed but carried out. He died in 1774 by his own hand, the House of Commons having in the previous year censured him, though admitting that he did render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Warren Hastings.

The dual system of government that Clive had set up proved a failure and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, in 1772, to carry out the reforms settled by the Court of Directors which were to give them the entire care and administration of the revenues. Thus Hastings had to undertake the administrative organization of India, and, in spite of the factious attitude of Philip Francis, with whom he fought a duel and of other members of his Council, he reorganised the civil service, reformed the system of revenue collection, greatly improved the financial position of the Company, and created courts of justice and some semblance of a police force. From 1772 to 1774 he was Governor of Bengal, and from 1774 to 1775

he was the first Governor-General, nominated under an Act of Parliament passed in the previous year. His financial reforms, and the forced contributions he enacted from the rebellious Chet Singh and the Begam of Oudh, were interpreted in England as acts of oppression and formed, together with his action in the trial of Nizamkar for forgery the basis of his seven years' trial before the House of Lords which ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. But there is much more for which his administration is justly famous. The recovery of the Marathas from their defeat at Panipat was the cardinal factor that influenced his policy towards the native states. One frontier was closed against Maratha invasion by the loan of a British brigade to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, for his war against the Rohillas, who were intriguing with the Marathas. In Western India he found himself committed to the two Maratha wars (1775-82) owing to the ambition of the Bombay Government to place its own nominee on the throne of the Peshwa at Poona, and the Bengal troops that he sent over made amends, by the conquest of Gujarat and the capture of Gwalior, for the disgrace of Wadgaon where the Marathas overpowered a Bombay army. In the South—where interference from Madras had already led (1769) to what is known as the first Mysore war, a disastrous campaign against Hyder Ali and the Nizam—he found the Madras Government again in conflict with those two potentates. The Nizam he won over by diplomacy, but against Hyder Ali he had to despatch a Bengal army under Sir Byre Coote. Hyder Ali died in 1782 and two years later a treaty was made with his son Tipu. It was in these acts of intervention in distant provinces that Hastings showed to best advantage as a great and courageous man, cautious, but swift in action when required. He was succeeded, after an interregnum, by Lord Cornwallis (1786-93) who built on the foundations of civil administration laid by Hastings, by entrusting criminal jurisdiction to Europeans and establishing an Appellate Court of Criminal Jurisdiction at Calcutta. In the Civil Service he separated the functions of the District Collector and Judge and organized the writers and "merchants" of the Company into an administrative Civil Service. This system was subsequently extended to Madras and Bombay. Lord Cornwallis is better known for his introduction, on orders from England, of the Permanent Settlement in Bengal (See article on Land Revenue). A third Mysore war was waged during his tenure of office which ended in the submission of Tipu Sultan. Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), an experienced Civil Servant, succeeded Lord Cornwallis, and in 1798, was followed by Lord Wellesley, the friend of Pitt, whose projects were to change the map of India.

Lord Wellesley's Policy

The French in general, and the Corsican in particular, were the enemy most to be dreaded for a few years before Lord Wellesley took up his duties in India, and he formed the scheme of definitively ending French schemes in Asia by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. He started by obtaining from the Nawab of Oudh the cession of

large tracts of territory in lieu of payment overdue on subsidies for British troops, he then won over the Nizam to the British side, and, after exposing the intrigues of Tipu Sultan with the French, embarked on the fourth Mysore war which ended (1799) in the fall of Seringapatam and the gallant death of Tipu. Part of Mysore the Carnatic, and Tanjore roughly constituting the Madras Presidency of to-day then passed to British rule. The five Maratha powers—the Peshwa of Poona, the Gaekwar of Baroda, Sindhis of Gwalior, Holkar of Indore and the Raja of Nagpur—had still to be brought into the British net. The Peshwa, after being defeated by Holkar fled to British territory and signed the Treaty of Basen which led to the third Maratha war (1802-04) as it was regarded by Sindhis and the Raja of Nagpur at a betrayal of Maratha independence. In this the most successful of British campaigns in India, Sir Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington) and General (Lord) Lake carried all before them the one by his victories of Assaye and Argaum and the other at Aligar and Laswari. Later operations such as Colonel Monson's retreat through Central India were less fortunate. The great acquisitions of territory made under Lord Wellesley proved so expensive that the Court of Directors, becoming impatient, sent out Lord Cornwallis a second time to make peace at any price. He, however, died soon after his arrival in India, and Sir George Barlow carried the government (1805-7) until the arrival of a stronger ruler, Lord Minto. He managed to keep the peace in India for six years and to add to British dominions by the conquest of Java and Mauritius. His foreign policy was marked by another new departure inasmuch as he opened relations with the Punjab, Persia, and Afghanistan, and concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh, at Lahore, which made that Sikh ruler the loyal ally of the British for life.

The successor of Lord Minto was Lord Melira, who found himself obliged almost at once to declare war on the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on British territory. After initial reverses, the English, under General Ochterlony, were successful and the Treaty of Sagauli (1816) was drawn up which closed British relations with Nepal to the present day. For this success Lord Melira was made Marquis of Hastings. In the same year he made preparations for the last Maratha war (1817-18) which was made necessary by the lawless conduct of the Pindaris, gangs of Pathan or Rohilla origin, whose chief patrons were the rulers of Native States. The large number of 120,000 that he collected for this purpose destroyed the Pindaris, annexed the dominions of the rebellious Peshwa of Poona, protected the Rajput States, made Sindhis enter upon a new treaty, and compelled Holkar to give up part of his territory. Thus Lord Hastings established the British power more firmly than ever, and when he resigned, in 1823, all the Native States outside the Punjab had become parts of the political system and British interests were permanently secured from the Persian Gulf to Singapore. Lord Amherst followed Lord Hastings, and his five years' rule (1823-28) are memorable for the first Burmese war and the capture of Bhamatpur. The former opera-

tion was undertaken owing to the insolent demands and raids of the Burmese, and resulted in the Burmese ceding Assam, Aracan and the coast of Marahan and their claims to the lower provinces. The capture of Rharatpur by Lord Combermere (1826) wiped out the repulse which General Lake had received there twenty years earlier. A disputed succession on this occasion led to the British intervention.

Social Reform

A former Governor of Madras, Lord William Bentinck, was the next Governor-General. His epitaph by Macaulay says: "He abolished cruel rites, he effaced humiliating distinctions, he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion, his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nations committed to his charge."

Some of his financial reforms, forced on him from England, and his widening of the gates by which educated Indians could enter the service of the Company, were most unpopular at the time, but were eclipsed by the acts he took for the abolition of *sati* or widow burning, and the suppression—with the help of Captain Sleeman—of the professional hereditary assassins known as *Thugs*. In 1832 he annexed Cocher, and, two years later, Coorg. The incompetence of the ruler of Mysore forced him to take that State also under British administration—where it remained until 1881. His rule was marked in other ways by the despatch of the first steamship that made the passage from Bombay to Suez and by his settlement of the long educational controversy in favour of the advocates of instruction in English and the vernaculars. Lord William Bentinck left India (1835) with his programme of reforms unfinished. The new Charter Act of 1833 had brought to a close the commercial business of the Company and emphasized their position as rulers of an Indian Empire in trust for the Crown. By it the whole administration as well as the legislation of the country, was placed in the hands of the Governor-General in Council and authority was given to create a Presidency of Agra. Before his retirement Bentinck assumed the statutory title of Governor-General of India (1834), thus marking the progress of consolidation since Warren Hastings in 1774 became the first Governor-General of Fort William. Sir Charles Metcalfe, being senior member of Council, succeeded Lord William Bentinck, and during his short tenure of office carried into execution his predecessor's measures for giving entire liberty to the press.

Afghan Wars.

With the appointment of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (1836-42) there began a new era of war and conquest. Before leaving London he announced that he looked with exultation to the prospect of "promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good Government and happiness to millions in India," but his administration was almost exclusively comprised in a fatal expedition to Afghanistan, which dragged in its train the annexation of Sind, the Sikh wars, and the incursion of Baluchistan in the protectorate of India. The first Afghan war was undertaken partly to counter the Russian advance

in Central Asia and partly to place on the throne at Kabul the dethroned ruler Shah Shuja in place of Dost Mahomed. The latter object was easily attained (1839) and for two years Afghanistan remained in the military occupation of the British. In 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated in Kabul and Sir William Macnaghten suffered the same fate in an interview with the son of Dost Mahomed, The British Commander in Kabul, Gen. Elphinstone, was old and feeble, and after two months' delay he led his army of 4,500 and 12,000 camp followers back towards India in the depth of winter. Between Kabul and Jallalabad the whole force perished, either at the hands of the Afghans or from cold, and Dr. Brydon was the only survivor who reached the latter city. Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland and was persuaded to send an army of retribution to relieve Jallalabad. One force under Gen. Pollock relieved Jallalabad and marched on Kabul, while Gen. Nott, advancing from Kandahar, captured Ghazni and joined Pollock at Kabul (1842). The bazaar at Kabul was blown up, the prisoners rescued, and the army retraced to India leaving Dost Mahomed to take undisputed possession of his throne. The drama ended with a bombastic proclamation from Lord Ellenborough and the parade through the Punjab of the (spurious) gates of Somnath taken from the tomb of Mahmud of Ghazni.

Sikh Wars

Lord Ellenborough's other wars—the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the suppression of an outbreak in Gwalior—were followed by his recall and the appointment of Sir Henry (1st Lord) Hardinge to be Governor-General. A soldier Governor-General was not unacceptable, for it was felt that a trial of strength was imminent between the British and the remaining Hindu power in India, the Sikhs. Ranjit Singh, the founder of the Sikh Kingdom, had died in 1839, loyal to the end to the treaty he had made with Metcalfe thirty years earlier. He left no son capable of ruling, and the *Khalsa* or central council of the Sikh army, was burning to measure its strength with the British sepoy. The intrigues of two men, Lal Singh and Faj Singh, to obtain the supreme power led to their crossing the Sutlej and invading British territory. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, and the Governor-General hurried to the frontier, and within three weeks four pitched battles were fought—at Mudki, Ferozshah Alwal and Sobraon. The Sikhs were driven across the Sutlej and Lahore surrendered to the British, but the province was not annexed. By the terms of peace the infant Dhillip Singh was recognized as Rajah, Major Henry Lawrence was appointed Resident to assist the Sikh Council of Agency at Lahore, the Jullundur Doab was added to British territory, the Sikh army was limited, and a British force was sent to garrison the Punjab on behalf of the child Rajah. Lord Hardinge returned to England (1848) and was succeeded by Lord Dalhousie, the greatest of Indian proconsuls.

Dalhousie had only been in India a few months when the second Sikh war broke out. In the attack on the Sikh position at Chillianwala the British lost 2,400 officers and men.

besides four guns and the colours of three regiments but before reinforcements could arrive from England, bringing Sir Charles Napier as Commander-in-Chief, Lord Gough had restored his reputation by the victory of Gujrat which absolutely destroyed the Sikh army. As a consequence the Punjab was annexed and became a British province (1849). His pacific policy being so well carried out under the two Lawrences that on the outbreak of the Mutiny eight years later it remained not only quiet but loyal. In 1852 Lord Dalhousie had again to embark on war this time in Burma, owing to the ill treatment of British merchants in Rangoon. The lower valley of the Irrawaddy was occupied from Rangoon to Prome and annexed, under the name of Pegu to those provinces that had been acquired in the first Burmese war. British territories were enlarged in many other directions during Lord Dalhousie's tenure of office. His doctrine of lapse by which British rule was substituted for Indian in States where continued misrule on the failure of a dynasty made this change possible came into practice in the cases of Satara, Jhansd and Nagpur (which last named State became the Central Provinces) where the rulers died without leaving male heirs. Oudh was annexed on account of its misrule. Dalhousie left many other marks on India. He reformed the administration from top to bottom, founded the Public Works Department, initiated the railways, telegraphs and postal system, and completed the great Ganges canal. He also detached the Government of Bengal from the charge of the Governor General and summoned representatives of the local Governments to the deliberations of the Government of India. Finally, in education he laid down the lines of a department of public instruction and initiated more practical measures than those devised by his predecessors. It was his misfortune that the mutiny, which so swiftly followed his resignation, was by many critics in England attributed to his passion for change.

The Sepoy Mutiny

Dalhousie was succeeded by Lord Canning in 1856, and in the following year the sepoys of the Bengal army mutinied and all the valley of the Ganges from Delhi to Patna rose in rebellion. The causes of this convulsion are difficult to estimate, but are probably to be found in the unrest which followed the progress of English civilisation, in the spreading of false rumours that the whole of India was to be subdued, in the confidence the sepoy troops had acquired in themselves under British leadership and in the ambition of the educated classes to take a greater share in the government of the country. Added to this there was in the deposed King of Delhi Bahadur Shah, a centre of growing disaffection. Finally there was the story—not devoid of truth—that the cartridges for the new Enfield rifle were greased with fat that rendered them unclean for both Hindus and Mahomedans. And when the mutiny did break out it found the Army without many of its best officers who were employed in civil work, and the British troops reduced, in spite of Lord Dalhousie's warnings, below the number he considered essential for safety. On May 10

the sepoys at Meerut rose in mutiny, cut down a few Europeans, and, unbecked by the large European garrison, went off to Delhi where next morning the Mahomedans rose. From that centre the mutiny spread through the North Western Provinces and Oudh into Lower Bengal. Ridings in the Punjab were put down by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates who armed the Sikhs and with their help reduced the sepoys, and Lawrence was subsequently able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. The native armies of Madras and Bombay remained for the most part true to their colours. In Central India the contingents of some of the great chiefs joined the rebels, but Hyderabad was kept loyal by the influence of its minister Sir Saifur Jung.

The interest of the war centres round Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow, though in other places massacres and fighting occurred. The siege of Delhi began on June 8 when Sir Henry Barnard occupied the Ridge outside the town. Barnard died of cholera early in July and Thomas Reed, who took his place, was obliged through illness to hand over the command to Archdale Wilson. In August Nicholson arrived with a reinforcement from the Punjab. In the meantime the rebel force in Delhi was constantly added to by the arrival of new bodies of mutineers. Attacks were frequent and the losses heavy, cholera and sunstroke carried off many victims on the Ridge and when the final assault was made in September the Delhi army could only parade 4,720 infantry, of whom 1,960 were Europeans. The arrival of siege guns made it possible to advance the batteries on September 8 and by the 13th a breach was made. On the following day three columns were led to the assault, a fourth being held in reserve. Over the ruins of the Kashmir Gate, blown in by Home and Salkeld, Col Campbell led his men and Nicholson formed up his troops within the walls. By nightfall the British, with a loss of nearly 1,200 killed and wounded, had only secured a foothold in the city. Six days' street fighting followed and Delhi was won but the gallant Nicholson was killed at the head of a storming party. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner, and his two sons were shot by Captain Hudson.

Massacre at Cawnpore

At Cawnpore the sepoys mutinied on June 27 and found in Nana Sahib the heir of the last Peshwa a willing leader in spite of his former professions of loyalty. There a European force of 240 with six guns had to protect 870 non-combatants, and held out for 22 days, rendering only on the guarantee of the Nana that they should have a safe conduct as far as Allahabad. They were embarking on the boats on the Ganges when fire was opened on them the men being shot or hacked to pieces before the eyes of their wives and children and the women being mutilated and murdered in Cawnpore to which place they were taken back. Their bodies were thrown down a well just before Havelock, having defeated the Nana's forces arrived to the relief. In Lucknow a small garrison held out in the Residency from July 2 to September 25 against tremendous odds and enduring the most fearful hardships. The relieving force, under Havelock and Outram, was itself invested, and the garrison was

not finally delivered until Sir Colin Campbell arrived in November. Fighting continued for 18 months in Oudh, which Sir Colin Campbell finally reduced, and in Central India, where Sir Hugh Rose waged a brilliant campaign against the dismembered Rani of Jhansi—who died at the head of her troops—and Tantia Topi.

Transfer to the Crown.

With the end of the mutiny there began a new era in India, strikingly marked at the outset by the Act for the Better Government of India (1858) which transferred the entire administration from the Company to the Crown. By that Act India was to be governed by, and in the name of, the Sovereign through a Secretary of State, assisted by a Council of fifteen members. At the same time the Governor-General received the title of Viceroy. The European troops of the Company, numbering about 24 000 officers and men—greatly resenting the transfer—amalgamated with the Royal service, and the Indian Navy was abolished. On November 1 1858, the Viceroy announced in Durbar at Allahabad that Queen Victoria had assumed the Government of India, and proclaimed a policy of justice and religious toleration. A principle already enunciated in the Charter Act of 1833 was reinforced, and all of every race or creed, were to be admitted as far as possible to those offices in the Queen's service for which they might be qualified. The aim of the Government was to be the benefit of all her subjects in India—"In their prosperity will be our strength, in their contentment our security, and in their gratitude our best reward." Peace was proclaimed in July 1859 and in the cold weather Lord Canning went on tour in the northern provinces to receive the homage of loyal chiefs and to assure them that the 'policy of lapse' was at an end. A number of other important reforms marked the closing years of Canning's Viceroyalty. The India Councils Act (1861) augmented the Governor General's Council, and the Councils of Madras and Bombay by adding non-official members, European and Indian, for legislative purposes only. By another Act of the same year, High Courts of Judicature were constituted to deal with the increased debt of India. Mr James Wilson was sent from England to be Financial Member of Council, and to him are due the customs system, income tax, license duty, and State paper currency. The cares of office had broken down the Viceroy's health. His successor, Lord Elgin, lived only a few months after his arrival in India, and was succeeded by Sir John (afterwards Lord) Lawrence, the "saviour of the Panjab."

Sir John Lawrence.

The chief task that fell to Sir John Lawrence was that of reorganising the Indian military system, and of reconstructing the Indian army. The latter task was carried out on the principle that in the Bengal army the proportion of Europeans to Indians in the infantry and cavalry should be one to two, and in the Madras and Bombay armies one to three. The artillery was to be almost wholly European. The re-organisation was carried out in spite of

financial difficulties and the saddling of Indian revenues with the cost of a war in Abyssinia with which India had no direct concern, but operations in Bhutan were all the drain made on the army in India while the re-organising process was being carried on. Two severe famines—in Orissa (1866) and Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustan (1868-9)—occurred, while Sir John Lawrence was Viceroy, and he laid down the principle for the first time in Indian history, that the officers of the Government would be held personally responsible for taking every possible means to avert death by starvation. He also created the Irrigation Department under Col. (Sir Richard) Strachey. Two commercial crises of the time have to be noted. One seriously threatened the tea industry in Bengal. The other was the consequence of the wild gambling in shares of every description that took place in Bombay during the years of prosperity for the Indian cotton industry caused by the American Civil War. The 'Share Mania' however, did no permanent harm to the trade of Bombay, but was, on the other hand, largely responsible for the series of splendid buildings begun in that city during the Governorship of Sir Bartle Frere. Sir John Lawrence retired in 1869, having passed through every grade of the service from an Assistant Magistracy to the Viceroyalty. Lord Mayo, who succeeded him, created an Agricultural Department and introduced the system of Provincial Finance, thus fostering the impulse to local self-government. He also laid the foundation for the reform of the salt duties, thereby enabling his successors to abolish the inter-provincial customs lines. Unhappily his vast schemes for the development of the country by extending communications of every kind were not carried out to the full by him, for he was murdered in the convict settlement of the Andaman Islands, in 1872. Lord Northbrook (Viceroy 1872-4) had to exercise his abilities chiefly in the province of finance. A severe famine which threatened Lower Bengal in 1874 was successfully warded off by the organisation of State relief and the importation of rice from Burma. The following year was notable for the deposition of the Gaikwar of Baroda for mis-government, and for the tour through India of the Prince of Wales (the late King Edward VII). The visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to India when Lord Mayo was Viceroy had given great pleasure to those with whom he had come in touch and had established a kind of personal link between India and the Crown. The Prince of Wales' tour aroused unprecedented enthusiasm for and loyalty to the British Raj, and further encouragement was given to the growth of this spirit when, in a durbar of great magnificence held on January 1st, 1877, on the famous Ridge at Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. The Viceroy of that time, Lord Lytton, had, however, to deal with a situation of unusual difficulty. Two successive years of drought produced, in 1877-78, the worst famine India had known. The most strenuous exertions were made to mitigate its effects, and eight scores of rupees were spent in importing grain, but the loss of life was estimated at 5½ millions. At this time also Afghan affairs once more became prominent,

Second Afghan War

The Amir Sher Ali, was found to be intriguing with Russia and that fact, coupled with his repulse of a British mission led to the second Afghan War. The British forces advanced by three routes—the Khyber, the Kurram, and the Bolan—and gained all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan. Sher Ali fled and a treaty was made with his son Yakub Khan, which was promptly broken by the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari who had been sent as English envoy to Kabul. Further operations were thus necessary, and Sir F. (now Lord) Roberts advanced on the capital and defeated the Afghans at Charasid. A rising of the tribes followed, in spite of Sir D. Stewart's victory at Ahmed Kheyl and his advance from Kabul to Kandahar. A pretender, Sirdar Ayub Khan, from Herat prevented the establishment of peace, defeated Gen. Burrows' brigade at Maiwand, and invaded Kandahar. He was routed in turn by Sir F. Roberts who made a brilliant march from Kabul to Kandahar. After the British withdrawal fighting continued between Ayub Khan and Abdur Rahman but the latter was left undisputed Amir of Afghanistan until his death in 1901.

In the meantime Lord Lytton had resigned (1880) and Lord Ripon was appointed Viceroy by the new Liberal Government. Lord Ripon's administration is memorable for the freedom given to the Press by the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, for his scheme of local self-government which developed municipal institutions, and for the attempt to extend the jurisdiction of the criminal courts in the Districts over European British subjects, independently of the race or nationality of the presiding judge. This attempt, which created a feeling among Europeans in India of great hostility to the Viceroy, ended in a compromise in 1884. Other reforms were the re-establishment of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, the appointment of an Education Commissioner with a view to the spread of popular instruction on a broader basis, and the abolition by the Finance Minister (Sir Evelyn Baring, now Lord Cromer) of a number of customs duties. Lord Dufferin, who succeeded Lord Ripon in 1884, had to give his attention more to external than internal affairs. One of his first acts was to hold a durbar at Rawalpindi for the reception of the Amir of Afghanistan which resulted in the strengthening of British relations with that ruler. In 1885 a third Burmese war became necessary owing to the truculent attitude of King Thibaw and his intrigues with French Powers. The expedition, under General Prendergast, occupied Mandalay without difficulty and King Thibaw was exiled to Rangoon, where he died on 16th December 1916. His dominions of Upper Burma were annexed to British India on the 1st of January, 1886.

The Russian Menace

Of greater importance at the time were the measures taken to meet a possible, and as it then appeared a probable, attack on India by Russia. These preparations, which cost over two million sterling, were hurried on because of a collision which occurred be-

tween Russian and Afghan troops at Ferozshah, during the demilitarization of the Afghan frontier towards Central Asia, and which seemed likely to lead to a declaration of war by Great Britain. War was averted, but the Ferozshah incident had called attention to a menace that was to be felt for nearly a generation more, it had also served to elicit from the Princes of India an unanimous offer of troops and money in case of need. That offer bore fruit under the next Viceroy, Lord Lansdowne, when the present system of Imperial Service Troops was organized. Under Lord Lansdowne's rule also the defences of the North Western Frontier were strengthened, on the advice of Sir Frederick (now Earl) Roberts who was then Commander-in-Chief in India. Another form of precautionary measure against the continued aggression of Russia was taken by raising the annual subsidy paid by the Indian Government to the Amir from eight to twelve lakhs.

On the North Eastern Frontier there occurred (1891) in the small State of Manipur a revolution against the Raja that necessitated an inquiry on the spot by Mr. Quinlan the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Mr. Quinlan, the commander of his escort, and others, were treacherously murdered in a conference and the escort ignominiously retreated. This disgrace to British arms led to several attacks on frontier outposts which were brilliantly defeated. Manipur was occupied by British troops and the government of the State was reorganized under a Political Agent. Lord Lansdowne's term of office was distinguished by several other events such as the passing of the Parliamentary Act (Lord Cross's Act, 1892), which increased the size of the Legislative Councils as well as the number of non-officials in them; legislation aimed at social and domestic reform among the Hindus; and the closing of the Indian Mints to the free coinage of silver (1893).

Frontier Campaigns

Lord Elgin, who succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894, was confronted at the outset with a deficit of Rs. 2½ crores, due to the fall in exchange. (In 1895 the rupee fell as low as 1s. 1d.) To meet this the old 5 per cent import duties were reimposed on a number of commodities, but not on cotton goods and within the year the duty was extended to piece-goods, but not to yarn. The reorganization of the Army which involved the abolition of the old system of Presidency Armies, had hardly been carried out when a number of risings occurred along the North-West Frontier. In 1895 the British Agent in Chitral—which had come under British influence two years previously when Sir H. M. Durand had demarcated the southern and eastern boundaries of Afghanistan—was besieged and had to be rescued by an expeditionary force. Two years later the Wazirs, Swatis, and Mohmands attacked the British positions in Malakand, and the Afridis closed the Khyber Pass. Peace was only established after a prolonged campaign (the Tirah campaign) in which 40,000 troops were employed, and over 1,000 officers and men had been lost. This was in itself a heavy burden on the finances of India, which was increased by the serious and widespread

famine of 1896-97 and by the appearance in India of bubonic plague. The methods taken to prevent the spread of that disease led, in Bombay, to rioting, and elsewhere to the appearance in the vernacular press of scurrilous articles which made it necessary to make more stringent the law dealing with such writings.

Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty

With famine and plague Lord Curzon also who succeeded Lord Elgin in 1899, had to deal in 1901 the cycle of bad harvests came to an end, but plague increased and in 1904 deaths from it were returned at over one million. Of the many problems to which Lord Curzon directed his attention, only a few can be mentioned here. Some indeed claim that his greatest work in India was not to be found in any one department but was in fact the general gearing up of the administration which he achieved by his unceasing energy and personal example of strenuous work. He had at once to turn his attention to the North West Frontier. The British garrisons beyond our bona fide were gradually withdrawn and replaced by tribal levies, and British forces were concentrated in British territory behind them as a support. An attempt was made to check the arms traffic and work on strategic railways was pushed forward. The fact that in seven years he only spent a quarter of a million upon repressive measures and only found it necessary to institute one blockade (against the Mahsud Waziris) is the justification of this policy of compromise between the Lawrences and Forward schools of thought. In 1901 the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab were separated from that Province, and together with the political charges of the Malakand the Khyber Kurram, Tochi and Wana were formed into the new North West Frontier Province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India. That year also witnessed the death of Abdur Rahman the Amir of Afghanistan, and the establishment of an understanding with his successor Habibullah. In 1904 the attitude of the Dalai Lama of Tibet being pro-Russian and anti-British, it became necessary to send an expedition to Lhasa under Colonel (Sir Francis) Younghusband. The Dalai Lama abdicated and a treaty was concluded with his successor.

In his first year of office Lord Curzon passed the Act which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Fowler Commission, practically fixed the value of the rupee at 1s 4d, and in 1900 a Gold Reserve fund was created. The educational reforms that marked this Viceroyalty are dealt with elsewhere chief among them was the Act of 1904 reorganising the governing bodies of Indian Universities. Under the head of agrarian reform must be mentioned the Punjab Land Alienation Act, designed to free the cultivators of the soil from the clutches of money lenders, and the institution of Agricultural banks. The efficiency of the Army was increased (Lord Kitchener was Commander-in-Chief) by the re-arming of the Indian Army, the strengthening of the artillery, and the reorganisation of the transport service. In his relations with the Feudatory Chiefs, Lord Curzon emphasised their position as partners in administration, and he

founded the Imperial Cadet Corps to give a military education to the sons of ruling and aristocratic families. In 1902 the British Government obtained from the Nizam a perpetual lease of the Assigned Districts of Berar in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs. The accession of King Edward VII was proclaimed in a splendid Durbar on January 1, 1903. In 1904 Lord Curzon returned to England for a few months but was re-appointed to a second term of office, Lord Amthill, Governor of Madras having acted as Viceroy during his absence. The chief act of this second term was the partition of Bengal and the creation of a new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam—a reform, designed to remove the systematic neglect of the trans Ganges areas of Bengal, which evoked bitter and prolonged criticism. In 1905 Lord Curzon resigned, being unable to accept the proposals of Lord Kitchener for the re-adjustment of relations between the Army headquarters and the Military Department of the Government, and being unable to obtain the support of the Home Government. Lord Curzon was succeeded by Lord Minto the grandson of a former Governor General. It was a stormy heritage to which Lord Minto succeeded for the unrest which had long been noticed developed in one direction into open sedition.

Outside Bengal attempts to quell the disaffection by the ordinary law were fairly successful. But scarcely any province was free from disorder of some kind and though recourse was had to the deportation of persons without reason assigned under an Act of 1818, special Acts had to be passed to meet the situation, viz.—an Explosives Act, a Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act, and a Criminal Law Amendment Act which provides for a magisterial inquiry in private and a trial before three judges of the High Court without a jury. Concurrently with these legislative measures steps were taken to extend representative institutions. In 1907 a Hindu and a Mahomedan were appointed to the Secretary of State's Council, and in 1909 a Hindu was appointed for the first time to the Viceroy's Council. The Indian Councils Act of 1909 carried this policy farther by reconstituting the legislative councils and conferring upon them wider powers of dissonance. The executive councils of Madras and Bombay were enlarged by the addition of an Indian member.

As regards foreign policy, Lord Minto's Viceroyalty was distinguished by the conclusion (1907) between Great Britain and Russia of an agreement on questions likely to disturb the friendly relations of the two countries in Asia generally, and in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet in particular. Two expeditions had to be undertaken on the North West frontier, against the Zakhka Khel and the Mohmands, and ships of the East India Squadron were frequently engaged off Masrat and in the Persian Gulf in operations designed to check the traffic in arms through Persia and Mekran to the frontier of India.

Visit of the King and Queen

Sir Charles (Lord) Hardinge was appointed to succeed Lord Minto in 1910. His first year in India was marked by the visit to India of the

King Emperor and the Queen, who arrived at Bombay on December 2, 1911. From there they proceeded to Delhi where, in the most magnificent durbar ever held in India, the coronation was proclaimed and various boons including an annual grant of 50 lakhs for popular education, were announced. At the same ceremony His Majesty announced the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi, the reunion of the two Bengals under a Governor-in-Council, the formation of a new Lieutenant-Governorship for Behar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa and the restoration of Assam to the charge of a Chief Commissioner.

In August, 1913, the demolition of a lavatory attached to a mosque in Cawnpore was made the occasion of an agitation among Indian Mahomedans and a riot in Cawnpore led to heavy loss of life. Of those present at the riot 106 were put on trial but subsequently released by the Viceroy before the case reached the Sessions and His Excellency was able to settle the mosque difficulty by a compromise that was acceptable to the local and other Mahomedans.

Still more serious trouble occurred in September 1914, when a riot at Dudge Budge among a number of Sikh emigrants returned from Canada gave a foretaste of the revolutionary plans entertained by those men. The sequel revealed in two conspiracy trials at Lahore, showed that the Ghadr conspiracy was widespread and had been consistently encouraged by Germany.

India after the War

Post war India has a strange and shifting history. In 1919 Englishmen troubled little about affairs in the East; they were engrossed by the settlement of peace and the refusal of the United States either to ratify the Treaty of Versailles or to join the League of Nations. In 1930 however the eyes not only of the British Empire but of the entire world were set upon India, when Mr. Gandhi and his followers for the second time attempted to make the non-cooperation movement effective.

Indians rule the world. India had participated in the war to end war. It was a war waged in defence of Belgium and it ended in a peace ostensibly proclaiming the sanctity of national aspirations throughout the world. For the sake of nationalism the structure of Europe had been broken into fragments. What then was to be India's share in the spoils of peace? The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms did not satisfy extremist opinion. They were the result of an agreed policy at home, and an agreed policy meant concessions to reactionary opinion.

The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms worked, and in some Provinces they worked well. Because they worked well it was never possible to withhold reforms. Because experience revealed their shortcomings, it was imperative that greater reforms should be made. Lord Morley and Lord Minto expressly denied that their reforms allowed Parliamentary institutions. Yet the logical conclusion of these reforms was the Montagu-Chelmsford Report which definitely established Parliamentary institutions and that report prepared the way to Dominion Status. Ten years after the war we find the Viceroy and Mr. Gandhi working by different methods for the same end.

Yet to one living through those fevered years the issues were not always clear. Mahomedan and Hindu aspirations did not always coincide. The evil misadventures that persuaded Turkey to associate with the Central Powers in the European War soon tried Mahomedan loyalty. The Khilafatist movement assumed great proportions and the consequence was war for King Amanullah who had just ascended the throne of Afghanistan believed that India was in open revolt. He decided, therefore to invade the country. The Afghan War was unfortunately a prolonged campaign and increased the sense of post war exhaustion in this country. A few years later King Amanullah visited India on an errand of peace. His country had entered the comity of nations, and it would tour Europe as an enlightened monarch. In 1928 he returned to his country which however he was destined soon to leave. His piece of misadventure had been too rapid for his country. He abdicated in favour of his brother Nayyullah who abdicated himself a few hours later. It was not until General Yahir Khan was elected King in the summer of 1929 that peace came to the unhappy land but the keenness with which India followed the progress of the revolution showed how closely were the fortunes of the two countries associated. Mustafa Kemal Pasha's repudiation of the Caliphate was a real blow to the Khilafatist movement. Years later we find the great Mahomedan leader Maulana Mohammed Ali not in alliance with Mr. Gandhi but openly seeking a proper understanding with Great Britain. The Maulana attended the Round Table Conference in London and took a leading part. But before the Conference came to an end the Maulana died in the service of his country.

The appointment of Lord Reading to be Viceroy in 1921 was a landmark in Indian history. Throughout his tenure of office there was opposition and disorder. The Duke of Connaught came to open the new council and the *Swargists* did their utmost to boycott the visit. The Prince of Wales came a year later on a non-political visit but his arrival in Bombay was the signal for severe rioting.

Mr. Gandhi's weapons of attack were boycott and the wearing of *Ahaddar*. *Ahaddar* as an Indian cloth, weakened the importation of foreign cloth. The boycott was directed not only against British goods but against the entire machinery of Government. In 1923 Lord Reading's certification doubled the Salt Tax, thus showing that the Legislative Assembly had no real control over finance. The responsibilities of the Assembly were few. Since the Government could override its decisions, its decisions became irresponsible. In the Provinces, however, there was less irresponsibility, and consequently the members of the Legislative Councils were often the allies of Government. But it took time for Indian opinion to realise that the Legislative Councils, however imperfect, were the instruments of order and good government. Some years later, the boycott broke down. Mr. C. R. Das, one of Mr. Gandhi's chief lieutenants, decided to associate with the Legislature—ostensibly to destroy the reforms, but actually because he and many others had grown

tered of a policy of mere negotiation. The downfall of non co operation was further signalled by the election of a great Swarajist, Mr V J Patel to be President of the Legislative Assembly—an office which he held until the summer of 1930.

When Lord Irwin succeeded Lord Reading in 1926 the prospects of peace improved. It was ordained by Statute that a Commission should examine the Indian Reforms within ten years of the inception of the Government of India Act. In 1927 both the British Government and the Government of India agreed that the Commission should be appointed as early as possible. Accordingly, in the autumn it was announced that Sir John Simon and other members of Parliament should be members of a new **Statutory Commission**. Their appointment was the occasion of a new outburst. Neither Mr Gandhi's followers nor the moderates would support the Commission. It was to be boycotted from the start. The chief complaint was that all the members of the Commission were Europeans. The Congress party, and even the moderates demanded in its place a Round Table Conference and the promise if not the immediate offer of Dominion Status. The boycott however was not very effective. One by one the Provincial Councils decided to co operate with the Simon Commission, the Legislative Assembly almost alone among the Legislatures stood consistently for boycott. Yet it is significant that before the Simon Commission had published its report, the Viceroy not only announced that the goal of Government in India was Dominion Status, but invited representatives of India to a Round Table Conference in London. He stood where the moderates and half the Congress had stood two years before. Meanwhile, Congress became still more extremist. In January 1929, Mr Gandhi announced that if India was not given Dominion Status within a year, he would lead the campaign for Independence.

He kept his word, and the Lahore Congress of December 1929 under the guidance of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru rather than Mr Gandhi, voted in favour of Independence.

The new struggle began in earnest in March, 1930. Mr Gandhi first decided to break the Salt Laws. He made an imposing march from Ahmedabad to the coast, where he ceremoniously manufactured salt that could not be taxed. Non co operation was in full swing. For a short time Bombay was virtually a Congress City. There were numerous arrests, and before the year closed there were to be in India no less than fifty thousand people incarcerated for political offences.

The Government of Lord Irwin was assailed on all sides. Some condemned it because it was weak, others condemned it because it was repressive. Its conduct had a curious reaction upon political opinion in England, which possessed the dubious advantage of a minority Government. At one time the Conservatives were demanding the recall of Lord Irwin. Similarly, Provincial Governors were criticised for alleged inactivity. In the summer few predicted any success for the Round Table Conference. The Simon Commission published a Report that was condemned by practically every party in India. It was practically a still born Report. Events had moved too rapidly. The Round Table Conference however, proved to be the culminating point of a world wide interest in the Indian political struggle. The Princes, at first assumed the lead. They stood for a Federal Government in which the States and British India should be partners. At once the extremists who had intended to ignore the Conference showed the keenest concern. The Conference, despite all evil prognostications, represented the voice of India. The delegates were still working in London when the troubled year 1930 came to an end.

The Government of India.

The impulse which drove the British to India was not conquest but trade. The Government of India represents the slow evolution from conditions established to meet trading requirements. On September 24, 1599, a few years before the deaths of Queen Elizabeth and Akbar, the merchants of London formed an association for the purpose of establishing direct trade with the East and were granted a charter of incorporation. The Government of this Company in England was vested in a Governor with a General Court of Proprietors and a Court of Directors. The factories and affairs of the Company on the East and West Coasts of India, and in Bengal, were administered at each of the principal settlements of Madras (Fort St. George), Bombay and Calcutta (Fort William) by a President or Governor and a Council consisting of the senior servants of the Company. The three Presidencies were independent of each other and subordinate only to the Directors in England.

Territorial Responsibility Assumed.

The collapse of government in India consequent on the decay of Moghul power and the intrigues of the French on the East Coast forced the officers of the Company to assume territorial responsibility in spite of their own desires and the insistent orders of the Directors. Step by step the Company became first the dominant, then the paramount power in India. In these changed circumstances the system of government by mutually independent and unwieldy councils of the merchants at the Presidency towns gave rise to grave abuses. Parliament intervened, and under the Regulating Act of 1773 a Governor-General and four councillors were appointed to administer the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal), and the supremacy of that Presidency over Madras and Bombay was for the first time established. The subordinate Presidencies were forbidden to wage war or make treaties without the previous consent of the Governor-General of Bengal in Council, except in cases of imminent necessity. Pitt's Act of 1784 which established the Board of Control in England, vested the administration of each of the three Presidencies in a Governor and three councillors, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Presidency Army. The control of the Governor-General in Council was somewhat extended, as it was again by the Charter Act of 1793. Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company was compelled to close its commercial business

and it became a political and administrative body holding its territories in trust for the Crown. The same Act vested the direction of the entire civil and military administration and sole power of legislation in the Governor-General-in-Council and defined more clearly the nature and extent of the control to be extended over the subordinate governments. After the Mutiny, there was passed, in 1858, an Act transferring the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. This Act made no important change in the administration in India, but the Governor-General, as representing the Crown, became known as the Viceroy. The Governor-General is the sole representative of the Crown in India; he is assisted by a Council composed of high officials, each of whom is responsible for a special department of the administration.

Functions of Government.

The functions of the Government in India are perhaps the most extensive of any great administration in the world. It claims a share in the produce of the land and in the Punjab and Bombay it has restricted the alienation of land from agriculturists to non-agriculturists. It undertakes the management of landed estates where the proprietor is disqualified. In times of famine it undertakes relief work and other remedial measures on a great scale. It manages a vast forest property and is the principal manufacturer of salt and opium. It owns the bulk of the railways of the country, and directly manages a considerable portion of them. It has constructed and maintains most of the important irrigation works, it owns and manages the post and telegraph systems. It has the monopoly of the Note issue, and it alone can set the mints in motion. It lends money to municipalities, rural boards, and agriculturists and occasionally to owners of historic estates. It controls the sale of liquor and intoxicating drugs and has direct responsibilities in respect to police, education, medical and sanitary operations and ordinary public works of the most intimate character. The Government has also close relations with the Indian States which collectively cover more than one-third of the whole area of India and comprise more than one-fifth of its population. The distribution of these great functions between the Government of India and the provincial administrations has fluctuated and was definitely regulated by the Reform Act of 1919.

THE REFORMS OF 1919

Great changes were made in the system of government in British India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the rules framed under it—almost as important in their provisions as the Act itself—came into general operation in January 1921. The Act

was the outcome of an inquiry conducted in India in the winter of 1917-18 by the Secretary of State (Mr. Montagu) and the Viceroy (Lord Chalmers), the results of which were embodied in their Report on Indian Constitutional Reform issued in the spring of 1918.

The recommendations in this report were supplemented by those of two Committees which toured in India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919.

The Divisions—British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In nine of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, Burma, and Assam—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. In 1923 Burma, which was excluded from the original scheme, was brought into line with it. An Act of Parliament was passed, constituting Burma a Governor's Province with a Governor, an Executive Council and Ministers, and a Legislative Council elected on a very democratic franchise, which gave the vote to women. The remaining six provinces are directly administered by Chief Commissioners, who are technically mere agents of the Central Government of India. No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the system of administration in these six minor provinces.

Dyarchy—In these nine provinces the executive Government is a dual organism which owes its unity to the Governor. One hand of the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are reserved. The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of "transferred" subjects.

The Object—The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India in modification of the previous system under which the Governments in India both central and provincial, received their mandates from the British Parliament acting through the Secretary of State for India, the Cabinet Minister responsible to Parliament for the administration of Indian affairs.

The Provinces—Starting from the pre-

mise that it was in the provinces that the first substantial steps must be taken towards the development of a system of responsible government, the framers of the Act of 1919 provided for a statutory demarcation of the functions to be exercised by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments respectively, in their administrative capacity. No attempt was made in this connection to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature which still retains a concurrent (though not an overriding) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general and of individual provinces, but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in certain specified provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified.

Finance—The revenues of India—or, rather, their sources—are definitely divided between the Central and Provincial Governments. The Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their allocated "revenues," they have power to supplement them by raising loans on the security of these revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor General's sanction, to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised.

It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governor's provinces, the provinces of Bihar and Orissa, owing to the comparative exigency and inelasticity of its own revenues, having been exempted from this contribution. The aggregate sum thus due from the provinces to the Government of India at the outset is Rs. 983 lakhs, of which Madras contributes Rs. 348 lakhs, the United Provinces Rs. 240 lakhs, the Punjab Rs. 175 lakhs and the other four provinces sums ranging from Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 64 lakhs. The annual contribution is in no case to be subject to increase in the future, and if reduction of the aggregate is found possible by the Government of India reductions are to be made in fixed proportions from the quota of the several provinces.

Responsibility—The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority (which the Act fixes at 70 per cent, as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules have given the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any Governor's province to extend the franchise to women. The

following table shows the strength and composition of each of the Provincial Councils.—

Province	Elected.	Nominated and <i>ex-officio</i>		Total.
		Officials.	Non-officials.	
Madras	98	23	6	127
Bombay	86	20	5	111
Bengal	118	20	6	139
United Provinces	100	18	5	123
Punjab	71	16	0	83
Bihar and Orissa	76	18	9	103
Central Provinces	53	10	6	69
Assam	39	9	5	53
Burma	78	10	8	101

The figures for officials in this table are maxima in every case and where less than the maximum number of officials is nominated to any Council, the number of nominated non-officials must be increased in proportion, e.g. if there are only 16 officials (nominated and *ex-officio*) on the United Provinces Council there must be seven nominated non-officials. The official members who have seats *ex-officio* are the members of the Executive Council, who are at present four in number the statutory maximum in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal three in Bihar and Orissa, and two in each of the remaining provinces. These Executive Councils contain an equal

number of Indian and British members except in Bihar and Orissa where two of the three members are British officials.

Electorates.—The electorates in each province are arranged for the most part on a basis which is designed to give separate representation to the various races, communities and special interests into which the diverse elements of the Indian population naturally range themselves. Although there are minor variations from province to province, a table showing their character in one province (Bengal) will give a sufficiently clear idea of the general position.

Class of Electorate	No of Electorates of this Class	No of Members returnable by Electorates of this Class
Non-Muhammadan	42	46
Muhammadan	34	39
European	3	5
Anglo-Indian (in the technical sense of persons of mixed European and Asiatic descent)	1	2
Landholders	5	6
University	1	1
Commerce and Industry	8	15
Total	94	118

Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, i.e. each constituency consists of a group of electors, having the prescribed quali-

cations which entitle them to a vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a Muhammadan or non-Muhammadan constituency is a district (or where districts are large and popu-

ious, half a district) in the case of rural constituencies, and, in the case of urban constituencies, a group of adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six "non-Muhammadan" and two Muhammadan, the latter of course, being coterminous with the former.

Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those which are designed to represent special interests, such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as special constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadan, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as general constituencies.

Voters Qualifications.—The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province, chiefly on account of variations in the laws and regulations which form the basis of assessment of income or property values. Generally speaking, both in rural and urban areas the franchise is based on a property qualification as measured by the payment of a prescribed minimum of land revenue or of its equivalent, or of income tax, or of municipal taxes, but in all provinces retired

pensioned or discharged officers and men of the regular army are entitled to the vote, irrespective of the amount of their income or property.

Election Results.—A Parliamentary Paper (Cmd. 2925), published in 1927, gives the following summary of election results. This return relates to the third General Election which took place in 1926 except in the case of the Council of State and the Burma Legislative Council the elections to which took place in 1925. In these two cases the elections were the second under the Act of 1919, because the Council of State has a life-time of five years as compared with three years in the case of the Legislative Assembly and the Provincial Councils, and because the Reforms were inaugurated in Burma two years later than in other provinces.

The figures given for the number of electors who voted and the percentages of the number who voted to the number on the electoral roll are, in the case of plural member constituencies approximate only. In these constituencies each elector has as many votes as there are seats to be filled and the figures are calculated on the assumption that each elector used all his votes; that is, the figure given as the number of electors who voted is the result of dividing the number of votes polled by the number of seats to be filled.

Class of Constituency	No of Seats.	No of Seats filled without Contest	No. of Candidates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage in 1923
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Madras Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	9	—	19	60 69	60 5
" rural	56	6	113	48 99	34 0
Muhammadan, urban	2	—	4	50 78	59 4
" rural	11	5	21	56 52	52 8
Indian Christians	5	—	13	69 35	59 3
European	1	1	1	—	—
Anglo-Indian	1	—	3	68 30	—
Landholders	6	2	11	94 83	73 1
University	1	1	1	—	55 8
Planters	1	1	1	—	—
European Commerce	3	3	3	—	—
Indian Commerce	2	1	3	97 8	—
Total	98	20	193	48 29	36 8

TOTAL ELECTORATE 1,377,466

Of the 173 candidates for contested seats, 15 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled,

Election results

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Class of Constituency	No of Seats	No of Seats filled without Contest	No of Candidates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage in 1928
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Bombay Legislative Council.

Non Muhammadan urban	11	—	39	36 09	37 5
„ rural	35	1	83	42 92	30 4
Muhammadan, urban	5	—	15	38 50	39 7
„ rural	22	3	49	38 32	52 1
European	2	2	2	—	—
Landholders	3	—	9	63 51	38 5
University	1	—	3	65 73	60 5
European Commerce	4	4	4	—	—
Indian Commerce	3	2	5	60 94	68 6
Total	86	12	208	40 50	48 2

TOTAL ELECTORATE 778,321

Of the 196 candidates for contested seats 36 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Bengal Legislative Council

Non Muhammadan, urban	11	3	23	48 36	50 1
„ rural	30	8	79	39 45	42 8
Muhammadan, urban	8	1	13	41 07	49 6
„ rural	33	3	91	37 03	32 4
Landholders	5	—	13	72 01	82 9
Universities	2	—	5	77 78	76 8
European, General	5	5	5	—	—
„ Commerce	11	11	11	—	91 2
Anglo-Indian	2	—	4	35 8	—
Indian Commerce	4	2	8	94 7	77 1
Total	114	31	232	39 25	39 0

TOTAL ELECTORATE 1,184,784.

Of the 221 candidates for the contested seats, 50 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Election results

Class of Constituency	No of Seats	No of Seats filled without Contest	No of Candi- dates for contested Seats	Percentage of Votes polled to No of Electors in contested Con- stituencies.	Per- centage in 1928
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

United Provinces Legislative Council

Non Muhammadan, urban	8	1	24	45.59	46.7
„ rural	52	5	128	49.3	40.2
Muhammadan, urban	4	—	9	42.04	40.1
„ rural	25	7	50	64.5	54.8
European	1	—	2	14.2	—
Landholders	6	1	10	57.0	42.3
University	1	—	2	71.7	74.9
Commerce, European	2	2	2	—	—
„ Indian	1	1	1	—	94.0
Total	100	17	228	50.2	33.0

TOTAL ELECTORATE 1,598,673

Of the 211 candidates for the contested seats, 30 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled

Punjab Legislative Council

Non Muhammadan, urban	7	1	18	52.0	59.0
„ rural	13	—	31	53.6	49.0
Muhammadan, urban	6	—	12	59.0	61.0
„ rural	27	6	62	54.0	52.0
Sikhs	12	5	19	45.0	33.0
Landholders	4	4	4	—	78.0
University	1	—	2	80.37	84.0
Commerce	1	1	1	—	79.0
Industry	1	—	3	86.63	—
Total	71	17	152	51.42	49.8

TOTAL ELECTORATE 702,835

Of the 135 candidates for contested seats, 19 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled,

Class of Constituency	No of Seats	No of Seats filled without Contest	No of Candi- dates for contested Seats	Percentage of Votes polled to No of Electors in contested Con- stituencies.	Per centage in 1923
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Biher and Orissa Legislative Council

Non Muhammadan urban	8		13	49.4	46.7
„ rural	42	6	90	52.5	52.8
Muhammadan, urban	3		7	61.2	52.9
„ rural	15	2	32	64.5	60.6
European	1	1	1		
Landholders	5	2	9	85.5	81.7
University	1		3	85.5	76.7
Planters, European	1	1	1		
Mining, Indian	1	1	1		
„ European	1	1	1		
Total	76	14	163	80.54	52.2

TOTAL ELECTORATE 374,818

Of the 149 candidates for contested seats, 17 forfeited their deposits, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Council

Non Muhammadan, urban	9	1	26	58.18	56.6
„ rural	32	2	76	58.89	57.4
Muhammadan, urban	1	1	1		65.6
„ rural	6	1	14	67.12	56.1
Landholders	3		7	70.06	61.6
Mining	1		2	68.0	88.3
Commerce and Industry	2	1	3	72.9	71.7
University	1		3	91.36	93.0
Total	55	7	132	61.9	57.7

TOTAL ELECTORATE 170,924

Of the 120 candidates for contested seats, 12 forfeited their deposit having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Election results

Class of Constituency	No of Seats	No of Seats filled without Contest.	No of Candi- dates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Con- stituencies.	Per- centage in 1923
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Assam Legislative Council

Non Muhammadan, urban	1		3	55 3	52 2
„ rural	20	6	40	38 83	38 2
Muhammadan, rural	12	1	26	53 50	49 9
Planters	5	5	5		—
Commerce (European)	1		2	92 1	—
Total	39	12	70	44 17	42 1

TOTAL ELECTORATE 249,747

Of the 34 candidates for the contested seats, 3 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled

Burma Legislative Council

General, urban	14	1	36	40 9	
Indian, urban	8	1	19	51 15	
Karen, rural	5	8	7	21 0	
General, rural	44	8	149	15 0	
Anglo-Indian	1		2	28 0	
European	1	1	1		
Commerce	5	5	5		
University	1	1	1		
Total	79	15	220	16 0	

TOTAL ELECTORATE 1,321,166,

Legislative Assembly.

Ladras—					
Non-Muhammadan	10	3	20	41 83	42 8
Muhammadan	3	2	7	61 0	52 6
European	1	1	1		
Landholders	1		2	82 0	41 0
Indian Commerce	1	1	1		
Bombay—					
Non-Muhammadan	7	1	15	48 94	39 3
Muhammadan	4		10	39 51	33 8
European	2	2	2		
Landholders	1	1	1		61 2
Indian Commerce	2	2	2		94 9

Class of Constituency	No of Seats	No of Seats filled without Contest	No of Candi- dates for contested Seats	Percentage of Votes polled to No of Electors in contested Con- stituencies	Per centage in 1923.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Legislative Assembly—*contd.*

Bengal—					
Non Muhammadan	6	2	10	49 0	39 4
Muhammadan	6		16	46 48	39 4
European	3	3	3		
Landholders	1		3	76 1	24 4
Indian Commerce	1	1	1		
United Provinces—					
Non-Muhammadan	8	2	16	51 4	43 1
Muhammadan	6	2	12	57 33	51 1
European	1	1	1		
Landholders	1	1	1		29 2
Punjab—					
Non Muhammadan	2		7	62 0	61 0
Muhammadan	6	1	13	64 10	64 0
Sikh	2	1	3	52 0	53 0
Landholders	1		4	87 0	84 0
Bihar and Orissa—					
Non Muhammadan	8		17	52 3	42 1
Muhammadan	3	1	5	59 04	55 2
Landholders	1	1	1		67 4
Central Provinces and Berar—					
Non-Muhammadan	4	1	7	70 65	44 1
Muhammadan	1	1	1		
Landholders	1	—	2	37 8	—
Assam—					
Non-Muhammadan	2	1	5	56 40	—
Muhammadan	1	—	3	52 43	44 0
European	1	1	1	—	—
Delhi (General)	1	—	3	65 0	30 0
Burma—					
Non-European	3	—	4	13 77	23 3
European	1	1	1	—	—
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	1	—	3	66 42	74 5
Total	105	34	206	48 07	41 9

Election results

	Provincial percentage of votes polled in contested constituencies.	No of candidates who forfeited deposit.
Madras	48 44	3
Bombay	46 18	6
Bengal	42 12	6
United Provinces	51 76	1
Punjab	62 79	4
Bihar and Orissa	32 "	—
Central Provinces and Berar	70 2	—
Assam	54 25	—
Burma	13 77	—
Delhi	66 0	—
Ajmer-Merwara	66 42	1

TOTAL ELECTORATE 1,125 002

TOTAL NUMBER OF VOTERS IN CONSTITUENCIES

835 437

NUMBER OF VOTES POLLED „ „

401,575

Women Voters.

At the time of the elections in 1928 women were enfranchised in six provinces. The following figures give the number enfranchised in each province and the number who voted, except in the case of one province (Assam), where no separate record was kept of male or female voters —

A —Provincial Legislative Councils

Province	No enrolled	No enrolled in contested constituencies	No who voted	Percentage of Col 4 on Col 3
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Madras	114 199	106,875	19,684	18 3
Bombay	38,478	37 974	7 616	20 1
United Provinces	70 100	69 797	4 414	6 3
Punjab	16 655	13,280	1 190	8 9
Burma	102,177	100 417	9,870	9 8

B —Legislative Assembly

Madras	18,375	13,179	2,910	22 1
Bombay	4,404	3,810	348	12 2
United Provinces	6,071	4,627	210	4 5
Punjab	2,065	1,217	100	12 3
Burma.	5,198	Not recorded separately		

Council of State
(Second Election of 1925)

Place and Class of Constituency	No of Seats	No of Seats filled without Contest	No of Candidates	Total No of Electors	Total No of Electors who voted	Percentage of Votes polled to No of Electors in contested Constituencies	Percentage in 1921
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Madras—							
Non-Muhammadian	4	—	7	2,509	2,107	84.0	74
Muhammadian	1	—	2	132	122	92.0	61
Bombay—							
Non Muhammadian	2	—	6	1,273	329	26.0	33
Muhammadian	1	—	4	110	103	92.0	—
(Sind)	1	1	1	38	—	—	—
Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	51	—	—	—
Bengal—							
East Non Muhammadian	1	1	1	590	—	—	—
West	2	—	4	882	635	72.5	67
East Muhammadian	1	—	4	553	353	63.0	—
West	1	—	4	201	162	81.0	31
Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	137	—	—	—
United Provinces—							
Northern Non Muham-	1	—	4	830	537	60.0	—
madian	1	1	1	637	—	—	53
Central	1	—	3	1,475	331	22.0	—
Southern	1	—	1	201	—	—	—
East Muhammadian	1	1	2	293	227	77.0	—
West	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Punjab—							
Non-Muhammadian	1	1	1	1,038	—	—	48
Muhammadian	1	—	2	1,052	713	68.0	64
Sikh	1	—	2	519	379	73.0	—
Bihar and Orissa—							
Non Muhammadian	3	—	8	1,970	1,580	79.0	50
Muhammadian	1	—	2	422	330	83.0	—
Central Provinces General	1	—	4	662	477	70.0	25
Berar General	1	1	1	402	—	—	—
Assam Muhammadian	1	1	1	71	—	—	63
Burma—							
General	1	—	2	15,486	764	5.0	15
Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	69	—	—	—
Total	34	10	70	32,125	9,704	34.0	55

POWERS OF PROVINCIAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS

In origin the legislative authority in British India was a meeting of the Governor-General (or, in the case of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, of the Governor) with his Executive Council, for the purpose of legislation. When met for this purpose there were added to the Executive Council certain

additional members, at first very few in number, and those few all nominated by the Governor-General or the Governor, as the case might be. A Council so constituted had originally no powers or duties beyond those immediately arising out of the discussion of the particular legislative measure which at the time was engaging its attention, and its functions were confined strictly to the discussion and enactment of legislative measures. In course of time the number of "additional" members, and the proportion of these who were non-official Indians, were steadily increased, the principle of election was gradually substituted for nomination as the means of selecting non-official members, and the functions of the Councils were extended so as to include the right of interpellation, of the discussion of matters of general public interest, and of criticising and discussing the budget proposals of the Executive Government. This extension of the powers of the Councils was in the main the result of the Morley-Minto Act of 1909. The Indian Councils Act of 1892 had given power to discuss the budget but not to divide the Council upon it. Lord Morley's Act went further and provided that notwithstanding the terms of the Indian Councils Act of 1861 which had restricted the powers of all Councils to the discussion of legislative measures, the Local Government might make rules authorising the discussion of the annual financial statement, of any matter of general public interest, and the asking of questions under such conditions and restrictions as might be imposed by the rules, and these rules recognised the right of the Councils to vote on motions thus submitted for their discussion. The other results of the Act of 1909 were definitely to recognise the principle of election as the means of selecting non-official members of all Councils (although the method adopted was mainly that of indirect election), a considerable increase in the number of both non-official and official members, and the setting up in every province of a non-official (though not, save in one province, an elected) majority. A further important, though indirect, result of the Morley-Minto Act was the appointment of an Indian member to the Executive Council of the Governor-General and to such Provincial Executive Councils as were then in existence and subsequently created.

Old System.—But although the Legislative Councils (which, originally created in two provinces only in addition to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, existed in 1919 in nine provinces) had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood, they still remained in theory up to the passing of the Act of 1919 mere accessories to the Executive Government of the provinces for the purpose of advising on, and

enacting, legislation. It is true that the non-official element in the Provincial Councils as constituted by Lord Morley's Act of 1909 had acquired a considerable measure of control over legislation, in view of the fact that in most provinces that Act and the rules framed under it placed the non-official members in a slight majority over their official colleagues, but for various reasons this control even in the sphere of legislation, can hardly be described as definite popular control, and over matters outside the legislative sphere the Councils had no controlling vote at all.

The Changes.—The most important changes made by the Act of 1919 in the powers of the Provincial Councils were—

- (i) the power to vote (and consequently to withhold) supplies
- (ii) a greatly enhanced freedom of initiation in the matter of legislation, and
- (iii) power to frame their own rules of procedure in matters of detail, subject to the Governor's concurrence.

A further right which the Councils will acquire after four years from the time of their commencement is the right to elect their own President. At the outset the President is nominated by the Governor, but from the start every Council has an elected Deputy President. The Governor (who formerly was *ex-officio* President of his Legislative Council) no longer has any direct connection with its proceedings. The first named of these newly acquired powers is of sufficient importance to require a detailed explanation of its scope, which can best be given in the terms of the Act itself (section 72a).

72a—(1) The provisions contained in this section shall have effect with respect to business and procedure in governors' legislative councils.

(2) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the province shall be laid in the form of a statement before the council in each year and the proposals of the local government for the appropriation of provincial revenues and other moneys in any year shall be submitted to the vote of the council in the form of demands for grants. The council may assent, or refuse its assent, to a demand, or may reduce the amount therein referred to either by a reduction of the whole grant or by the omission or reduction of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed—

Provided that—

(a) the local government shall have power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, if the demand relates to a reserved subject, and the governor certifies that the expenditure provided for by the demand is essential to the discharge of his responsibility for the subject, and

(b) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may be in his opinion necessary for the safety or tranquility of the province, or for the carrying on of any department, and

(a) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor, communicated to the council

(b) Nothing in the foregoing sub-section shall require proposals to be submitted to the council relating to the following heads of expenditure —

(i) Contributions payable by the local government to the Governor-General in Council and

(ii) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans, and

(iii) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law, and

(iv) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council and

(v) Salaries of judges of the high court of the province and of the advocate-general

If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final

Executive and Legislature.—In the light of these facts it is now possible to explain more exactly the relationship between the provincial executive and the provincial legislature. The dual character of the former has already been mentioned, and the corresponding bifurcation of provincial subjects into 'reserved' and 'transferred' categories. The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self-Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The 'reserved' subjects comprise all those in the list of 'provincial' (as distinct from 'central') subjects which are not transferred.

Machinery.—No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council. Decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains, as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non-official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an important factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, will necessarily be able, and in fact are expected, to make their opinions felt by their colleagues in the Executive Council. But

these factors, while they will doubtless lead to constant endeavour on the part of the official half of the Government to accommodate its policy to the wishes of its ministerial colleagues and of the majority of the legislature, and to avoid situations which involve resort to the enforcement of its decisions in the face of popular opposition, are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof to lay down and require the observance of any principles which they regard as having the support of Parliament and, in the last resort of the British electorate.

Transfer of Control.—With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British sector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and just as each member of the Executive Council has charge of a portfolio consisting of a specified list of 'reserved' subjects or departments, so each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred 'departments' which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, not, as in the case of a member of the Executive Council, to the Government of India, the Secretary of State and Parliament, but to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from the restrictions just noticed which necessarily qualify its control over the 'reserved' subjects. It is thus within the power of the Provincial Council to insist on the pursuit of a policy of its own choice in the administration of transferred subjects by withdrawing its confidence from a Minister who departs from that policy and bestowing it only on a successor who will follow its mandate and this power is dependent on the provincial elector in virtue of his freedom to control the composition of the Legislative Council by the use which he makes of his vote. No doubt his statement requires some qualification before it can be accepted as literally accurate, for technically, the authority charged with the administration of transferred subjects is "the Governor acting with Ministers appointed under this Act," not the Ministers acting on their own initiative, and, further, the Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council, is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquillity of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to recommend the removal of a department from the transferred list if he found the legislature bent on pursuing a policy in its administration

which, in his judgment, was incompatible with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity, yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great, and it was the opinion at all events of the Joint Select Committee that Legislature and Ministers should be allowed to exercise them with the greatest possible freedom. If after hearing all the arguments, observed the Committee, Ministers should decide not to adopt his advice, then in the opinion of the Committee the Governor should ordinarily allow Ministers to have their way, fixing the responsibility upon them, even if it may subsequently be necessary for him to vote any particular piece of legislation. It is not possible but that in India, as in all other countries, mistakes will be made by Ministers acting with the approval of a majority of the Legislative Council, but there is no way of learning except through experience and the realisation of responsibility.

Provision of Funds—The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves of the Executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made for the allocation of revenues or moneys for the purpose of such administration i.e., the administration of transferred subjects by the Governor acting with Ministers. Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an "order of allocation" or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. The passage is as follows—

"The Committee have given much attention to the difficult question of the principle on which the provincial revenues and balances should be distributed between the two sides of the provincial governments. They are confident that the problem can readily be solved by the simple process of common sense and reasonable give-and-take, but they are aware that this question might, in certain circumstances, become the cause of much friction

in the provincial government, and they are of opinion that the rules governing allocation of these revenues and balances should be framed so as to make the existence of such friction impossible. They advise that, if the Governor, in the course of preparing either his first or any subsequent budget, find that there is likely to be a serious or protracted difference of opinion between the Executive Council and his Ministers on this subject he should be empowered at once to make an allocation of revenues and balances between the reserved and transferred subjects which should continue for at least the whole life of the existing Legislative Council. The Committee do not endorse the suggestion that certain sources of revenue should be allocated to reserved and certain sources to transferred subjects, but they recommend that the Governor should allocate a definite proportion of the revenue, say, by way of illustration, two-thirds to reserved and one-third to transferred subjects, and similarly a proportion, though not necessarily the same fraction of the balances. If the Governor desires assistance in making the allocation, he should be allowed at his discretion to refer the question to be decided to such authority as the Governor General shall appoint. Further, the Committee are of opinion that it should be laid down from the first that until an agreement which both sides of the Government will equally support has been reached, or until an allocation has been made by the Governor, the total provisions of the different expenditure heads in the budget of the province for the preceding financial year shall hold good.

The Committee desire that the relation of the two sides of the Government in this matter as in all others, should be of such mutual sympathy that each will be able to assist and influence for the common good the work of the other, but not to exercise control over it. The budget should not be capable of being used as a means for enabling Ministers or a majority of the Legislative Council to direct the policy of reserved subjects, but on the other hand the Executive Council should be helpful to Ministers in their desire to develop the departments entrusted to their care. On the Governor personally will devolve the task of holding the balance between the legitimate needs of both sets of his advisers."

THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

The structural changes made by the Act of 1919 in the system of government outside the nine Governors provinces are of comparatively minor scope, though the spirit of the Act requires, as has already been shown, considerable modification of the relationship hitherto subsisting between the Provincial Governments on the one hand and the Government of India and the Secretary of State in Council on the other. The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the Governor-General's Executive Council (which, however, has had the far-reaching consequence that three of the eight members of the Council are now Indians), and the recom-

stitution in a much more enlarged representative and independent form of the central legislature. It has already been observed that this body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor-General's Executive Council with the addition of certain "additional members" appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of "additional members," who of course under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers over the members proper, i.e., the Executive Councilors, still persisted up to the passing of the Act of 1919. That Act, however, has entirely remodelled the "Indian Legislature,"

as it is now called, which has become, like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such as are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The Council of State "contains 60 members, of whom 24 are elected (including one member to represent Bihar, who, though technically nominated, is nominated as the result of elections held in Bihar) and 26 nominated of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The Legislative Assembly" consists of 144 members, of whom 104 are elected (including in the case of the Council of State, one Bihar member, who, though actually elected, is technically a nominee). Of the 60 nominated members, 26 are required to be officials. The members of the Governor-General's Executive Council are not *ex-officio* members of either Chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber, and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Executive Council may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a nominee of the Governor-General, as also, for the first four years after the constitution of the Chamber, is the President of the Legislative Assembly. But after that period the Lower Chamber is to elect its own President, and it elects its own Deputy President from the outset. The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years; but either Chamber or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor-General.

Election.—The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils, it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909 for the unicameral central legislature which no longer exists. Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and past service with the colours is not *per se* a qualification for the franchise, and *secondly* that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis, that is a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province.

The following table shows the allotment of the elective seats:—

	Legislative Assembly	Council of State
Madras ..	16	5
Bombay ..	14	6
Bengal ..	17	6
United Provinces ..	16	5
Punjab ..	12	4

Bihar and Orissa	12	3
Central Provinces	8	3
Assam	4	1
Burma	4	2
Delhi	1	—
	104	34

Since the area which returns perhaps 80 members to a Provincial Council is the same as the area which returns perhaps 12 members to the Legislative Assembly—namely the entire province in each case—it follows that on the direct election system this area must be split into constituencies which are much larger than the constituencies for the local Councils and just as it is generally correct to say that the normal area unit for those rural constituencies for the latter which are arranged on a territorial basis is the district, it may be said that the normal area unit in the case of the Legislative Assembly is the Division (the technical term for the administrative group of districts controlled by a Divisional Commissioner).

The Franchise.—The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is thus that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for and stand for election to the Provincial Council, and that a selected number of these voters are qualified to vote for and stand for election to those seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon.

The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a 'Senate of Elder Statesmen', and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a true revising Chamber. With this object, in addition and as an alternative to a high property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted, or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council, the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature.

Powers.—The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the central sphere from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same right of voting supplies for the Central Government.

But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces and as consequently the Executive Government of India remains legally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfilment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred

on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces, that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects.

THE INDIA OFFICE.

The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of offices of the members of the Secretary of State's Council, and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over, as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency as distinct from administrative supervision and control. The process of separation of staff and functions for the purpose of this transfer will necessarily be somewhat slow, but a substantial beginning has been made by handing over to the direct control of the High Commissioner the large departments which are concerned with the ordering and supply of stores and stationery in England for Government use in India, with the payment of pensions to retired members of Indian services resident in the United Kingdom, and with the assistance of

Indian students in England. Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions.

In due course the apportionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected, then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. Until that time arrives, however, an estimate was the only basis for settlement, and for five years from 1920-21 the cost of the India Office payable from British revenues has been fixed at £36,500/-, which includes the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and a contribution of £40,000/-, which has for some years been made by the Treasury towards Indian expenditure, as the result of the recommendations of the Welby Commission.

THE FUTURE.

The Act of 1919 and its provisions are essentially transitional. It is intended, not to set up a new and permanent constitution, but to make such changes in the law as will enable "the progressive realisation of responsible Government in British India as an integral part of the Empire." This feature of the Act was clearly expressed in its Preamble but although the Preamble finds no place in the law as amended by the Act of 1919, that law now contains provision for the appointment, after a period of 10 years trial of the law in its amended form, of a Parliamentary Commission

for the purpose of inquiring into the working of the system of government, the growth of education, and the development of representative institutions in British India and matters connected therewith, and such a Commission, when appointed, is directed to report as to whether it is desirable to establish the principle of responsible government, or to extend, modify, or restrict the degree of responsible government then existing in British India.

Statutory Commission appointed.—On November 8, 1927, the Prime Minister (Mr. Baldwin) made the following statement in the House of Commons, announcing the appointment, personnel and programme of the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms:

"As the House will remember, one of the provisions contained in the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 required, 'at the expiration of ten years after the passing' of that Act, the

appointment; with the concurrence of both Houses of Parliament, of persons to be a Commission to inquire into the working of the Indian Constitution and to consider the desirability of establishing, extending, modifying, or restricting the degree of responsible government then existing there. The Government have decided, for various reasons which I need not now specify that it is desirable to anticipate the date (December, 1929) contemplated by the Act, and to appoint this most important Royal Commission forthwith.

Balancing the various considerations and endeavouring to give due weight to each, His Majesty's Government have decided upon the following procedure—

(a) They propose to recommend to His Majesty that the Statutory Commission should be composed as follows:—

The Right Hon. Sir John Simon, K.C.V.O., K. C. (Chairman)

Viscount Buxarham, G.C.M.G., C.H.

Lord Sutherland and Mount Royal.

The Hon. E. C. G. Cadogan, O.B.

The Right Hon. Stephen Walsh. (It was subsequently announced that owing to ill health, Mr. Walsh would be unable to serve and Mr. Vernon Hartshorn was nominated in his place.)

Colonel the Right Hon. G. R. Lane-Fox.

Major C. R. Atiles.

These names will be submitted to both Houses in Resolutions.

(b) His Majesty's Government cannot, of course, dictate to the Commission what procedure it shall follow but they are of opinion that its task in taking evidence would be greatly facilitated if it were to invite the Central Indian Legislature to appoint a Joint Select Committee chosen from its elected and nominated unofficial members, which would draw up its views and proposals in writing and lay them before the Commission for examination in such manner as the latter may decide. The Commission might remain in being for any consultation which the Commission might desire at subsequent stages of the inquiry. It should be clearly understood that the purpose of this suggestion is not to limit the discretion of the Commission in hearing other witnesses.

(c) His Majesty's Government suggest that a similar procedure should be adopted with the Provincial Legislatures.

(d) The vast area to be covered may make it desirable that the task of taking evidence on the more purely administrative questions involved should be undertaken by some other authority which would be in the closest touch with the Commission. His Majesty's Government suggest that the Commission on arrival in India should consider and decide by what machinery this work may most appropriately be discharged, this will not of course deprive the Commission from the advantage of taking evidence itself upon these subjects to whatever extent it may think desirable.

(e) When the Commission has reported and

its report has been examined by the Government of India and his Majesty's Government it will be the duty of the latter to present proposals to Parliament. But it is not the intention of his Majesty's Government to ask Parliament to adopt these proposals without first giving a full opportunity for Indian opinion of different schools to contribute its view upon them. And to this end it is intended to invite Parliament to refer these proposals to consideration by a Joint Committee of both Houses and to facilitate the presentation to that Committee both of the views of the Indian Central Legislature by delegations who will be invited to attend and confer with the Joint Committee and also of the views of any other bodies whom the Joint Parliamentary Committee may desire to consult.

The ante-dating of the Commission involves an amendment of the Act, and a Bill to this end will be introduced at once.

The report of the Simon Commission was published in the spring of 1930. The report of the *Indian Central Committee* appointed in September 1928 to collaborate with the Simon Commission was presented to Parliament in December 1929. The Indian Central Committee was composed of the Hon. Sir Sankarwar Naik, The Hon. Sir Arthur Froom, the Hon. Raja Nawab Ali Khan, the Hon. Sardar Bahadur Shivdev Singh Uberoi, Nawab Sir Zulfiqar Ali Khan, Sir Hari Singh Gour, Dr. Abdullah Suhrawardy, Mr. Kikabul Premchand and Rao Bahadur M. C. Kakhal.

DOMINION STATUS

A statement issued by H. E. the Viceroy on Oct. 31, 1929 defined the goal of British policy as follows—

The goal of British policy was stated in the declaration of August 1917 to be that of providing for the gradual development of self governing institutions with a view to the progressive realisation of responsible government in India as an integral part of the British Empire. As I recently pointed out in my own Instrument of Instructions from the King, Emperor expressly states that it is His Majesty's will and pleasure that the plans laid by Parliament in 1919 should be the means by which British India may attain its due place among His Dominions. Ministers of the Crown more over have more than once publicly declared that it is the desire of the British Government that India, should, in the fullness of time, take her place in the Empire in equal partnership with the Dominions. But in view of the doubts which have been expressed both in Great Britain and India regarding the interpretation to be placed on the intentions of the British Government in enacting the Statute of 1919, I am authorized on behalf of His Majesty's Government to state clearly that in their judgment it is implicit in the declaration of 1917 that the natural issue of India's constitutional progress, as there contemplated, is the attainment of Dominion status.

In the full realization of this policy, it is evidently important that the Indian States should be afforded an opportunity of finding

their place and, even if we cannot at present exactly foresee on what lines this development may be shaped, it is from every point of view desirable that whatever can be done should be done to ensure that action taken now is not inconsistent with the attainment of the ultimate purpose which those, whether in British India or the States, who look forward to some unity of All India, have in view.

His Majesty's Government consider that both these objects—namely that of finding the best approach to the British Indian side of the problem, and secondly of ensuring that in this process the wider question of closer relations in the future between the two parts of Greater India is not overlooked—can best be achieved by the adoption of procedure such as the Commission has outlined. When, therefore, the Commission and the Indian Central Committee have submitted their Reports and these have been published, and when his Majesty's Government have been able in consultation with the Government of India, to consider these matters in the light of all the material then available they will propose to invite representatives of different parties and interests in British India and representatives of the Indian States to meet them, separately or together as circumstances may demand, for the purpose of conference and discussion in regard both to the British Indian and the All Indian problems. It will be their earnest hope that by this means it may subsequently prove possible on these grave issues to submit proposals to Parliament which may command a wide measure of general assent."

PERSONNEL AND PROCEDURE.

The Governor-General and the Executive members of his Council are appointed by the Crown. No limit of time is specified for their tenure of office, but custom has fixed it at five years. There are seven Executive Members of Council. These Members hold respectively the portfolios of Education, Health and Land, Home, Finance, Commerce, Industries and Labour. Law. The Viceroy acts as his own member in charge of Foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Chief Commissioner with the assistance of a Railway Board, and are for administrative purposes grouped under the reign of the Commerce Department. The Commander-in-Chief may also be and in practice always is, an 'Ordinary' member of the Council. He holds charge of the Army Department. The Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal become extraordinary members if the Council meets within their Presidencies. The Council may assemble at any place in India which the Governor-General appoints in practice it meets only in Delhi and Simla.

In regard to his own Department each Member of Council is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final voice in ordinary departmental matters. But any question of special importance and any matter in which it is proposed to overrule the views of a Local Government, must ordinarily be referred to the Viceroy. Any matter originating in one department which also affects another must be referred to the latter and in the event of the Departments not being able to agree, the case is referred to the Viceroy. The Members of Council meet periodically as a Cabinet—ordinarily

once or twice a week—to discuss questions which the Viceroy desires to put before them, or which a member who has been over-ruled by the Viceroy has asked to be referred to Council. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council the decision of the majority ordinarily prevails, but the Viceroy can overrule a majority if he considers that the matter is of such grave importance as to justify such a step. Each departmental office is in the subordinate charge of a Secretary, whose position corresponds very much to that of a permanent Under-Secretary of State in the United Kingdom but with these differences—that the Secretary is present though does not speak, at Council meetings at which cases under his cognisance are discussed that he attends on the Viceroy, usually once a week and discusses with him all matters of importance arising in his Department, that he has the right of bringing to the Viceroy's special notice any case in which he considers that the Viceroy's concurrence should be obtained to action proposed by the Departmental Member of Council and that his tenure of office is usually limited to three years. The Secretaries have under them Deputy, Under and Assistant Secretaries together with the ordinary clerical establishments. The Secretaries and Under Secretaries are often, though by no means exclusively, members of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of India has no Civil Service of its own as distinct from that of the Provincial Governments, and officers serving under the Government of India are borrowed from the Provinces, or, in the case of Specialists, recruited direct by contract.

THE DIVISION OF FUNCTIONS

The keynote of the scheme is effective provincial autonomy and the establishment of an immediate measure of responsibility in the provinces all of which are raised to the status of Governors in Council. This demanded a sharp division between Imperial and Provincial functions. The following subjects are reserved to the Government of India, with the corollary that all others vest in the Provincial Governments—

1. (a) Defence of India, and all matters connected with His Majesty's Naval, Military, and Air Forces in India, or with His Majesty's Indian Marine Service or with any other force raised in India, other than military and armed police wholly maintained by local Governments.

(b) Naval and military works, cantonments.

2. External relations, including naturalisation and aliens, and pilgrimages beyond India.

3. Relations with States in India.

4. Political charges.

5. Communications to the extent described under the following heads, namely

(a) railway and extra-municipal tramways in so far as they are not classified as provincial subjects under entry 5 (d) of Part II of this Schedule;

(b) airmail and all matters connected therewith, and

(c) inland waterways, to an extent to be declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

6. Shipping and navigation, including shipping and navigation on inland waterways in so far as declared to be a central subject in accordance with entry 5 (c).

7. Light houses (including their approaches) beacons, lightships and buoys.

8. Port quarantine and marine hospitals.

9. Ports declared to be major ports by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

10. Posts, telegraph and telephones, including wireless installations.

11. Customs, cotton excise duties, income-tax, salt, and other sources of all-India revenues.

12. Currency and coinage.

13. Public debt of India.

14. Savings Banks.

15. The Indian Audit Department and excluded Audit Departments, as defined in rules framed under section 98-D (1) of the Act.

16. Civil law, including laws regarding status, property, civil rights and liabilities, and civil procedure.

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| <p>17 Commerce, including banking and insurance</p> <p>18 Trading companies and other associations</p> <p>19 Control of production supply and distribution of any articles in respect of which control by a central authority is declared by rule made by the Governor General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature to be essential in the public interest</p> <p>20 Development of industries in cases where such development by a central authority is declared by order of the Governor General in Council, made after consultation with the local Government or local Governments concerned expedient in the public interest</p> <p>21 Control of cultivation and manufacture of opium, and sale of opium for export.</p> <p>22 Stores and stationery, both imported and indigenous, required for Imperial Departmental wants</p> <p>23 Control of petroleum and explosives</p> <p>24 Geological survey</p> <p>25 Control of mineral development, in so far as such control is reserved to the Governor General in Council under rules made or sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and regulation of mines</p> <p>26 Botanical Survey</p> <p>27 Inventions and designs</p> <p>28 Copyright</p> | <p>29 Emigration from, and immigration into British India, and inter-provincial migration.</p> <p>30 Criminal law, including criminal procedure</p> <p>31 Central police organisation</p> <p>32 Control of arms and ammunition</p> <p>33 Central agencies and institutions for research (including observatories), and for professional or technical training or promotion of special studies</p> <p>34 Ecclesiastical administration including European cemeteries</p> <p>35 Survey of India</p> <p>36 Archaeology</p> <p>37 Zoological Survey</p> <p>38 Meteorology</p> <p>39 Census and statistics</p> <p>40 All India services</p> <p>41 Legislation in regard to any provincial subject in so far as such subject is in Part II of this Schedule stated to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature, and any powers relating to such subject reserved by legislation to the Governor General in Council</p> <p>42 Territorial changes, other than inter-provincial, and declaration of law in connection therewith</p> <p>43 Regulation of ceremonial, titles, orders, precedence, and civil uniform</p> <p>44 Immovable property acquired by, and maintained at the cost of, the Governor-General in Council</p> <p>45 The Public Service Commission</p> |
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GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA

His Excellency the Right Hon EDWARD FREDERICK LINDLEY WOOD, Baron IRWIN OF KILBY

UNDERDALE G.W.S.I., C.M.S.I., 4th April 1926

Viceroy Delegate—The Right Hon Sir (The Earl of) Willingdon

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Military Secretary—Major temp Lieut Col C O Harvay, D.V.O., C.B.E., M.C., C.I. Horse, P.S.O.

Personal Asst—W H P de la Hay

Comptroller of the Household—Major A L D Anderson, 15 Lancers

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Capt A G S Alexander, C.I. Horse
Lt F G W Jackson, R.E.G., Lt. A H Poyts
The Royals
Flight Lt J Bruce Bennett
R A F Shaikh Fais-ud-din Raisalder-Major,
I.D.M., R. Deccan Horse Sub Major and
Hon. Captain Bhikam Singh M.C.

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BOTANICAL SURVEY

Director, C. C. Calder, B.Sc. (Agr.), F.R.S.
Dr. B. N. Pal, Ph.D., Curator Industries
Section, Indian Museum, P. T. Russell Su-
perintendent, Cichona Cultivation in Burma

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Director General of Archaeology, Sir J. H. Marshall
Kt. C.I.E., M.A., LL.D. F.R.S. Deputy
Director-General J. A. Page, Deputy Director
General for Exploration K. N. Dikshit M.A.
Superintendent Western Circle K. B. Bhadur
Duyaram Ballin, A.M. Superintendent Southern
Circle, A. H. Longhurst Superintendent,
Northern Circle, Khan Bahadur Moulvi Zafar
Hasan B.A. and T. A. Otto Super-
intendent, Central Circle, B. L. Dhamia,
B.A. Superintendent, Burma, C. Duroiselle,
M.A., I.S.O. Superintendent Frontier Circle,
J. Y. Blackiston

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Director-General, Indian Medical Service, The
Hon. Major General J. W. D. McGaw, C.I.E.,
I.S.M.

Public Health Commissioner with the Government
of India, Col. J. D. Graham, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Deputy Director-General Indian Medical Ser-
vice, Lt. Col. H. E. Stanger Leathes, I.M.S.

Assistant Director-General, Indian Medical
Service, Major E. S. Goss M.C., I.M.S.

Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli,
Col. S. R. Christophers, C.I.E., C.B.E., I.M.S.

Assistant to Director Central Research Institute
Kasauli, H. A. H. D. Silva, M.R.C.S.

Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories,
Thomas Royds, D.Sc.

Meteorologist Bombay Observatory, S. K.
Banerji, D.Sc.

Librarian, Imperial Library, Calcutta, J. A.
Chapman

Agricultural Adviser and Director of the Agri-
cultural Research Institute, Feroz, D. Clouston,
M.A., C.I.E.

Director, Zoological Survey of India, Indian
Museum, Lt. Colonel R. B. Seymour Sowell
I.M.S., M.A.

Master, Security Printing, Nasik Road Lt. Col.
Sir George Willis, Kt. C.I.E., M.V.O., M.B.,
M.I.M.S.

Director, Intelligence Bureau, Sir David Petrie,
Kt., C.I.E.

Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and
Statistics, D. B. Meek.

Deputy Director-General of Commercial Intelli-
gence and Statistics, N. K. Pillai, M.A., LL.B.,
I.C.S.

Controller of Patents and Designs, K. Rama Pai,
M.A.

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF BENGAL
WILLIAM IN BENGAL

Name.	Assumed charge of office
Warren Hastings	20 Oct. 1774
Sir John Macpherson, Bart.	8 Feb. 1785
Karl Cornwallis, K.C. (a)	12 Sep. 1786
Sir John Shore, Bart. (b)	28 Oct. 1793
(a) Created Marquess Cornwallis, 15 Aug. 1792	
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Tellemout	
Lieut. General the Hon. Sir Alfred	
Clarke, K.C.B. (off)	17 Mar. 1798
The Earl of Mornington, P.C. (c)	18 May 1798
The Marquess Cornwallis, K.C. (2nd time)	30 July 1805
Captain L. A. P. Anderson, Sir George	
H. Barlow, Bart.	10 Oct. 1805
Lord Minto, P.C. (d)	31 July 1807
The Earl of Minto, K.C., P.C. (e)	4 Oct. 1813
John Adam (off)	18 Jan. 1823
Lord Amherst, P.C. (f)	1 Aug. 1823
William Butterworth Bayley (off)	18 Mar. 1828
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck,	
G.C.B. G.C.H., P.C.	4 July 1828
(c) Created Marquess Wellesley, 2 Dec. 1799	
(d) Created Earl of Minto, 24 Feb. 1813	
(e) Created Marquess of Hastings, 2 Dec. 1816	
(f) Created Earl Amherst, 2 Dec. 1823	

GOVERNORS GENERAL OF INDIA

Name	Assumed charge of office.
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck,	
G.C.B. G.C.H., P.C.	14 Nov. 1834
Sir Charles Metcalfe, Bart. (a)	
(off)	20 March 1835
Lord Auckland, G.C.B., P.C. (b)	4 March 1836
Lord Ellenborough, P.C. (c)	28 Feb. 1842
William Wilberforce Bird (off)	15 June 1844
The Right Hon. Sir Henry Hardinge,	
G.C.B. (d)	23 July 1844
The Earl of Dalhousie, P.C. (e)	12 Jan. 1848
Viscount Canning, P.C. (f)	29 Feb. 1856
(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Metcalfe;	
(b) Created Earl of Auckland, 21 Dec. 1839	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Ellen-	
borough	
(d) Created Viscount Hardinge, 2 May 1846	
(e) Created Marquess of Dalhousie, 25 Aug. 1849	
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl Canning,	

NOTE.—The Governor-General ceased to be the direct Head of the Bengal Government from the 1st May, 1854, when the first Lieutenant-Governor assumed office. On 1st April 1912, Bengal was placed under a separate Governor and the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor was abolished.

VICEROYS AND GOVERNORS
GENERAL OF INDIA

Name	Assumed charge of office
Viscount Canning, P.C. (a)	1 Nov 1858
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, K.T., G.C.B., P.C.	12 March 1862
Major-General Sir Robert Napier, K.C.B. (b) (offg.)	21 Nov 1863
Colonel Sir William T. Denton, K.C.B. (offg.)	2 Dec. 1863
The Right Hon. Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.S.I. (c)	12 Jan 1864
The Earl of Mayo, K.P.	12 Jan 1869
John Strachey (d) (offg.)	9 Feb 1872
Lord Napier of Merchiston, K.T. (a) (offg.)	23 Feb 1872
Lord Northbrook P.C. (h)	3 May 1873
Lord Lytton, G.C.B. (g)	13 Apr 1876
The Marquess of Ripon, K.G., P.C. & June 1880	
The Earl of Dufferin K.P. G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C. (i)	13 Dec. 1884
The Marquess of Lansdowne, G.C. K.G.	10 Dec 1885
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine 10	27 Jan 1894
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C.	6 Jan 1899
Baron Amthill (offg.)	30 Apr 1904

Baron Curzon of Kedleston P.C. (i) 13 Dec. 1904
The Earl of Minto K.G., P.C., G.C.
K.G. 18 Nov 1905
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst, P.C.,
G.C.B., G.C.M.G. G.C.V.O., I.S.O. (j) 23 Nov 1910
Lord Chalmersford Apl. 1918
Lord Reading Apl. 1921
Lord Irwin Apl 1926
(a) Created Earl Canning 21 May 1859
(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of
Magdala.
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lawrence
(d) Afterwards Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., G.I.R.
(e) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of
Etchick
(f) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of North-
brook
(g) Created Earl of Lytton 28 April 1880.
(h) Created Marquess of Dufferin and Ava
12 Nov 1885
(i) Created an Earl June 1911
(j) During tenure of office, the Viceroy is Grand
Master and First and Principal Knight of
the two Indian Orders (G.M.S.I., and G.I.R.).
On quitting office he becomes G.C.S.I. and
G.C.I.R. with the date of his assumption
of the Viceroyalty

The Imperial Legislatures.

The gradual evolution of the Indian constitution is fully traced in the article on "The Government of India," which precedes this, so also are the great changes made by the Reform Act of 1919. For the purposes of easy reference the powers of the Legislatures, as well as the special powers reserved to the Governor-General for the discharge of his responsibilities, which are fully set out in the Act are reproduced below—

21 (1) Every Council of State shall continue for five years, and every Legislative Assembly for three years, from its first meeting
Provided that—

(a) either chamber of the legislature may be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General and
(b) any such period may be extended by the Governor-General if in special circumstances, he so thinks fit, and

(c) after the dissolution of either chamber the Governor-General shall appoint a date not more than six months, or with the sanction of the Secretary of State, not more than nine months after the date of dissolution for the next session of that chamber

22 (1) An official shall not be qualified for election as a member of either chamber of the Indian legislature, and, if any non-official member of either chamber accepts office in the service of the Crown in India his seat in that chamber shall become vacant.

(4) Every member of the Governor-General's Executive Council shall be nominated as a member of one chamber of the Indian legislature, and shall have the right of attending in and addressing the other chamber, but shall not be a member of both chambers.

24 (3) If any Bill which has been passed by one chamber is not, within six months after the passage of the Bill by that chamber, passed by the other chamber either without amendments or with such amendments as may be agreed to by the two chambers, the Governor-General may in his discretion refer the matter for decision to a joint sitting of both chambers. Provided that standing orders made under this section may provide for meetings of members of both chambers appointed for the purpose, in order to discuss any difference of opinion which has arisen between the two chambers

(4) Without prejudice to the powers of the Governor-General under section sixty-eight of the principal Act, the Governor-General may where a Bill has been passed by both chambers of the Indian legislature, return the Bill for reconsideration by either chamber

(7) Subject to the rules and standing orders affecting the chamber, there shall be freedom of speech in both chambers of the Indian legislature. No person shall be liable to any proceedings in any court by reason of his speech or vote in either chamber, or by reason of any

thing contained in any official report of the proceedings of either chamber

25 INDIAN BUDGET—(1) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the Governor-General in Council shall be laid in the form of a statement before both chambers of the Indian legislature in each year

(2) No proposal for the appropriation of any revenue or moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the Governor-General

(3) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to the following heads of expenditure shall not be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly, nor shall they be open to discussion by either chamber at the time when the annual statement is under consideration, unless the Governor-General otherwise directs—

(i) interest and sinking fund charges on loans and

(ii) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law, and

(iii) salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty, or by the Secretary of State in Council, and

(iv) salaries of chief commissioners and judicial commissioners, and

(v) expenditure classified by the order of the Governor-General in Council as—

(a) ecclesiastical,

(b) political,

(c) defence

(4) If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of revenue of money, does or does not relate to the above heads the decision of the Governor-General on the question shall be final

(5) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to heads or expenditure not specified in the above heads shall be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly in the form of demands for grants

(6) The legislative assembly may assent or refuse its assent to any demand or may reduce the amount referred to in any demand by a reduction of the whole grant.

(7) The demands as voted by the legislative assembly shall be submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who shall, if he declares that he is satisfied that any demand which has been refused by the legislative assembly is essential to the discharge of his responsibilities, set as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, by the legislative assembly

(8) Notwithstanding anything in this section the Governor-General shall have power, in cases of emergency, to authorise such expenditure as may, in his opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquillity of British India or any part thereof

26 EMERGENCY POWERS—(1) Where either chamber of the Indian legislature refuses leave to introduce or fails to pass in a form recommended by the Governor-General any Bill, the Governor-General may certify that the passage of the Bill is essential for the safety,

tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, and thereupon—

(a) if the Bill has already been passed by the other chamber, the Bill shall, on signature by the Governor-General, notwithstanding that it has not been assented to by both chambers, forthwith become an Act of the Indian legislature in the form of the Bill as originally introduced or proposed to be introduced in the Indian legislature or (as the case may be) in the form recommended by the Governor-General, and

(b) if the Bill has not already been so passed, the Bill shall be laid before the other chamber, and, if assented to by that chamber in the form recommended by the Governor-General, shall become an Act as aforesaid on the signification of the Governor-General's assent, or, if not so assented to shall, on signature by the Governor-General, become an Act as aforesaid

(2) Every such Act shall be expressed to be made by the Governor-General and shall, as soon as practicable after being made, be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and shall not have effect until it has received His Majesty's assent, and shall not be presented for His Majesty's assent until copies thereof have been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat, and upon the signification of such assent by His Majesty in Council and the notification thereof by the Governor-General, the Act shall have the same force and effect as an Act passed by the Indian legislature and duly assented to

Provided that, where in the opinion of the Governor-General a state of emergency exists which justifies such action, the Governor-General may direct that any such Act shall come into operation forthwith, and thereupon the Act shall have such force and effect as aforesaid, subject, however, to disallowance by His Majesty in Council

27 SUPPLEMENTAL PROVISIONS—(1) In addition to the measures referred to in sub-section (2) of section sixty-seven of the principal Act, as requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General it shall not be lawful without such previous sanction to introduce at any meeting of either chamber of the Indian legislature any measure—

(a) regulating any provincial subject, or any part of a provincial subject, which has not been declared by rules under the principal Act to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature,

(b) repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature,

(c) repealing or amending any Act or ordinance made by the Governor-General

(2) Where in either chamber of the Indian legislature any Bill has been introduced or is proposed to be introduced, or any amendment to a Bill is moved, or proposed to be moved, the Governor-General may certify that the Bill or any clause of it, or the amendment affects the safety or tranquillity of British India, or any part thereof, and may direct that no proceedings, or that no further proceedings, shall be taken by the chamber in relation to the Bill, clause, or amendment and effect shall be given to such direction,

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

President — Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla, KCSI, CIE.

Deputy President — Mr R. K. Shanmukham Chetty

A. ELECTED MEMBERS (104)

Constituency	Name.
Madras City (Non Muhammadan Urban)	M. R. By Diwan Bahadur A. Ramaswami Mudaliar
Ganjam cum Vizagapatam (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr B. Sitarama Raju
Godavari cum Kistna (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Mochay Karasimha Rao
Guntur cum Nellore (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr R. By Ponake Govindu Raddy Garu
Madras ceded districts and Chittoor (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr T. N. Ramakrishna Reddi
Salem and Coimbatore cum North Arcot (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr R. K. Shanmukham Chetty †
South Arcot cum Chingleput (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar C. I. E.
Tanjore cum Trichinopoly (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Bahadur G. Krishnamachariar
Madura and Ramnad cum Tinnevely (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr B. Rajaram Pandian
West Coast and Nilgiris (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr K. P. Thampian
North Madras (Muhammadan)	Mahomed Musazam Sahrb Bahadur
South Madras (Muhammadan)	Munvi Sayyid Murtaza Sahrb Bahadur
West Coast and Nilgiris (Muhammadan)	Kotali Uppu Sahrb Bahadur
Madras (European)	Mr William Alexander
Madras Landholders	Raja Sir Vasudeva Rajah Kt CIE
Madras Indian Commerce	Mr Jamal Mahomed Saib
Bombay City (Non Muhammadan Urban)	Mr Nawaji M. Dumasani
Ditto	Sir Cawasji Jehanji, K.C.I.E. OBE,
Siul (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr S. C. Shahanai.
Bombay Northern Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr N. N. Anklaria *
Bombay Central Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla KCSI, CIE *
Bombay Central Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr B. V. Jadhav
Ditto	Mr N. R. Gunjal
Bombay Southern Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Bao Bahadur J. J. Patil
Bombay City (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr Mahomed Ali Jinnah
Siul (Muhammadan Rural)	Sayyid Hafez Aliudulla Harvati
Ditto	Vaswaji Valsarajhiji Ishwarasingh
Bombay (European)	Mr J. J. Sykes
Ditto	Sir Hugh Goughing Locke Kt
The Indian Merchants Chamber and Bureau (Indian Commerce)	Hardar G. N. Wajumdar
Gujarat and Deccan Sardars and Landholders (Landholders)	Mr Hormusji Poonshaw Mody
Bombay Millowners Association (Indian Commerce) **	Mr C. C. Diwasa
Calcutta (Non Muhammadan Urban)	Mr Nabakumar Sing Duthoria
Calcutta Suburbs (Non Muhammadan Urban)	Babu Amarnath Dutt
Burdwan Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Pundit Satyendranath Sen
Presidency Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Kishore Chandra Neogy
Decca Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	

† Elected by President, * Elected President, ** Entitled to representation in rotation

Constituency	Name
Chittagong and Rajshahi Divisions (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr S C Mitra
Calcutta and Suburbs (Muhammadan Urban)	Sir Abdur Rahim K C S I, KT
Burdwan and Presidency Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Dr A Subhawardy
Dacca <i>cum</i> Mymensingh (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr A H Ghuznavi
Bakerganj <i>cum</i> Faridpur (Muhammadan Rural)	Haji Choudhary Mohammad Ismail Khan
Chittagong Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Md Anwarul Asim
Rajshahi Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Kadir ud Din Amed
Bengal (European)	Mr W Arthur Moore M P
Do	Mr F Studd
Do	Mr G Morgan C I F
Bengal Landholders	Mr Dharendra Kanta Lahiri Chaudhury
Bengal National Chamber of Commerce (Indian Commerce)	Mr Satish Chandra Sen
Cities of the United Provinces (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Indra Ramchewar Prasad Bagla
Meerut Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Chaudhri Iqra
Agra Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Bakhubir Singh
Bolikhund and Kumaon Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr C S Banga Iyer
Allahabad and Jhansi Divisions (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr A Hoon
Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr A Das
Lucknow Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr L Brij Kishore
Fyzabad Division (Non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Pandit Tulok Nath Bhargava
Cities of the United Provinces (Muhammadan Urban)	Khan Bahadur Haji Wajiduddin
Meerut Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Hafeez Ismail Ali Khan
Agra Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Muhammad Yaqub Khan
Bolikhund and Kumaon Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Maulvi Muhammad Yakub
United Provinces Southern Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Dr Zia ud Din Ahmad C I F,
Lucknow and Fyzabad Divisions (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Mohamed Asfar Ali
United Provinces (European)	Mr J E Scott
United Provinces Landholders	Jala Hari Rai Swarup
Ambala Division (Non Muhammadan)	Rai Sahib Pandit Haridas
Jailundur Division (Non Muhammadan)	Mr Jagannath Agarwal
West Punjab (Non Muhammadan)	Mr B L Puri
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Houf Lt Nawab Md Ibrahim Ali Khan
East Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Shahk Hadli Hasan
West Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Mian Muhammad Shah Nawaz, C I F
North Punjab (Muhammadan)	Major Nawab Malik Talib Mohd Khan, O B E,
North West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Shahk Fazal Haq Piracha
South West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Makhdum Savad Rajan Bakht Shah
East Punjab (Sikh)	Sirdar Harbans Singh Brar
West Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Sant Singh
Punjab Landholders	Sirdar Sohan Singh
Darbhanga <i>cum</i> Baran (Non Muhammadan)	Pundit Ram Krishna Jha
Muzaffarpur <i>cum</i> Champaran (Non Muhammadan)	Babu Gaya Prasad Singh

Province or body represented	Name
Orissa Division (Non Muhammadan)	Mr B K Misra
Do do	Mr Bhabananda Das
Patna cum Shahabad (Non Muhammadan)	Badr Lal Rustogi
Gaya cum Monghyr (Non Muhammadan)	Kumar Guptaewhar Prasad Singh
Rhagelpur Pargana and the Santhal Parganas (Non Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Sukhra' Rai
Chota Nagpur Division (Non Muhammadan)	Thakur Mohendra Nath Shah Deo
Patna and Chota Nagpur cum Orissa (Muhammadan)	Mr M Matwood Ahmed
Rhagelpur Division (Muhammadan)	Moulvi Badli ur Zaman
Tirhut Division (Muhammadan)	Maulvi Muhammad Shafee Daoodi
Rihar and Orissa Landholders	Mr Bhupat Sing
Nagpur Division (Non Muhammadan)	Rao Bahadur S B Pandit
Central Provinces Hindi Division (Non Muhammadan)	Sir Hari Singh Gour Kt
Do do	Seth I Bahdar (Jaudhry)
Central Provinces (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur H M Wajayatullah, I S O
Central Provinces Landholders	Goswami M P Puri
Assam Valley (Non Muhammadan)	Mr F B Phookun
Burma Valley cum Shillong (Non Muhammadan)	Mr Gopika Ramon Roy
Assam (Muhammadan)	Mr Abdul Malin Chaudhury
Assam (European)	Mr T A Chalmers C S I
Burma (European)	Mr Ichangir K Munshi
Do do	U Kyaw Myint
Do do	U Tun Aung
Burma (European)	Thagat Chandi Mal Gola
Delhi (General)	Bai Sahib Har Bilas Sarda
Ajmer Marwar (General)	

NOMINATED MEMBERS—EXCLUDING THE PRESIDENT (41)

(g) OFFICIAL MEMBERS (26)

Government of India	The Hon Sir George Rainy, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.
Do	The Hon Sir James Crear, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do	The Hon. Sir George Schuster, K.C.M.G., C.B.E., M.C.
Do	The Hon. Sir Brojendra Mitter, Kt
Do	The Hon Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazl-i-Husain, K.C.I.F., Kt
Do	Mr Evelyn Berkeley Howell, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do	Mr Alfred Allen Lethbridge Parsons, C.I.E.
Do	Mr Hubert Arthur Sams, C.I.E.
Do	Mr Gerard Mackworth Young, C.I.E.
Do	Mr Kodikal Sanjiva Row
Do	Mr Clement Wanstrough Gwynne, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do	Mr Tin Tuk
Do	Mr R S Bajpai C.B.E.
Do	Sir Isaacot Graham, K.C.I.E. I.C.S.
Do	Mr J A Phillips
Do	Mr G I Boag C.I.E.
Do	Mr V B Ayyangar
Madras	Mr A N Macmillan.
Do	Mr H Montgomery
Bombay	Mr Joseph Charles French
Do	Mr Rajnarayan Banerji.
Bengal	Mr S Khurshid
Do	Khan Bahadur Malik Allah Baksh Khan
The United Provinces	Tiwana, M.M.
The Punjab	Mr Ran Prashad Narayan Sahi
Rihar and Orissa	Mr Kismet Leland Brewer Hamilton.
The Central Provinces	Mr James H. Lett
Assam	Mr Ernest Frederick Bann
Burma	

Province or body represented	Name
(b) Better representative (1)	Mr S G Jog
(c) Non OFFICIAL MEMBERS (14)	
Bombay	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Rafuddin Ahmed.
Do	Dr R D Dala
Delhi	Mr Keshav Chandra Roy, C.I.E.
Bengal	Rai Bahadur Satya Charan Mukherjee
The Punjab	Sardar Bahadur Sardar Jawahar Singh, C.I.E.
Do	Capt Sher Muhammad Khan Gakhar
Do	Sir Zulfiqar Ali Khan Kt., C.S.I.
Bihar and Orissa	Mr Ramaswami Srinivasa Sarna, C.I.E.
North West Frontier Province	Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul Qayum K.C.I.F.
Associated Chambers of Commerce	Mr L V Heathcote
Indian Christian	Rev Jotish Chandra Chatterjee
The Depressed Classes	Rao Bahadur Murali Chinnathambi Raja
Anglo Indian Community	Lt Col. H. A. J. Gidney
Labour Interests	Mr N. M. Joshi

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.*President*—The Hon ble Sir Henry Mordaunt Smith Kt., C.I.E. J.O.S.**A — ELECTED MEMBERS (13)**

Constituency	Name
Madras (Non Muhammadan)	Diwan Bahadur Sir S. M. Annamalai Chettiyar Kt.
Do	Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar
Do	Mr K. V. Rangaswami Aiyangar
Do	Diwan Bahadur L. Narayanaswami Chetti Garu, C.I.E.
Madras (Muhammadan)	Syed Muhammad Padshah Sahib Bahadur
Bombay (Non Muhammadan)	Sardar Shri Jagannath Maharaj Pandit
Do	Mr Hormusji Munshi Mehta
Do	Sir Phroso C. Sethna, Kt. C.B.E.
Bombay Presidency (Muhammadan)	Shirazi Sahib Sulaiman Cassam Haji
Shed (Muhammadan)	Mr Ali Baksh Muhammad Hussain
Bombay Chamber of Commerce	Mr F. Miller
East Bengal (Non Muhammadan)	Babu Jagadish Chandra Banerjee
West do do	Kumar Vripendra Narayan Sinha
West do do	Mr Satyandra Chandra Ghose Moulik
West Bengal (Muhammadan)	Mr Mahmood Subrawardy
East do do	Mr Syed Abdul Hafeez

Constituency	Name
Bengal Chamber of Commerce	Mr P H Browne, C.B.E.
United Provinces Central (Non Muhammadan)	Raja Sir Rampal Singh, K.C.I.E. of Kurri Sudhauil
United Provinces Northern (Non Muhammadan)	Raj Bahadur Lal Jagdish Prasad
United Provinces Southern (Non Muhammadan)	Raja Sir Moti Chand, C.I.E.
United Provinces West (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad Halim
United Provinces East (Muhammadan)	Maharajah Sir Muhammad Ali M. Khan, K.B., K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. of Mahmudabad
Punjab (Non Muhammadan)	Raj Bahadur Lal Ram Saran Das, C.I.E.
Punjab (Sikh)	Mardar Shivdeo Singh Uthral
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Chandri Muhammad Din
West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Sir Sayad Mohammad Mohr Shah, Kt.
Bihar and Orissa (Non Muhammadan)	Raj Bahadur Badha Krishna Jalan
Do	Raja Raghunandan Prasad Singh
Bihar and Orissa (Muhammadan)	Mr Abu Abdullah Syed Hussain Inam
Central Provinces (General)	Raja Jaxmanrao Bhonsle
Assam (Non Muhammadan)	Bahadur Promode Chandra Dutti
Burma (General)	Mr A. Hamid
Burma Chamber of Commerce	Mr K J Harper

B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS—excluding the President

(a) Official Members (not more than 19 excluding President)

Government of India	His Excellency General Sir Philip Walhouse
Do	Chetwode B. C. K. C. M. S. D.
Do	Sir Brojendra Mitter, Kt.
Do	Sir Joseph Dron, K.C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do	Sir John Percival Thompson, C.B.I.
Do	Mr H W Emerson, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do	Sir Charles Watson, K.C.I.E., C.B.I.
Do	Sir A O McWatters, Kt., C.I.E.
Do	Mr J A Woodhead
Do	Sir Frank Noyce, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do	Maj Gen J W D Megaw, C.I.E., M.B., K.H.P., I.M.S.
Bombay	Mr Jyotananath Ghoshal, C.S.I., C.I.E.
The United Provinces	Mr Abu Abdullah Muhammad Zakauil Khan
The Punjab	Mr Miles Irving, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Bihar and Orissa	Mr J T Whitty, C.I.E.

(b) Barar Representative

Barar Representative	Mr. Ganesh Srikrishna Khaparde.
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(c) Non-Official Members

Madras	Sir Sankaran Nair, Kt.
Do	Mr G A Natesan.
Bombay	Sir Dinsbah Edulji Wacha, Kt.
Bengal	Raja Bijoy Singh Dudhuria of Azimganj
Do	Mr Bijoy Kumar Basu
Central Provinces	Sir Maneckji Byramji Dadabhai, K.C.I.E., Kt.
The United Provinces	Raja Nawab Ali Khan of Akbarpur
The Punjab	Sirdar Charanjit Singh
North-West Frontier Provinces	Major Nawab Mahomed Akbar Khan, C.I.E., Khan of Hoti
Bihar	Mr M D Devadoss

Administrative Divisions.

Provinces.	No of Districts.	Area in Square miles	Population (1921)
Ajmer Merwara	2	2,711	495,899
Andamans and Nicobars		3,148	26,833
Assam	12	52,959	7,506,861
Baluchistan	6	45,804	421,670
Bengal	28	78,412	46,653,177
Bihar and Orissa	21	83,205	33,993,773
Bombay (Presidency)	25	123,064	19,333,586
Bombay	26	75,918	16,005,170
Mad	6	47,066	3,278,493
Aden		80	54,923
Burma	41	236,738	13,205,554
Central Provinces and Berar	22	100,345	13,908,514
Cory	1	1,582	164,453
Delhi			486,741
Madras	24	141,726	42,322,270
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and administered Territories)	5	16,466	2,247,696
Punjab	29	97,209	20,673,393
United Provinces of Agra & Oudh	43	107,164	45,590,948
Agra	36	83,193	33,420,633
Oudh	12	23,966	12,170,303
Total, British Territory	267	1,097,901	247,133,396

States and Agencies	No of Districts.	Area in Square miles	Population (1921).
Baluchistan States		86,511	373,999
Baroda State		8,099	2,121,875
Bengal States		32,773	896,173
Bihar and Orissa			5,965,431
Bombay States		65,761	7,412,341
Central India Agency		73,772	9,180,403
Central Provinces States		31,185	2,068,482
Assam States			333,672
Hyderabad State		82,698	12,453,527
Kashmir State		80,900	3,322,080
Madras States		9,969	5,480,029
Cochin State			979,019
Travancore State			4,005,349
Mysore State		29,444	5,976,660
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal areas)			2,323,065
Punjab States		38,572	4,415,401
Rajputana Agency		127,541	9,367,012
Sikkim			51,722
United Provinces States		5,079	1,134,324
Total, Native States	..	675,267	71,986,786
Grand Total, India..	..	1,773,168	319,076,182

The Bombay Presidency.

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The Bombay Presidency stretches along the west coast of India, from Sind in the North to Kanara in the South. It embraces, with its feudatories and Aden an area of 187,74 square miles and a population of 26,787,648. Of this total 52,453 square miles are in Native States, with a population of 7,412,341. Geographically included in the Presidency but under the Government of India is the first class Native State of Baroda, with an area of 8,182 square miles and a population of 2,082,798.

With effect from the 10th October 1924 the States in the Cutch, Kathiawar and the Palanpur Agencies have been placed under direct political relations with the Government of India. The three agencies have been combined into one, the Western India States Agency, and placed under a first class Resident and Agent to the Governor General with headquarters at Rajkot. The territories under the rule of Indian Princes and Chiefs who are in direct political relations with the Government of Bombay extend now only to an area of about 28,562 sq. miles. The population of these States is about 4 millions and the revenue nearly 5 crores.

The Presidency embraces a wide diversity of soil, climate and people. In the Presidency Proper are the rich plains of Gujarat, watered by the Nerbudda and the Tapi, whose fertility is so marked that it has long been known as the Garden of India. South of Bombay City the province is divided into two sections by the Western Ghats, a range of hills running parallel to the coast. Above Ghats are the Deccan Districts, south of these come the Karnatic districts. On the sea side of the Ghats is the Konkan, a rice growing tract, intercepted by creeks which make communication difficult. Then in the far north is Sind, totally different from the Presidency Proper, a land of wide and monotonous desert except where irrigation from the Indus has brought abounding fertility.

The People

The population varies as markedly as soil and climate. In Sind Mahomedans predominate, Gujarat has remained true to Hinduism although long under the dominion of powerful Mahomedan kings. Here there is an amplitude of caste divisions and a people, who although softened by prosperity, are amongst the keenest trading races in the world. The Deccan peasant has been seasoned by adversity, the saying goes that the Deccan expects a famine one year in every three, and gets it, the population is much more homogeneous than in Gujarat, and thirty per cent. are Mahatras. The Karnatic is the land of the Lingayets, a Hindu reforming sect of the twelfth century, and in the Konkan there is a large proportion of Christians. Four main languages are spoken, Sindhi, Gujarati, Marathi and Kanarese, with Urdu a rough lingua francae where English has not penetrated. The main castes and tribes number five hundred.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports sixty-four per cent. of the population. In Sind the soils are wholly alluvial, and under the influence of irrigation produce yearly increasing crops of wheat and cotton. In Gujarat they are of two classes, the black cotton soil, which yields the famous Broach cottons, the finest in India, and alluvial

which under careful cultivation in Ahmedabad and Kaira makes splendid garden land. The dominant soil characteristic of the Deccan is black soil, which produces cotton, wheat, gram and millets, and in certain tracts rich crops of sugarcane. The Konkan is a rice land, grown under the abundant rains of the submontane regions, and in the south the Dharwar section vies with Broach as the best in India. There are no great perennial rivers suitable for irrigation, and the harvest is largely dependent upon the seasonal rainfall, supplemented by well irrigation. A chain of irrigation works, consisting of canals fed from great reservoirs in the region of unfailing rainfall in the Ghats, is gradually being completed, and this will ultimately make the Deccan immune to serious drought. More than any other part of India the Presidency has been scourged by famine and plague during the past twenty years. The evils have not been unmixed, for tribulation has made the people more self reliant, and the rise in the values of all produce, synchronising with a certain development of industry, has induced a considerable rise in the standard of living. The land is held on what is known as the ryotwari tenure, that is to say each cultivator holds his land direct from Government under a moderate assessment, and as long as he pays this assessment he cannot be dispossessed.

Manufactures

Whilst agriculture is the principal industry, others have no inconsiderable place. The mineral wealth of the Presidency is small and is confined to building stone, salt extracted from the sea, and a little manganese. But the handicrafts are widely distributed. The handloom weavers produce bright-coloured saris, and to a diminishing extent the exquisite khopis of Ahmedabad and Surat. Bombay silver ware has a place of its own, as well as the brass work of Poona and Nashik. But the tendency is to submerge the indigenous handicrafts beneath industry organised on modern lines. Bombay is the great centre in India of the textile trade. This is chiefly found in the headquarter city Bombay.

Number of Looms in Bombay Island	74,825
Number of Spindles in Bombay Island	84,51,176
Number of hands employed in the Textile Industry in Bombay Island	1,29,375
Consumption of Cotton by the Mills in Bombay Island (bales)	5,68,948
Candies of 392 lbs each	
Number of Spindles in Ahmedabad	13,24,160
Number of Looms in Ahmedabad	39,207
Number of Spindles in Sholapore	2,45,507
Number of Looms in Sholapore	5,121
Number of Spindles in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	24,23,82
Number of Looms in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	51,399

Great impetus has been given to Bombay industries by the provision of electric power generated fifty miles away on the Ghats, and the year 1916 witnessed a phenomenal flotation of new industrial companies of almost every description.

The situation of Bombay on the western sea-board in India at once with the principal markets of India and the markets of the West

has given Bombay an immense sea-borne trade. The older ports, Surat, Broach, Cambay and Mandvi, were famous in the ancient days, and their bold and hardy mariners carried Indian commerce to the Persian Gulf and the coasts of Africa. But the opening of the Suez Canal and the increasing size of ocean steamers have tended to concentrate it in modern ports with deep water anchorages, and the sea-borne trade of the Presidency is now concentrated at Bombay and Karachi, although attempts are being made to develop Mormugao in Portuguese territory into an outlet for the trade of the Southern Mahratta Country, and Port Okha as a port of considerable importance for Kathiawar and Gujarat.

Administration

The Presidency is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of four members, with the assistance of three Ministers. The exact change made in the functions of the Provincial Governments is indicated in the section on the Provincial Governments (p. 9) where a description is given of the division of the administration into two branches, the Reserved Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Council and the Transferred Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Ministers, the whole Government commonly meeting and acting as one. In another part of that section the division between Reserved and Transferred subjects is shown. This new form of administration under the Reform Act of 1919 came into operation in January 1921. All papers relating to public service business reach Government through the Secretariat, divided into seven main departments, each under a Secretary (a) Finance, (b) Revenue, (c) Home and Ecclesiastical, (d) Political, (e) General and Educational, (f) Legal, (g) Public Works. The senior of the Civilian Secretaries is entitled the Chief Secretary. The Government frequently moves. It is in Bombay from November to the end of March, at Mahabaleshwar from April to June, in Poona from June to November but the Secretariat is always in Bombay. Under the Governor-in-Council the Presidency is administered by four Commissioners. The Commissioner in Sind has considerable independent powers. In the Presidency Proper there are Commissioners for the Northern Division, with headquarters at Ahmedabad, the Central Division at Poona, and the Southern Division at Belgaum. Each district is under a Collector, usually a Covenanted Civilian, who has under him one or more Civilians as Assistant Collectors, and one or more Deputy Collectors. A collectorate contains on an average from eight to ten talukas, each consisting of from one to two hundred villages whose whole revenues belong to the State. The village officers are the patel, who is the head of the village both for revenue and police purpose, the talati or kulkarni, clerk and accountant, the messenger and the watchman. Over each Taluka or group of villages is the munsifdar, who is also a subordinate magistrate. The charge of the Assistant or Deputy Collector contains three or four talukas. The Collector and Magistrate is over the whole District. The Commissioners exercise general control over the Districts in their Divisions.

The control of the Government over the Native States of the Presidency is exercised through Political Agents.

Justice

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court sitting in Bombay, and comprising a Chief Justice, who is a barrister, and nine puisne judges, either Civilian, Barristers, or Indian lawyers. In Sind the Court of the Judicial Commissioner (The Judicial Commissioner and three Additional Judicial Commissioners) is the highest court of civil and criminal appeal. The growing importance of Karachi and Sind has, however, necessitated the raising of the status of the Judicial Commissioners Court and the passing of the Sind Courts Act in August 1923, which contemplates the creation of a Chief Court for Sind with a Chief Judge and three or more Puisne Judges. The Act, however, has not yet been put into effect owing to financial difficulties. Of the lower civil courts the court of the first instance is that of the Subordinate Judge recruited from the ranks of the local lawyers. The Court of first appeal is that of the District or Assistant Judge, or of a first class subordinate judge with special powers. District and Assistant Judges are Indian Civilian or members of the Provincial Service or the Bar. In cases exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value an appeal from the decision of the Subordinate or Assistant Judge and from the decision of the District Judge in all original suits lies to the High Court. District and Assistant Judges exercise criminal jurisdiction throughout the Presidency, but original criminal work is chiefly disposed of by the Executive District Officers and Resident and City Magistrates. Capital sentences are subject to confirmation by the High Court. In some of the principal cities Special Magistrates exercise summary jurisdiction (Bombay has six Presidency Magistrates, as well as Honorary Magistrates exercising the functions of English Justices of the Peace) and a Court of Small Causes corresponding to the English County Courts.

Local Government

Local control over certain branches of the administration is secured by the constitution of local boards and municipalities, the former exercising authority over a District or a Taluka, and the latter over a city or town. These bodies are composed of members either nominated by Government or elected by the people, who are empowered to expend the funds at their disposal on education, sanitation, the construction of roads and tanks, and general improvements. Their funds are derived from cesses on the land revenue, the toll and ferry funds. The tendency of recent years has been to increase the elective and reduce the nominated element, to allow these bodies to elect their own chairmen, whilst larger grants have been made from the general revenues for water supply and drainage.

The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act of 1925 works further advance in the matter of local Self-Government in the Presidency. The Act provides more adequate basis for Municipal Administration in the larger cities of the Bombay Presidency. The larger municipalities are now styled as Municipal Boroughs which are now 29.

in number. The executives of these Borough Municipalities are invested with larger powers than hitherto exercised. Another important change introduced by the Act was the extension of municipal franchise to owners of dwellings or buildings with annual rental values of Rs 12 or with capital value of not less than Rs 200.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the control of two Chief Engineers who act as Secretaries to the Government, one for Roads, Buildings, Railways, etc. and the other for Irrigation. Under them are Superintending Engineers in charge of Divisions and Executive Engineers in charge of divisions. The Consulting Architect and the Electrical Engineer. The chief irrigation works are in Sind and consist of a chain of canals fed by the annual inundations from the Indus. The Lloyds Barrage and canal project which was inaugurated in 1923 is the greatest irrigation scheme in the world and is designed to ensure the vast areas of fertile land in Sind a regular and constant supply of water. It will enable 5,458,000 acres of crops to be irrigated annually, i.e. about as much area irrigated in Egypt. The scheme is not only vital to the future of Sind but of indirect benefit to the whole of India. The whole scheme is estimated to cost over 15 millions sterling or 20 crores of rupees. In the Presidency proper there is a chain of protective irrigation works, originating in reservoirs in the Ghât regions. The Principal works are the Nira Canals fed by Lake Whiting impounded by the Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar, the Pravara Canals fed by Lake Arthur Hill, impounded by Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, the Mutha Canals fed by Lake Ilfo at Khadakvasla, the Godavari Canals fed by Lake Beale at Nandur Madhmeshwar and the Gokak Canal. The Mutha Canals and the Gokak Canal were completed in 1896-97. The Nira Left Bank Canal in 1906-08, the Godavari Canals in 1916-18 and the Pravara Canals in 1926-27. The Nira Right Bank Canal which has been under construction since 1912 is nearing completion. The Wilson Dam at Bhandardara the second highest yet constructed by Engineers the world over was opened by His Excellency the Governor on 10th December 1926. The Lloyd Dam, at Bhatgar which is 1,333 feet in length, 180 feet in height and 124 feet in width was opened by H. E. Sir Leslie Wilson on 27th October 1926. It cost Rs 172 lakhs. It is remarkable as being the largest Dam in volume hitherto constructed and contains 214 million cubic feet of masonry. The Assuan Dam in Egypt is popularly supposed to be the largest Dam in existence but that contains 19 million cubic feet. It cost also nearly 50 per cent more than the Lloyd Dam. An idea of the magnitude of the Lloyd Dam can be gathered from the fact that if a wall 6 feet high and 15 inches thick were constructed from the masonry in the Dam it would stretch a distance of 520 miles, say from Bombay to Nagpur. These projects will irrigate certain tracts most liable to famine.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into 3 categories, viz., District Police, Railway Police and the Bombay City Police. The District and Railway Police in the Presidency proper are for the

purpose of control under the Inspector-General of Police who is assisted by three Deputy Inspectors-General of whom two are in charge of Ranges and the third is in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and the Finger Print Bureau. District and Railway Police in Sind are under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police for Sind, subject to the control of the Commissioner-in-Sind. The executive management of the Police in each district and on Railways in the Presidency proper as well as in Sind is vested in a Superintendent of Police under the general direction of the Magistrate of the District concerned except in the case of the Railway Police. For the purposes of effective supervision over the investigation and prevention of crime some of the larger districts are divided into one or more Sub-Divisions each under a Sub-Divisional Officer who is either an Assistant Superintendent of Police or an Inspector of Police. A Deputy Superintendent of Police Sub-Inspectors are the officers in charge of Police Stations and are primarily responsible under the law, for the investigation of offences reported at their Police Stations. Officers appointed directly to the posts of Assistant Superintendents of Police, Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors undergo a course of training at the Central Police Training School at Nasik before being posted to Districts for executive duty. The Bombay City Police is a separate force under the Commissioner of Police who is directly responsible to Government.

Education.

Education is imparted partly through direct Government agency, and partly through the medium of grants-in-aid. Government maintain Arts Colleges at Bombay, Amherst, Poona, Ahmedabad and Dhawar, the Grant Medical College, the Poona College of Engineering, the Agricultural College, Veterinary College, School of Art, Law College and a College of Commerce. Most of the secondary schools are in private hands. The primary schools are maintained by Local Authorities, with a grant-in-aid. The Bombay Municipality is responsible for primary education in Bombay City (q.v., Education).

The Quinquennial Report on Public Instruction in the Bombay Presidency for the years 1922-1927 reveals much information regarding the progress of education in recent years. The most notable event of the quinquennium was the passing in 1923 of the Primary Education Act whereby the control of Primary Education was transferred from the Department to the Local Authorities. Most of the Boards have prepared schemes for the expansion of education some of them on a compulsory basis, and many boards have levied additional taxation but the finances of Government have not permitted them to perform to the full the part contemplated by the Act. The fact, however, must not be lost sight of that during the quinquennium the assignments of Government to Primary Education rose from Rs. 97,88,154 to Rs. 1,21,50,848, the greater part of which was swallowed up by the increase in the pay of Primary teachers. It is early to pronounce on the results of the transfer of control of the District Local Board Schools, says the Director.

of Public Instruction "The control now exercised by the Boards is very great—greater, it is believed than in any other Province in India and, except for financial purposes, the supervision of the Department has been reduced to a minimum. The chief result of the Reforms is the emphasis they have given to differences of religion and caste, owing to the system of special representation which they have set up, and nowhere have the evils of communalism been more conspicuous than in the administration of the Primary Schools by the Local Authorities.

The quinquennium has been noticeable for the greater recognition given to the Educational needs of the Backward classes especially in Primary Education and a very liberal system of scholarships in Secondary Schools and Colleges for these classes has been introduced.

Lack of funds has not cramped the activities of Government in the field of Primary Education only. Economy has been the dominating note of the Educational policy throughout the quinquennium. So far from it being possible to provide the funds required for the expansion of Secondary and Higher Education, it has been necessary to exercise retrenchment, and that too in directions in which it could not be applied without educational loss. As one instance only, the Director of Public Instruction mentions the discontinuation of the scheme of Medical Inspection after it had been in existence for a year. Among the chief purposes for which additional funds are required perhaps the most important is that for additional provision for Technical and Industrial Education, including the expansion of the College of Engineering and the establishment of a Technological Institution of an advanced nature. In spite however of the inability of Government to provide all the funds that are required advance has been made, if additional expenditure and increased numbers can be held to be regarded as evidence of advance, and it is a noticeable fact that the expenditure from local sources increased from Rs 125 lakhs to over Rs 183 lakhs or about 47 per cent.

The total number of institutions increased during the quinquennium by 1,373 to 18,211. Recognised institutions increased by 1,542 to 14,784 while unrecognised institutions decreased by 164 to 1,427. Of the recognised institutions, 15 are Arts and 10 Professional Colleges, 529 Secondary Schools, 12,385 Primary Schools and 393 Special Schools.

The total number of recognised and unrecognised educational institutions during the year 1928-29 was 17,042 and the number of pupils 1,230,840.

Out of a total of 26,331 towns and villages 10,679 possessed schools, the average area served by each town or village with a school being 9.6 square miles. The percentage of male scholars under instruction in all kinds of institutions to the total male populations was 9.99 as against 9.48 in the preceding year while that of female scholars under instruction to the female population was 2.71 as against 2.58.

Hindu pupils in recognised institutions numbered 925,197. Muhammadans 206,780, Indian Christians 34,680. Parsis 18,111, Europeans and Anglo-Indians 5,158. Among the rest are included 1,152 Sikhs and 5 Buddhists.

The total expenditure on Public Instruction in 1928-29 was Rs 396 lakhs, of which 49.0 per cent was met from Government funds, 18.2 per cent from Board funds, 18.3 per cent from fees, and 13.9 per cent from other sources. Primary schools absorbed over Rs. 198 lakhs, exclusive of expenditure on inspection, construction and repairs.

The Educational Department is administered by a Director, with an Inspector in each Division and a Deputy or Assistant Inspector in each district.

Higher education in the Presidency is controlled by the Bombay University which was established in 1857. The constitution of the University has recently undergone, however, considerable changes in virtue of a new enactment known as the Bombay University Act of 1928. This Act altered the whole constitution of the University so as to make it adequately representative with a view to bringing into closer association with the public the industrial, commercial and civic life of the people of the Presidency to enable it to provide greater facilities for higher education in all branches of learning including Technology and to undertake on a larger scale than heretofore post-graduate teaching and research, while continuing to exercise due control over the teaching given by colleges affiliated to it from time to time. The authorities of the University as now constituted are chiefly the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Syndicate, the Academic Council and the Senate. The Senate consisting of fellows is the supreme governing body of the University. The number of fellows is 144 of whom 40 are nominated by the Chancellor and 11 are ex officio. The Academic Council consisting of educational experts deals with all purely academic questions. This body works in collaboration with the Syndicate which is the principal executive of the University.

The principal educational institutions are:—

Government Arts Colleges—
Elphinstone College, Bombay, Principal, Mr H. Hamill, M.A.

Islam College, Andheri (Bombay) Principal, Dr M. B. Rahman, M.A. (Punjab), a Ph. D. (Cambridge).

Deccan College, Poona, Principal, Mr H. G. Rawlinson, M.A.

Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Principal, G. Findlay Shiras, M.A., F.R.S. (Oxf.).

Karnatak College, Dharwar, Principal, Mr A. F. Farran, B.A.

Royal Institute of Science, Bombay, Principal, Dr A. N. Meldrum, D.Sc.

Private Arts Colleges—
St. Xavier's, Bombay (Society of Jesus) Principal, Rev. Father Durr, S.J.

Wilson College, Bombay (Scottish Mission) Principal, Rev. J. MacKenzie, M.A.

Fergusson College, Poona (Deccan Educational Society), Principal, M. Mahajan, M.A., B.Sc.

Baroda College, Baroda (Baroda State) Principal, S. G. Barrow, B.Sc.

Bambaldas College, Bhavnagar (Bhavnagar State) Principal, Mr T. K. Shahani, M.A.

Bahadurpuri College, Junagadh State, Principal, Mr M. M. Joshi, M.A.

Sir Parashurambhai College, Poona.
M T B Arts College, Surat
D J Sind College Karachi.
Sind National College Hyderabad
Gokhale Education Society's H P T Arts
College, Nasik
Willingdon College Kupwad (Sangli)

Special Colleges—

Grant Medical College, Bombay (Govern-
ment), Dean Captain S L Bhatia I M S
College of Engineering Poona (Government)
Principal Mr O Graham Smith, O B E.
Agricultural College Poona (Government),
Principal, Dr William Burns
Chiefs College Rajkot, Principal, Mr A
C Miller, O B E
College of Science, Ahmedabad
Law College Bombay Principal Mr V G
Dalvi, I L B (Cantab), Barr-at-Law
College of Commerce Bombay, Principal
Mr M L Tannan
Veterinary College, Bombay, Mr K Hewlett
Baffins Institute, Bombay Director, Major
L A F Anderson I M S
Sir J S School of Art Bombay (Govern-
ment), Director Mr W P G Solomon
Victoria Technical Institute Bombay

Private Professional Colleges—

Soth G S Medical College Bombay, Principal
Dr Jivraj Mehta
V E D Civil Engineering College Karachi
Law College Poona
Sir Lalubhai Shah Law College Ahmedabad
Sind Collegiate Board's Law College, Karachi

Medical

The Medical Department is in the charge
of the Surgeon-General who is a member of the

I M S, and Public Health in that of the
Director of Public Health, who is a non I M S
Officer Civil Surgeons stationed at each district
headquarters are responsible for the medical
work of the district whilst sanitation is
entrusted to one of the Assistant Directors of
Public Health Four large hospitals are maintain-
ed by the Government to Bombay, and the
accommodation in them has been recently
increased by 800 beds in one hospital and 120
beds in another hospital Well-equipped hospitals
exist in all important up-country stations.
Over 3,703,000 persons including 99,400 in
patients are treated during the year 1928 The
Presidency contains 6 Lunatic Asylums and 16
institutions for the treatment of Lepers.
Vaccination is carried out by a staff under the
direction of the Director of Public Health.
Sanitary work has received an immense stimulus
from the large grants made by the Government
from time to time

Finance

Under the Reform Scheme of 1919 Provincial
Finance entered on a new phase Before the
passing of this Act Provincial finance was incor-
porated in Imperial Finance The Provinces
had certain heads of revenue of their own and
other heads which they divided with the Govern-
ment of India By the new constitution a
comparatively clean cut was made between the
finances of the Government of India and those
of the Provinces Such revenues as they enjoy
the Provinces enjoy in full, and in return they
make cash contributions to the Government of
India, fixed for a term of years. The general
principle underlying this settlement is that
those contributions shall gradually disappear
These contributions have now been remitted.

Estimated Revenue for 1930-31

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE		Rs
V	Land Revenue	5,12,11,000
VI	Taxies	3,89,00,000
VII	Stamps	1,73,53,000
VIII	Forests	78,91,000
IX	Registration	12,00,000
IXA	Scheduled Taxes	19,64,000
Total		11,85,19,000
<i>Irrigation, Navigation Embankment, &c</i>		
XIII	Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	52,24,000
XIV	Work for which no Capital Accounts are kept	16,82,000
Total		68,56,000
<i>Debt Service</i>		
XVI	Interest	1,45,01,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
XVII	Administration of Justice	16,80,000
XVIII	Jails and Convict Settlements	5,08,000
XIX	Police	19,04,000
XXI	Education	12,69,000
XXII	Medical	18,10,000
XXIII	Public Health	11,74,000
XXIV	Agriculture	3,43,000
XXV	Industries	4,000
XXVI	Miscellaneous Departments	1,85,000
Total		84,89,000

<i>Civil Works</i>		Rs
XXX	Civil Works	17,86,000
XXXI	Bombay Development Scheme	27,64,000
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
XXXII	Transfers from Famine Fund	9,00,000
XXXIII	Receipts in aid of Superannuation	15,00,000
XXXIV	Stationery and Printing	4 00,000
XXXV	Miscellaneous	2,40 000
Total		77,00,000
XL	Extraordinary Receipts	13,31,000
Total Revenue		15,73,86 000
<i>Civil Works and Miscellaneous public improvements receipts not charged to Revenue</i>		
Debt heads —		
Deposits and advances Loans and advances by provincial Government		5 85,50 000
Advances from provincial Loan Fund		2,24,30,000
Opening Balance		
Grand Total		23,83,46,000
Estimated Expenditure for 1930-31		
DIRECT DEMANDS ON THE REVENUE		
		Rs
5	Land Revenue	64,80 000
6	Excise	42,32,000
7	Stamps	2,70,000
8	Forest	41,97 000
9A	Forest Capital outlay	2,26,000
9	Registration	6,74,000
9A	Scheduled Taxes	20,000
Total		1,00 00,000
<i>Irrigation, Embankment &c, Revenue Account</i>		
14	Interest on works for which Capital Accounts are kept	68,28,000
15	Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	19,48,000
16	(1) Other Revenue Expenditure financed from famines Insurance Grants	6 70,000
16	Construction of Irrigation Works	10 00,000
Total		94,41,000
<i>Debt Service</i>		
19	Interest on Ordinary Debt	1 88,81,000
20	Interest on other obligations	2 07 000
21	Reduction or avoidance of debt	14 00,000
Total		2 00 07,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
22	General Administration	2,25 21,000
24	Administration of Justice	74,00,000
25	Jails and Convict Settlements	24,12,000
26	Police	1,78,18,000
27	Ports and Pilotage	9,000
29	Scientific Departments	62,000
31	Education	2,10,03,000
32	Medical	53,76,000
33	Public Health	29,04,000
34	Agriculture	30,08,000
35	Industries	1,80,000
37	Miscellaneous Departments	4,42,000
Total		8,81,98,000

		Civil Works	Rs
41	Civil Works		1,19,58,000
42	Bombay Development Scheme		32,91,000
		Total	1,52,49,000
		Miscellaneous	Rs
43	Famine Relief and Insurance		58,98,000
45	Superannuation Allowances and Pensions		15,17,000
46	Stationery and Printing		16,18,000
47	Miscellaneous		
		Total	90,31,000
51 & 51A Contribution and Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments			37,71,000
Expenditure in England			
		Total Expenditure charged to revenue	1,52,49,000
		Capital Account not charged to Revenue	
50	Construction of Irrigation Works		4,21,19,000
51	Bombay Development Scheme		1,92,40,000
51A	Capital outlay		8,87,000
50	Capital outlay for Civil Works (P. W.)		24,48,000
50A	Other Provincial works not charged to Revenue		65,000
50B	Payments of commuted value of Pensions		7,84,000
Debts, Deposits and Advances			8,72,38,000
		Total Disbursement	21,47,48,000
		Closing balance	1,67,64,000
		Grand Total	23,53,48,000

Governor and President-in-Council
H F The Right Hon ble Sir Frederick Hugh
Stiles P.C., C.I.E., C.B., K.C.S.I., C.M.G.,
C.S.I.

Personal Staff

Private Secy.—R M Maxwell, C.I.E., C.B., J.P.
Mdy Secretary—Major H G Vaux, C.S.I.,
C.I.E., M.V.O., J.P.
Surgeon—Major D C Scott, O.B.E., R.A.M.C.
Aides-de-Camp—Captain C E Morrison M.C.
Leicestershire Regt Captain J H Cawley
Way Royal Marines Lieut B A J Peto
1st King's Dragoon Guards Lieut C E
Battlecombe, Durham Light Infantry
Hon Aides-de-Camp—Captain E V Whish
O.B.E., R.N., Principal Officer Mercantile
Marine Department, Bombay District, Major
F Seymour Williams, 3 (Bomb.) Coy D.A.O., R.
N., A.F.L., Meherban Shankarrao Parashramrao
Ramchandra alias Appa Babhe Patwardhan
Chief of Jamkhandi, Honorary Captain
Meherban Malojirao Madohjiro alias
Nana Babhe Naik Nimbalkar, Chief
of Phaltan Honorary Captain Kumar
Shri Maharajghil of Baris, Sardar Ghulam
Hani Bijlekhan of Wal
Hon. Capt Shakti Yash Sardar Bahadur, I.D.
S.M. Late 10th Mahratta Light Infantry

Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Bodyguard—
Captain T C Crichton, M.C., Hon Lieut,
3rd Cavalry
Lieut. R S Wright of the Royal Deccan Horse
Adjutant, H. E. the Governor's Body Guard
Hon. Aides-de-Camp—Rao Bahadur Laksh-
mi Singh, 8th King George's Own Light
Cavalry

Members of Council and Ministers
The Hon Sir Ernest Hobson, K.C.S.I., I.O.S.
(Home), The Hon Sir Gulam Husein Hidayat-
allah, Kt, B.A., LL.B., J.P. (General), The Hon
Mr G R Pradhan, B.A., LL.B., J.P. (Finance),

The Hon ble Mr Walter Frank Hudson, B.A.,
C.I.E., I.C.S. (Revenue) The Hon Khudvi
Rafuddin Ahmad, Bar-at-Law, J.P. (Educa-
tion), The Hon Sardar Sir Rustom Jehangir
Vakil, Kt, (Local Self Govt) and The Hon
Dewan Bahadur S T Kumbli, B.A., LL.B.
(Agriculture)

The Educational portfolio includes, among
other subjects, Medical Administration, Pub-
lic Health, Sanitation and Industrial De-
velopment. The Minister of Local Self Govern-
ment also deals with Public Works (roads
and buildings) and the Civil Veterinary De-
partment while Forest Excise, Co-operative
Societies, Registration and some other matters
are in charge of the Minister of Agriculture

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT

Chief Secretary, Revenue Department.—R. D.
Bell C.I.E., M.A., B.Sc., I.O.S.

Home and Ecclesiastical Department.—G F S.
Collins, M.A. C.B.E., I.C.S.

Political Department.—C W A Turner C.I.E.,
B.A., I.O.S.

Secretary, General, and Educational Departments—
R B Ewbank, C.I.E., B.A. (Oxon), F.R.S.
I.C.S. J.P.

Secretary, Finance Department.—Gilbert Wiles,
B.A., I.O.S.

Legal Department and Remembrance of Legal
Affairs.—D D Nanavati, I.O.S.

Public Works Department.—Denis Robert
Howe Browns O.B.E.

Public Works Department, Joint Secretary—
C M Lams

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS

Advocate-General—Sir Jamshedji Behramji
Kanga, Kt M.A., LL.B.

Inspector-General of Paltos—F O Griffith,
C.S.I., O.B.E.

Director of Public Instruction—R H Beckett,
C.I.E., I.O.S.

<i>Surgeon-General</i> —Major General W C H Forster, M.B., V.C.S., I.M.S.	1771
<i>Oriental Translator</i> —Sayed Moniruddin S. Moulvi	1784
<i>Chief Conservator of Forests</i> —H L Newman	1785
<i>Talukdar, Settlement Officer</i> —L Gawan (a), I.C.S.	1788
<i>Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records</i> —A W W Mackie, I.C.S.	1788
<i>Director of Agriculture</i> —Dr F F Main, O.B.P. D.S.O.	1790
<i>Registrar of Co-operative Societies</i> —V S Bhilde, I.C.S.	
<i>Municipal Commissioner, Bombay</i> —A R Dolal, I.C.S.	
<i>Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University</i> —The Hon Mr Justice Mirza Ali Akbar Khan	
<i>Registrar, Bombay University</i> —N B Dongrkar, B.A., LL.B.	
<i>Commissioner of Police, Bombay</i> —A S Wilson	
<i>Director of Public Health</i> —Dr A De Gama, L.M.S., D.P.H., D.M.S. & H.	
<i>Accountant-General</i> —K T Coates, I.C.S.	
<i>Inspector-General of Prisons</i> —Major F A Doyle, D.S.O., I.M.S.	
<i>Postmaster-General</i> —G V Bewoor, I.C.S.	
<i>Collector of Salt Revenue</i> —H T Borley, M.A., L.B.	
<i>Commissioner of Excise</i> —J P Brauder, M.A., I.C.S.	
<i>Collector of Customs</i> —F A Stewart, I.C.S.	
<i>Consisting Surveyor to Government</i> —I H G Stanger, M.S., M.O.	
<i>Registrar of Companies</i> —H C B Mitchell	
<i>Director of Information and Labour Intelligence</i> —J Y Gonnings Bar-at Law	
<i>Sheriff</i> —Phiroz Shah J Murzban	
GOVERNORS OF BOMBAY	
Sir Abraham Shipman	1662
Died on the island of Anjediva in Oct	1664
Humphrey Cooke	1665
Sir George Lucas	1666
Died 21st May 1667	
Captain Henry Garey (<i>Officiating</i>)	1667
Sir George Oxenden	1666
Died in Surat, 14th July 1669	
Gerald Aungler	1669
Died in Surat, 30th June 1677	
Thomas Bolt	1677
Sir John Child, Bart.	1681
Bartholomew Harris	1690
Died in Surat, 10th May 1694	
Daniel Annealey (<i>Officiating</i>)	1694
Sir John Gayer	1694
Sir Nicholas Waite	1704
William Ainslie	1708
Stephen Strutt (<i>Officiating</i>)	1715
Charles Boone	1715
William Phipps	1722
Robert Cowan	1729
Dismissed	
John Horne	1734
Stephen Law	1739
John Geekie (<i>Officiating</i>)	1742
William Wake	1742
Richard Bourcheier	1750
Charles Crommelin	1760
Thomas Hodges	1767
Died, 23rd February 17	
William Hornby	1771
Rawson Hart Boddam	1784
Rawson Hart Boddam	1785
Andrew Ramsay (<i>Officiating</i>)	1788
Major-General William Medows	1788
Major General Sir Robert Abercromby, K.C.B. (a)	1790
George Dick (<i>Officiating</i>)	1792
John Griffith (<i>Officiating</i>)	1795
Jonathan Duncan	1795
Died 11th August 1811	
George Brown (<i>Officiating</i>)	1811
Sir Evan Nepean, Bart.	1812
The Hon Mountstuart Elphinstone	1819
Major-General Sir John Malcolm G.C.B.	1827
1st General Sir Thomas Sidney Beck with K.C.B.	1830
Died, 15th January 1831.	
John Bomer (<i>Officiating</i>)	1831
The Earl of Clare	1831
Sir Robert Grant, G.C.H.	1835
Died, 9th July 1838	
James Farish (<i>Officiating</i>)	1838
Sir J Rivett-Carnac, Bart.	1839
Sir William Hay Macnaghten, Bart. (b)	
George William Anderson (<i>Officiating</i>)	1841
Sir George Arthur Bart., K.C.H.	1842
Leacock Robert Reid (<i>Officiating</i>)	1846
George Russell Clerk	1847
Viscount Falkland	1848
Lord Elphinstone G.C.H., P.C.	1853
Sir George Russell Clerk K.C.B. (2nd time)	1860
Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frece K.C.B.	1862
The Right Hon William Robert Seymour	1867
Vasey FitzGerald	
Sir Philip Edmond Wodehouse K.C.B.	1873
Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I.	1877
Lionel Robert Ashburner C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1880
The Right Hon Sir James Fergusson, Bart. K.C.M.G.	1880
James Braithwaite Pelle C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1885
Baron Reay	1885
Baron Harris	1899
Herbert Mills Birdwood C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1895
Baron Sandhurst	1895
Baron Northcote C.B.	1900
Sir James Montezath, K.C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1903
Baron Lamington G.C.M.G., G.C.I.F.	1903
J W P Muir-Mackenzie, C.S.I. (<i>Acting</i>)	1907
Sir George Sydenham Clarke, G.C.M.G., G.C.I.F. (c)	1907
Baron Willington, G.C.I.F.	1913
Sir George Ambrose Lloyd, G.C.M.G., D.S.O. (d) 1915	
Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.F., C.M.G., D.S.O.	1923
Sir Frederick Hugh Sykes, P.C., G.C.I.F., G.C.M.G., K.C.B. O.M.G.	1928
(a) Proceeded to Madras on duty in Aug. 1793 and then joined the Council of the Governor-General as Commander-in-Chief in India on the 28th Oct. 1793	
(b) Was appointed Governor of Bombay by the Honourable the Court of Directors on the 6th Aug. 1841, but, before he could take charge of his appointment, he was assassinated in Calcutta on the 23rd Dec. 1841.	
(c) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Sydenham	
(d) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lloyd.	

BOMBAY LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

The Hon. Sir Ali Mahomed Khan Dehlavi Kt., President

Mr. Vando J. Knath Navle, Deputy President

ELECTED MEMBERS

Name and class of Constituency	Name of Member
Bombay City (North) (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Rao Palindur R. V. Asavak Mr. A. N. Surve Dr. M. D. D. Gilder Dr. Joseph Allen D. Souza Dr. J. A. Collins Mr. B. P. Wagle Mr. Gover Rora
Bombay City (South) (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Iestonshah N. Vakil Sardar Datar Temures Kavaji Modi Mr. Vishnu Ganesh Velehanpawar Mr. Jaxmap Raghunath Goidhale Mr. Sahelsinhji Juvansinhji Mr. Burtomji Jehangirji
Karachi City (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Madhavsang Jorbbai
Ahmedabad City (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Rao Sahab Bhagwandas Girdhardas Desai
Surat City (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Chaturbhai Karshidhai Patel
Sholapur City (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Manilal Harilal Melita
Poona City (Non Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Hoseamal Baharmal Shivasani
Ahmedabad District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Bhimlal Ranchhodji Kalk
Baruch District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Shaikarao Jayramrao Fuzkarrao
Kaira District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Manichershaw Manekji Karbhari
Janam Mahala District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Nandev Eknath Navle
Surat District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Ganesh Krishna Chitale
Phana and Bomlay Suburban Districts (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Dongarsing Ramji Patil
Ahmednagar District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Sahel Yaman Sampat Patil
East Khandesh District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Vithal Nathji Patil
Vasik District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Gopalrao Yaman Pradhan
Poona District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Sahel Ramchandra Vithalrao Vandekar
Satara District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Gangayirao Mukundrao Kalbhur
Nelgaum District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Sahel Pandurang Dayaneshwar Kulkarni
Bhujpur District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Khan Bahadur Dhanjibhai Bonzanjee Cooper
Dharwar District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Anuram Bhimaji Achrekar
Kanara District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Ramchandrarao Bapurao Shinde
Ratnagiri District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur S. N. Angadi
Eastern Sind (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. P. R. Chikodi
Western Sind (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Shankarappa Basalingappa Desai
Kolapur District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Shuddappa Totappa Kambl
Shoabe District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Vishwanathrao Narayan Jog
West Khandesh District (Non Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Jaxminarayan Thimmaobhatta Karkil
Bombay City (Muhammadan) Urban	Rao Bahadur Laxman Vahnu Parulekar
Karachi City (Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Vyankat Anandray Surte
Ahmedabad and Surat Cities (Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Dulmal Lilaram
Poona and Sholapur Cities (Muhammadan) Urban	Mr. Satranadas Sekhawatrai Jolani
The Northern Division (Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Jaywant Ghanshyam More
	Mr. Narayan Nagoo Patil
	Mr. Nandorao Budhahiro
	Mr. Husenali Mahomed Rahimtulla
	Mr. Gulamhussein Ibrahim Matcheswalla
	Mr. Muhammad Baloch
	Khan Bahadur Mehmudulmizja Imambukh Kadri
	Khan Bahadur Abdul Latif Haji Hafiz Khan Pathan
	Mr. Alibhai Leabhai Patel
	Sir Ali Mahomed Khan Dehlavi
	Mr. Jalaluddin Sayedman Kadri.

Name and class of Constituency	Name of Member
The Central Division (Muhammadan) Rural	The Hon ble Moulana Moulvi Ruffuddin Ahmed Mr. Moherbakshi,
The Southern Division (Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Shaikh Abdul Aziz Abdul Jattif Mr. Abdul Kadir Jamsuddin Bangi Mr. Haji Ibrahim Jucker Mr. Mahabooobkhan Mahamed Akbarkhan Mr. Bhradar Nawab
Hyderabad District (Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Banchhalli Khan Mir Muhammad Hassan Khan Talpur Sayyid Miran Muhammad Shah Zauulabdin Shah
Karachi District (Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Shaikh Abdul Mufid I. Haran Mr. Ghulam Hyder Shah Sahibzade Shah
Larkana District (Muhammadan) Rural	Sir Shah Nawaz Khan Ghulam Murtaza Khan Bhutto Khan Bahadur Muhammad Ayub Shah Muhammad J. Juhro
Sukkur District (Muhammadan) Rural	Wadero Wahidbakshi Ilahibakshi Bhutto Khan Sahel Allahibakshi Khan, son of Khan Sahib Haji Mahomed Unsur Khan Bahadur Jan Mahomed Khan, son of Khan Sahib Shah Pasand Khan Khan Bahadur Ghulam Aabulshah Manjilshah Mr. Jannmahomed Khan Wailmahomed Khan Khan Bahadur Jam Jan Mahomed Waleed Ma- hommed Sharif Junjo
Upper Sind Frontier District (Muhammadan) Rural	Khan Bahadur Sher Muhammad Khan Karam Khan Bijarani
Bombay City (European)	Mr. Reginald Arthur Spence
Presidency (European)	Mr. A. C. Owen
Deccan Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders)	Mr. Hanmantroo Ramrao Desai
Gujarat Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders)	Sardar Ithasahab allaz Dulabava Raisingli, Thakor of Kerwada
Jagirdars and Famlndars (Sind) (Landholders)	Mr. Sayed Muhammad Kaulshah Qabul Muham- mad Shah
Bombay University (University)	Rao Bahadur Ravaji Ramchandra Kale
Bombay Chamber of Commerce and Industry	John Robertson Abercrombie Sir Leslie Hudson
Karachi Chamber of Commerce and Industry	Mr. John Humphrey O. B. E. Mr. A. Greville Bullocke
Bombay Trades Association Commerce and Industry	Mr. Hormusji Peroshaw Mody
Bombay Millowners Association, Commerce and Industry	No Nomination
Ahmedabad Millowners Association Commerce and Industry	No Nomination
Indian Merchants Chamber and Bureau, Commerce and Industry	No Nomination

NOMINATED

Non-Officials

Mr. S. H. Prater
The Rev. E. S. Modak
Mr. Sitaram Keshav Bole
" Syed Munawar B. A.
" E. E. Bakhalo
Dr. B. B. Ambodkar, Bar-at-Law
" Parbhokham Salunkhe, L. M. & S.
Major W. Ellis Jones
Mr. B. S. Kamat

Officials

Mr. C. G. Freke, L.C.S.
" J. R. Garrett, C.B.I., I.C.S.
" C. M. Lano
" D. B. H. Browne, C.B.I.
" G. F. S. Collins, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.
" W. W. Smart, I.C.S.
" C. W. A. Turner, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" D. D. Nanavati, I.C.S.
" " S. C. Harrison, C.I.E.
" S. A. C. Green, L.C.S.
" G. W. L. O.S., C.I.E., I.C.S.
" A. W. W. Mackie, L.C.S.
" J. P. Brander, I.C.S.
" R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" E. D. Bell, C.I.E., I.C.S.

The Madras Presidency.

The Madras Presidency occupies the whole southern portion of the Peninsula, and, excluding the Indian States, most of which have now come under the direct control of the Government of India, has an area of 141,075 square miles. It has on the east, on the Bay of Bengal a coast line of about 1,300 miles, on the south on the Arabian Sea, a coast line of about 400 miles. In all this extent of coast, however, there is not a single natural harbour of any importance, the ports, with the exception of Madras and perhaps of Cochin, are merely open roadsteads. A plateau varying in height above sea level from about 100 to about 800 feet and stretching northwards from the Nilgiri Hills occupies the central area of the Presidency on either side are the Eastern and the Western Ghats which meet in the Nilgiris. The height of the western mountain chain has an important effect on the rain fall. Where the chain is high the intercepted rain clouds give a heavy fall which may amount to 150 inches on the seaward side, but comparatively little rain falls on the landward side of the range. Where the chain is low, rain clouds are not checked in their westward course. In the central table land on the east coast the rainfall is small and the heat in summer excessive. The rivers which flow from west to east in their earlier course drain rather than irrigate the country but the deltas of the Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery are productive of fair crops even in time of drought and are the only portions of the east coast where agriculture is not dependent on a rainfall rarely exceeding 40 inches and apt to be untimely.

Population.

The population of the Presidency was returned at the census of 1921 as 42,794,156, an increase over the figure of 1911 of 22 per cent. The tendency has been for the more densely populated portions of the province to increase their numbers while the sparsely inhabited tracts have still further declined in density. Hindus account for 89 per cent of the population. Mahomedans for 7, Christians for 8, Animists for 1. The vast majority of the population is of the Dravidian race and the principal Dravidian languages, Tamil and Telugu are spoken by 18 and 16 million persons respectively. Of every thousand people, 410 speak Tamil, 377 speak Telugu, 73 Malayalam, 37 Oriya, 35 Canarese and 23 Hindustani.

Government

The Madras Presidency is governed on the system generally similar to that obtaining in Bombay and Bengal. There are associated with the Governor four members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. Madras administration differs, however in some important respects from that of other major provinces. There is no intermediate local authority between the Collector of the District and the authorities at head quarters. Commissioners of Divisions being unknown in Madras. Another feature peculiar to the Southern Presidency is the manner of choice of the ministers. Following the practice of the Mother of Parliaments, Madras Governors

have, ever since the inception of the Reforms, called upon the leader of the dominant party to form a ministry giving him freedom to select his colleagues on the ministry. Consequently he enjoys the status of Chief Minister—unknown in other provinces in India.

Agriculture and Industries.

The principal industry of the province is agriculture in which 66 per cent of the population is engaged. The principal food crops are rice, cholam, ragi and kamhu. The industrial crops are cotton, sugar-cane and groundnuts. Agricultural education is rapidly progressing in the Presidency with a well known college at Coimbatore with classes for juvenile and adult labourers attached to it one agricultural middle school and numerous demonstration farms. The opening of two more schools have been sanctioned. One of the two sanctioned schools has since been opened by the District Board for the benefit of the Kullars at Uthampettai. While paddy which is the staple food of the population occupies the largest cultivable area cotton is by no means an inconsiderable crop of the province and is receiving close attention at the hands of local agricultural authorities. The area under cotton is estimated at 2,484,775 acres and, as in the case of paddy efforts are being made to produce better strains of cotton suited to different localities by means of both selection and hybridisation. Side by side with an increase in the area under cotton there has been a strict exclusion of inferior cotton from existing good staple areas while improved varieties have been systematically introduced. A special feature of the agricultural activities in the Presidency is the large industry which the planting community have built up, contributing substantially to the economic development of the province. They have organised themselves as a registered body under the title of The United Planters Association of South India on which are represented Coffee tea rubber and a few other minor planting products. The aggregate value of such exports of the Presidency which was Rs 1,14,70,98,099 in 1928-29 has declined to Rs 1,11,43,58,901 in 1929-30. As in other provinces the forest resources are exploited by Government. There are close upon 19,000 square miles of reserved forests.

There are 28 cotton mills in the Presidency which employ 32,866 operatives. Minor industrial concerns number over 120 and consist of oil mills, rope tile works etc. Tanning is one of the principal industries of the Presidency, and there is considerable export trade in skins and hides although hide tanners have not been doing well of late and suffered from the present commercial depression. The manufacturing activities which are at present under the direction of the Department of Industries are mainly confined to the production of soap. The match making industry is just raising its head in Madras. There are 28 indigenous match factories run on cottage lines. In 1927, the Council complied with a demand made by the minister in charge of Industries for funds for appointing a special officer to conduct an exhaustive survey

of the existing and potential cottage industries in the Presidency. The Special Officer has concluded his survey. His reports have been published. The report of the Cottage Industries Committee appointed at the instance of the Legislative Council to examine the Special Officer's report and to submit proposals to Government for an effective organisation of such of the industries as deserve encouragement has also been published for general information. The recommendations of the Committee are under the consideration of Government. The aggregate value of seaborne trade of the Presidency which was Rs. 174,70,38,699 in 1925-26 has declined to Rs. 111,43,56,981 in 1928-29. As in other provinces, the forest resources are exploited by Government. There are close upon 19,000 square miles of reserved forests.

Education.

The Presidency's record in the sphere of education has been one of continuous progress. There are at present about 56,000 public institutions ranging from village primary schools to arts and professional colleges. Their total strength being about 2,729,000. Special efforts are being made to provide education for boys belonging to the Depressed Classes. The Council passed a resolution in the year 1927 at the instance of a nominated member that poor girls reading in any educational institution in the province—Government local fund Municipal or aided—should be exempted from school fees in any Standard up to III Form. The total expenditure of the province on Education is in the neighbourhood of Rs. 542 lakhs. The principal educational institutions in the province are the Madras Andhra and Annamalai Universities, the Presidency College, the Christian College, the Loyola College, the Pachaiyappa's College, and the Queen Mary's College for Women, Madras, the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, the Government College, Kumbakonam, the Government College, Rajamundry, the Maharaja's College, Trivandrum, the Agricultural College, Coimbatore, the Medical Colleges at Madras and Vizagapatam and the Engineering College at Madras (Guindy).

Cochin Harbour Scheme

The Government of Madras and the authorities of the Cochin and Travancore States have come to an agreement regarding the financing of the Cochin Harbour scheme. The importance of this project lies in the fact that a good harbour at Cochin would lead to the development of a valuable hinterland which is at present far removed from any convenient port. The scheme is to cut a passage through the bar which blocks the entrance from the sea to an extensive backwater. A trial cut was made in 1922 and the effect of the monsoon thereon observed. The results recorded were examined by a committee of Harbour Engineers in England which reported favourably on the prospects of the scheme. The cutting of a passage through the bar was completed by 31st March 1929. A buoyed dredged channel leads from the outer roads into the harbour a distance of about 2½ miles. The least depth of water in the channel is 24 feet at L.W.O.S. and it is practicable at all seasons of the year for vessels drawing up to 30 feet. Inside

the harbour vessels lie at single buoys and swing to the tide. Small steamers and sailing craft are moored with their own gear. Vessels up to 500 feet in length can at present be accommodated at two of the buoys and vessels up to 475 feet in length at three buoys. Further developments are taking place with the object of making the port into a first class harbour. The port is connected with the hinterland by rail and water transport. The Railway facilities will probably be increased in the course of the next few years, and this circumstance will further enhance the importance of the Port to the planting and producing Districts of South India.

Vizagapatam Harbour Project.

Even more pregnant with future possibilities is the scheme for the development of the Vizagapatam harbour. The Vizagapatam Harbour is constructed under the control of the Government of India. Proposals for the development of the port at this place have been under consideration since 1898 but the success of the project is bound up with the construction of direct railway communication between Vizagapatam and the Central Provinces for the quantity of trade which could be obtained from the littoral itself is insufficient to justify the capital expenditure which would be required. In May 1925 the Government of India declared Vizagapatam a major port thereby enabling the development of the port under the directions of the Central Government. Preliminary operations commenced in the end of the year and were continued vigorously in 1926 with the aid of dredgers and rock breakers. It is expected that the construction of the harbour will take four or five years. The surrounding hill-sides and adjacent areas will meanwhile be developed for industrial trading and residential purposes.

Local Self Government

Local bodies in the Madras Presidency are administered under the following Acts—
The Madras (31) Municipal Act 1911
The Madras District Municipalities Act 1920, as amended by Madras Act X of 1930 and
The Madras Local Boards Act 1920, as amended by the Madras Act XI of 1930.

The amending Acts of 1930 which came into force on the 26th August 1930 provide *inter alia* for the abolition of the system of nominations to local bodies for the inclusion of village panchayats within the scope of the Madras Local Boards Act with a view to making the village the unit of local self government for direct elections to district boards for the provincialisation of officers and servants of local boards and municipal councils for the removal or the disqualification of women as such in respect of elections to municipal councils and for the cessation of office of the President or Chairman on a motion of non confidence being passed against him.

2. Local bodies are now enabled to levy a tax on entertainments given within their jurisdiction under the Madras Local Authorities Entertainments Tax Act 1926.

Irrigation

In March 1929, the Secretary of State sanctioned the Cauvery Reservoir Project, the estimated cost of which amounted to 2½ millions. The project has been framed with two

main objects in view. The first is to improve the existing fluctuating water supplies for the Cauvery Delta irrigation of over a million acres the second is to extend irrigation to a new area of 801,000 acres which will, it is estimated add 150,000 tons of rice to the food supply of the country. The scheme which is expected to be completed before 1934 provides for a large dam at Mettur on the Cauvery to store 92,500 million cubic feet of water and for a canal nearly 85 miles long with a connected distributary system. Owing to the necessity for providing adequate surplus arrangements to dispose of floods similar to the phenomenal floods of 1924 and to other causes the estimate had to be revised and the revised estimate stands at about \$ 55 millions. Another important project is the Periyar project which is intended not only for irrigation purposes but also for providing water power for generating electricity. Taking its rise in the Western Ghats the river flows into the Arabian Sea through Travancore State territory. After prolonged negotiations, the Travancore Durbar consented to the water being caught and stored in the Travancore hills for being diverted towards the East. Some three thousand feet above sea-level a concrete and masonry dam has been constructed and nearly 50 feet below the crest-level of the dam a channel through the summit of the range carries the waters into the eastern water-shed where they are led into the river Vaigai. The total quantity of water impounded to crest level is 15,000 million cubic feet. By this work a river ordained by Nature to flow into the Arabian Sea has been led across the Peninsula into the Bay of Bengal irrigating in its way well over 100,000 acres of land. The irrigable area commanded by the Periyar system is 143,000 acres while the supply from the lake was sufficient only for 180,000 acres. To make up for this deficit Government contemplate increasing the effective capacity of the lake by lowering the water-shed cutting. The area already under irrigations in the Madras Presidency totals 7 million acres. Of this, over 3 million acres are served by petty irrigation works numbering about 35,000.

Electric Schemes

The Pykara Hydro Electric Project has been before the Government of Madras for some years. The proposal is to utilise a fall of over 8,000 feet in the Pykara River as it descends the Nilgiri Plateau, for the generation of electrical energy and its transmission for supply to the neighbouring districts viz., the Nilgiris and Coimbatore. At a later date it is hoped to include Madras, Trichinopoly, Madurai, Salem, Calicut, Cochin, Tanjore and other districts. The Chief Engineer for Hydro Electric Development is of opinion that it may be possible to include Madras in the Pykara Supply system.

Originally it seemed that the Pykara Scheme must depend for part of its load on the Railways coming in. But later, it became evident that the scheme would be remunerative even without a demand from the Railways for power. After considerable discussion the Madras Government submitted three alternative schemes to the Government of India, two of which assumed the electrification of certain sections of the South Indian Railway while the third was independent of the electrification of any of

the main lines. While these proposals were before the Government of India and the Secretary of State, the Railway Board decided against railway electrification at present. The Secretary of State has therefore sanctioned the third scheme which provides for a small railway loop and could be used for the electrification of the Nilgiri Mountain Railway in addition to the expected demand for Municipal lighting etc., and for power in industries. Work has been started and the scheme is expected to be completed by the end of 1932.

The total cost of the project is estimated at 1,26,39,000 at the beginning rising to Rs 1,38,00,000 in the tenth year. As at present surveyed the demand for power is estimated at 6,54,000 units in the first year rising to 35,182,000 in the tenth year.

The Glen Morgan Scheme sanctioned in August 1928 at a cost of about 12 lakhs has been completed and is now in operation. It is auxiliary to the main Pykara scheme and will be merged with it. Its chief function is to supply power to the main construction works the surplus power will be supplied to Ootacamund, Coonoor and other neighbouring towns and certain tea estates.

A small scheme to supply electric power to Salem and Erode from Mettur till the Pykara scheme comes into operation was sanctioned in April 1930 at an estimated cost of Rs 5.50 lakhs. It is hoped to supply power to these towns by June 1931.

The Government have under consideration the question of issuing regulations for the distribution and sale of electrical energy generated from a Government Hydro Electric source, whereby an electric service, at low rates will be assured to the ultimate consumer and the power market properly developed.

Co-operation.

The attention of the Department was paid more to the consolidation of existing societies than to the expansion of the movement and so there was a decrease in the number of societies newly registered in 1928-29. Improvement in the state of societies is evidenced by an increase in the number of members in the amount of share capital working capital and of reserve fund. The increasing efficiency of the supervising unions, utilised by the Department in the rectification work of the existing societies. There was an increase in the number of agricultural non-credit societies and an improvement in their trading activities. 15 milk supply societies were registered during the year. The Government have sanctioned subsidies to Co-operative Institutes, District Federations to enable them to conduct training classes. The Government have passed orders on most of the important recommendations of the Committee on Co-operation. The staff of the Department both superior and subordinate has been strengthened.

Social Legislation.

The Hindu Religious Endowments Act which has for its object the better administration and governance of certain Hindu religious endowments came into force early in 1925. It provides for the appropriation of the surplus funds of the endowments to religious, educational and charitable purposes not inconsistent with the objects of the institutions to which

they are attached. The Act has been working satisfactorily. Doubts having been raised to the validity of the Act it was re-enacted and passed into law as Act No II of 1927. The new Act came into force on 8th February 1927. Another piece of legislation—a non-official Bill—which has raised a heated controversy is the Malabar Tenancy Bill which aims to confer subject to certain conditions occupancy rights on kanam tenants and actual cultivators of the soil. As there was a sharp difference of opinion on the very principles of the Bill the Governor withheld his assent and a committee was appointed to go into the matter thoroughly and its findings have been submitted and the same have been published with a view to receive objections and suggestions. The recommendations of the Committee were placed before a Round Table Conference consisting of the representatives of the Jemmes Tenants and of the Government. The objections and suggestions made by the representatives at the Conference were carefully considered by the Government and the Government re-drafted the Bill and introduced it in the Council on 6th August 1929. The Bill was passed by the Council on 10th October 1929. His Excellency the Governor was of opinion that changes were expedient in respect of certain clauses of the Bill passed by the Council and has accordingly returned parts of the Bill to the Legislative Council under Section 81 A (1) of the Government of India Act for reconsideration. The Bill was finally passed by the Legislative Council on the 1st March 1930 and received the assent of His Excellency the Governor on the 28th March 1930. The assent of His Excellency the Governor-General to it is awaited. Note worthy amongst other efforts at legislation for social reform was the non-official resolution passed by the Council recommending to Government to undertake legislation or to recommend the Government of India to do so to put a stop to the practice of dedicating young women and girls to Hindu temples which has generally resulted in exposing them to immoral purposes under the pretext of caste. Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi, Ex Deputy President of the Legislative Council introduced a bill in the Legislative Council on 5th September 1928 so as to enfranchise or free the lands held by man-holding Devadasis on condition of service in Hindu temples from such condition. The bill was passed into law on 1st February 1929. The Act received the assent of the Governor on 12th April 1929 and of the Governor-General on 13th May 1929. Rules have been framed to give effect to the provisions

of the Act and the enfranchisement of Devadasi houses is now in progress. On 24th January 1930 Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi introduced another bill in the Legislative Council with the object of putting an end to the dedication of young women and girls not only among man-holding Devadasis but among Devadasis as a whole. The bill was discussed in the Council and circulated to elicit opinion. As in the meantime Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi resigned her membership in the Council, the bill was not proceeded with. Subsequently the Council also dissolved and the bill lapsed. A bill for the suppression of brothels and of traffic in women and girls was introduced in the Council by Mr. K. R. Venkataranga Aiyar on 6th September 1928 and was passed into law on 31st January 1930. The Act received the assent of the Governor on 24th February 1930 and of the Governor-General on 28th March 1930. It has not however been brought into force yet owing to certain practical difficulties. Proposals are now under consideration for amending the Act so as to make it workable. It was also resolved to ask Government to fix as their goal local prohibition of drink in the presidency within 20 years. In pursuance of this resolution and of the recommendations of the Excise Advisory Committee thereon, Government have in 1929 sanctioned a scheme of propaganda against the use of alcoholic liquors and intoxicating drinks.

Law and Order

The Superior Court for Civil and Criminal judicial work in the Presidency is the High Court at Madras, which consists of a Chief Justice and thirteen puisne judges. The existing law provides for a maximum of 20 High Court Judges. For the administration of criminal justice there are 26 Sessions Judges in the Mufassal, Additional and Assistant Sessions Judges being provided to assist Courts in which the work is heavy. Then there are the District Magistrates the Subordinate Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The administration of civil justice is carried on by 26 District Judges, and 45 Subordinate Judges and 154 District Munsifs. In the Presidency Town there are a City Civil Court consisting of one Judge and Small Causes Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two other Judges. Madras is a litigious province and the records show one suit for every 80 persons. The Police department is under an Inspector-General who has four deputies in four ranges of the Presidency a Superintendent being stationed at each District. The sanctioned strength of the permanent police force is about 27,700.

FINANCE DEPARTMENT

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1930-31	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1930-31
REVENUE.	Rs.	EXPENDITURE	Rs.
II—Taxes on Income	5,00,000	5—Land Revenue	29,54,400
V—Land Revenue	7,61,23,000	6—Excise	47,02,400
VI—Excise	5,44,99,700	7—Stamps	7,05,000
VII—Stamps	2,53,02,700	8—Forest	42,04,500
		8A—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue	4,32,700
		9—Registration	20,80,400

The Madras Presidency.

III

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1930-31	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS.	Budget Estimates 1930-31
REVENUE—contd	Rs	EXPENDITURE—contd	Rs
VIII—Forest	66 81,500	10—Irrigation—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from Ordinary Reve- nue	51 73 230
IX—Registration	26 66 000	XIII—Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Ac- counts are kept— Gross receipts	49 89,200
XIII—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept— Gross receipts	6 60 500	18—Construction of Irrigation Navigation, Embank- ment and Drainage Works	11,50 900
XIV—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Cap- ital Accounts are kept	2,41 700	19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	61,17,300
XVI—Interest	44,28 100	20—Interest on other obligations	6,800
XVII—Administration of Justice	17 21,200	21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	29 21 000
XVIII—Jails and Convict Set- tlements	9,95 000	22—General Administration	2,82 98,100
XIX—Police	8 83 600	24—Administration of Justice	1 01,68,200
XX—Ports and Pilotage	100	25—Jails and Convict Settle- ments	31,06,000
XXI—Education	7,40 100	26—Police	1,73 45,800
XXII—Medical	7 01 200	27—Ports and Pilotage	29,500
XXIII—Public Health	1 27 400	28—Scientific Departments	3,02,800
XXIV—Agriculture	3 30,500	29—Education	8 06,41,300
XXV—Industries	7,56 800	30—Medical	99,09,500
XXVI—Miscellaneous Depart- ments	10 13,400	31—Public Health	39,92,500
XXX—Civil Works	12 10 600	32—Agriculture	46,18,100
XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	3,88,700	33—Industries	22,11,800
XXXIV—Stationery and Print- ing	2,81 000	34—Miscellaneous Departments	80 96,400
XXXV—Miscellaneous	12,82 900	41—Civil Works	2,48,51 200
(a) Total—Revenue	18,47 24,800	42—Famine	3 00 000
RECEIPTS		43—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	67,82,700
Loans and advances by Provincial Government	54,70,500	44A—Commuted value of pen- sions financed from ordinary Revenues	6,73,000
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	1,00,00,000	46—Stationery and Printing	21,58,700
Appropriations for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	29 21 000	47—Miscellaneous	14 42,700
Suspense	87,52,800	Total — Expenditure Charged to Revenue	18,63,86,500
		EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE	
		52A—Capital outlay on Forests.	29,300
		55—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embank- ment and Drainage Works	1,18,54,200
		56C—Capital outlay on Indus- trial Development	2,46,700
		56D—Capital outlay on Hydro- Electric Schemes	30 24,500
		60—Civil Works— not charged to Revenue	
		60B—Payment of commuted value of Pensions	—1,24,800
		Total	1,50,19,500

The Madras Presidency

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates, 1930-31	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimates 1930-31
REVENUE—contd	Rs	EXPENDITURE—contd	Rs.
Depreciation Funds	1,56 400	Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	76,84,000
Famine Relief Fund	3,11,700	Advances from Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	96,88 000
(b) Total	2 76 12 400	Suspense	87,47,800
(a) + (b) Total—Receipts	21 28,37 200	Depreciation Funds	10,000
Opening Famine Relief Fund Balance	46,71,324	Famine Relief Fund	
General Balances	4 67 07 175	Total—Disbursements	22,76,84,800
Grand Total	26,37 15 699	Closing Famine Relief Fund Balance	49,88 624
		General Balances	3 11,97,875
		Grand Total	26 37 15,699

Governor
His Excellency the Right Hon Sir George
Frederick Stanley, G.C.M.

Personal Staff
Private Secretary A D Crombie I.C.S.
Military Secy, Major Trevor Newell Watson
M.V.O., M.D.

Surgeon, Major D. P. Johnstone R.A.M.C.
Aide-de-Camp, Capt Sir Charles Buchanan,
Capt R. F. Craster

Extra Aide-de-Camp, Lt. The Earl of
Shannon

Indian Aide-de-Camp Risaldar Sher Bahadur
Khan

Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Body Guard,
Major T. N. Watson, M.V.O. M.C.

Members of Council.
The Hon Khan Bahadur Muhammad Usman
Bahib Bahadur

The Hon. Dewan Bahadur Sir M. Krishnan Aier
The Hon A. N. G. (Campbell), C.S.I., O.I.E., I.C.S.
The Hon H. G. Stokes C.S.I., O.S.I.

Ministers.
The Hon. Dewan Bahadur Munnuswami Naidu
(Local Self Government Religious Endow-
ments and Public Health)

The Hon P. T. Rajan (Development, Public
Works and Registration)

The Hon. Dewan Bahadur Kumaraswamy
Reddiar (Education and Excise)

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT
Chief Secretary, C. W. E. Cotton C.I.E. I.C.S.
Secretary, Finance Department H. A. Watson,
I.C.S.

Secretary Local Self Government Department
C. Hilton Brown I.C.S.
Secretary, Public Works and Labour Departments,
A. G. Leach, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government, Development Depart-
ment, S. V. Rammamurti, I.C.S.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS
Director of Public Instruction, Richard Littlechal-
len M.A. (on deputation) Robert George
Grieve, M.A., O.I.E. (Offg.)

Inspector-General of Police, J. A. Hamilton
Surgeon-General, Major General (withbert
Spawson, G.I.E., I.M.S.)

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Colonel A. J. H.
Russell, M.A., M.D., M.S.
Accountant-General, H. Rishnawara Rao, B.A.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Colonel John
Phillip Cameron, I.M.S.

Postmaster General M. E. Nigel Jones.
Collector of Customs, O. B. Watkins, C.I.E.
Commissioner of Excise, C. B. Cotterell, G.I.E.,
I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Registration, E. H. M.
Bower

Director, Kodakkal and Madras Observations,
T. Boyds, D.Sc., A. L. Narayan, M.A., D.Sc.
Super, Govt Central Museum, and Principal
Librarian, Government Public Library, Dr. F.
H. Gravelly

Director of Agriculture, G. E. Hillson
Director of Fisheries, Dr. B. Sundara Raj
Chief Conservator of Forests R. D. Richmond

Presidents and Governors of Fort
St George in Madras

William Gyford 1684
Rilhu Yale 1687
Nathaniel Higginson 1692
Thomas Pitt 1698
Guilston Addison 1709

Died at Madras, 17 Oct., 1709,
Edmund Montague (Acting) 1707
William Fraser (Acting) 1704
Edward Harrison 1719
Joseph Collet 1719
Francis Hastings (Acting) 1720
Nathaniel Elwick 1721
James Macrae 1725
George Morton Pitt 1730
Richard Bonyon 1735
Nicholas Morse 1744

John Hinde 1747
Charles Floyer 1750
Thomas Saunders 1755
George Pigot 1758
Robert Falk 1763
Charles Bourghier 1767
James DuPre 1770
Alexander Wynne 1771
Lord Pigot (Suspended) 1775
George Stratton 1776
John Whitehill (Acting) 1777
Sir Thomas Rumbold, Bart 1778
John Whitehill (Acting) 1780
Charles Smith (Acting) 1780
Lord Macartney, G.C.B. 1781

Governors of Madras.		
		Sir William Thomas Denison, K.C.B. Acting Viceroy, 1863 to 1864 1861
Lord Macartney, K.B.	1785	Edward Maltby (<i>Acting</i>) 1863
Alexander Davidson (<i>Acting</i>)	1785	Lord Napier of Merchiston, KT (a) 1866
Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.B.	1786	Acting Viceroy
John Holland (<i>Acting</i>)	1789	Alexander John Arbuthnot, C.B. 1 (<i>Acting</i>) 1872
Edward J. Holland (<i>Acting</i>)	1790	Lord Hobart Died at Madras, 27 April, 1875 1872
Major-General William Medows	1790	William Rose Robinson C.B. 1 (<i>Acting</i>) 1875
Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart	1792	The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos 1875
Lord Hobart	1794	The Right Hon W P Adam Died at Ootacamund 24 May, 1881 1880
Major-General George Harris (<i>Acting</i>)	1798	William Hudleston (<i>Acting</i>) 1881
Lord Clive	1799	The Right Hon M E Grant Duff 1881
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck	1803	The Right Hon Robert Bourke, P.C. Lord Connemara 12 May, 1887 (by creation,) 1888
William Peiris (<i>Acting</i>)	1807	
Sir George Hillier Barlow, Bart., K.B.	1807	John Henry Garstin, C.B. 1 (<i>Acting</i>) 1890
Lieut-General the Hon John Abercromby	1813	Baron Wenlock 1891
The Right Hon Hugh Elliot	1814	Sir Arthur Ellbank Havelock, G.C.M.G. 1896
Major-General Sir Thomas Munro, Bart., K.C.B. Died 6 July, 1827	1823	Baron Amptill Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1904 1906
Henry Sullivan Greene (<i>Acting</i>)	1827	James Thomson, C.B. 1 (<i>Acting</i>) 1900
Stephen Bumbold Lushington "	1822	Gabriel Stokes, C.B. 1 (<i>Acting</i>) 1906
Lieut. General Sir Frederick Adam, K.C.B.	1832	Hon Sir Arthur Lawley, K.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. 1906
George Edward Russell (<i>Acting</i>)	1837	Sir Thomas David Gibson-Carmichael, Bart., F.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. (b) 1911
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.B., P.C.	1837	Became Governor of Bengal, 1 April 1912
Lieut-General the Marquess of Tweeddale, KT, C.B.	1842	Sir Murray Hammett, K.C.B. 1, C.I.E. 1912
Henry Dickinson (<i>Acting</i>)	1848	(<i>Acting</i>). Right Hon Baron Pentland, P.C., G.C.I.E. 1912
Major-General the Right Hon Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., G.C.B.	1848	Baron Willington 1918
Daniel Elliott (<i>Acting</i>)	1854	Lord Gesehen .. 1924
Lord Harris	1854	Right Hon'ble Sir George Frederick Stanley, G.C.I.E. 1929
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B.	1859	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>)	1860	(b) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Carmichael of Skirling
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G. Died at Madras, 2 August, 1860	1860	
William Ambrose Morehead (<i>Acting</i>)	1860	

MADRAS LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT

The Hon Mr B Ramachandra Reddi

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

Rao Bahadur G Jagannadha Raju,

I.—MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex Officio

The Hon Mr A Y G Campbell C S I C I E C N R , V D , I O S

The Hon Diwan Bahadur Sir M Krishna Nayar

The Hon Mr H G Stokes C S I C I E I O S

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Sir Mohamed Usman Sahib Bahadur, Kt

II —ELECTED MEMBERS

(a) Ministers

The Hon Diwan Bahadur B Muniswami Nayudu

The Hon Diwan Bahadur S Kumaraswami Reddiyar

The Hon P T Rajan

(b) Other Members.

Khan Sahib Bahadur Abdul Hameed

Moulvi Hafeez Anumathakudi Mustapha Ahmed Moolan Sahib Bahadur,

Rao Sahib A S Alagannan Chetti

S A A Annamalai Chettiyar

H B Ari Gounder

Diwan Bahadur R V Arogyaswami Mudaliyar

Hasheer Ahmed Sayeed Sahib Bahadur

S M K Bayalasi Sahib Bahadur

P Bayappa Reddi

Frank Birley,

W M. Browning

J A Davis C S E

K. M. Duraiswami Reddiyar

Rao Bahadur S Ellappa Chettiyar

Diwan Bahadur M Gopalaswami Mudaliyar

A Harischandra Nayudu

H F P Hearson.

C Indralah

F E James

Rao Sahib O Jayaram Nayudu

K Kemava Ramamurthi Nayudu

Khan Bahadur P Khalif ul lah Sahib Bahadur

Rai Sahib O Kolanda Reddi

A. Kondappa,

K. Koti Reddi,

II.—ELECTED MEMBERS

- Raja Velugoti Sarvagaya Kumarakrishna Yachendra Bahadur Varu, Kumara Raja of Venkatagiri.
 J Kuppuswami
 A G Leach ICS
 A T Luker
 R Madanagopal Nayudu
 Lieut Colonel Sri Raja Velugoti Sir Govinda Krishna Yachendra Varu Bahadur, K C I E, Maharaja of Venkatagiri
 Sahib Bahadur Mahboob Ali Baig
 Khan Bahadur Mahmud Schammad Sahib Bahadur
 M A Manikavelu Nayakar
 Khan Bahadur T M. Moldoo Sahib Bahadur
 P C Moses.
 K P V S Muhammad Meeru Ravuttar Bahadur
 Diwan Bahadur A M M Murugappa Chettiyar
 M A Muthiah Chettiyar
 P C Muthu Chettiyar
 A Nachiyappa Gounder
 A P N V Nadimuthu Pillai alias Chinna Pillai
 Nal Bahadur N Nallatambi Sarkarai Mannadlyar
 T Narasa Reddi
 D V Narasimhaswami
 V P Narayanan Nambiyar
 T M Narayanaswami Pillai
 Rao Bahadur O Natesa Mudaliyar
 R M Palat
 Rao Bahadur A T Pannirselvam
 R C Parthasarathi Ayyangar
 Sriman M G Patnaik Mahasayo
 Rao Bahadur Sir A P Patro Kt
 K Pattabhiramayya
 Sahib Bahadur B Pocker
 Ramakrishna Ranga Rao Sri Ravu Swetachallepathi, Raja of Bobbili
 Raja Sri Ramachandra Mada Raja Doo Garu Raja of Kalikote
 Sri Sri Sri Krishna Chandra Gajapathi Narayana Deo, Raja of Parakimedi
 P K Ramachandra Padayachi
 Rao Bahadur T A Ramalingam Chettiyar
 A Ramakrishna Reddi
 K P Raman Menon
 S V Ramamurthi, ICS
 T S. Ramaswami Ayyar
 V M Ramaswami Mudaliyar
 A Ranganatha Mudaliyar
 G Ranganatha Mudaliyar,
 M D T Ranganatha Mudaliyar
 Rao Bahadur C S. Ratnasabapathi Mudaliyar
 Sami Venkatasaham Chetti
 O Sathyanarayana Choudari.

ELECTED MEMBERS—(contd)

B P Seeba Reddi
 A B Shetty
 Gade Simbachalam Garu
 K Singam Ayyangar
 K S. Sivambrahmany Ayyar
 M S. Sreetha
 T C Srinivasa Ayyangar
 Dr P Subbarayan
 U C Subrahmanya Bhatt
 T Sundara Rao Nayudu
 Khan Sahib Sied Tajudin Sahib Bahadur
 Thomas Danki
 M Viduchala Mudaliyar
 K R Venkatarama Ayyar
 Rao Sahib Badeti Venkataramayya
 Rao Bahadur B. K. Venugopal Nayudu
 Khan Bahadur Yahya Ali
 Yakub Hasan Sahib Bahadur
 T V K Kuna Raja Pandia Nayakar Zamindar of Bodinayakanur
 Shri Vyricherla Narayana Gajapati Raju Zamindar of Chennudu
 Raja Jagu Venna Ram Kumara Venkateswara Ettappa Nayakar Ayyan, Zamindar of
 Ettayapuram
 K. C. V. Venkatachali Reddiyar, Zamindar of Minampalli
 Mirzapuram Rajawaru alias Venkataramayya Appa Rao Bahadur Garu Zamindar of
 Mirzapuram

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mrs. K. Alamelumanga Thayarasoms
 V T Arasu
 O Basu Dev
 M Devadasan
 Rao Sahib V Dharmalingam Pillai
 C K Dorai Raja
 R Foulkes
 Hilton Brown, I.C.S.
 H M Jagannatham
 Rao Sahib D Krishnamurthi
 C Krishnan
 Diwan Bahadur Alhadi Krishnaswami Ayyar
 Madhusoodhanan (Manga)
 Maharaja Sri Ramachandra Deo Maharaja of Jeypore
 Rao Sahib V J Muniswami Pillai
 Subadar Major S A Nanjappa Bahadur
 H R Pate, I.C.S.
 G R Premayya
 P V Rajagopala Pillai
 Pandit Ganala Ramamurti
 N Siva Raj
 W P A Soundara Pandian
 Rao Bahadur B. Srinivasan
 G Srinamulu
 Rao Sahib P Subrahmaniam Chetti.
 A. S. Swami Sahajanandha
 V G Vasudeva Pillai,
 H A Watson, I.C.S.

The Bengal Presidency.

The Presidency of Bengal, as constituted on the 1st April 1912 comprises the Burdwan and Presidency divisions and the district of Darjeeling which were formerly administered by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and the Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong divisions which by the partition of the old Province had been placed under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The area of the Presidency is 82,277 square miles, and it possesses a population of 47,592,462 persons included within this area are the two Indian States of Cooch Behar and Tripura, which are now placed in direct political relations with the Government of India. The Governor of Bengal in Council acts as Agent to the Governor-General of India for these States. The area of the British territory is 76,848 square miles. Bengal comprises the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and in the main consists of a great alluvial plain intersected in its southern portion by innumerable waterways. In the north are the Himalayan mountains and submontane tracts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri, and on the south-east the hills in Tripura and Chittagong, while on the west the Chota Nagpur plateau is continued by an undulating tract running through the western portions of Midnapur, Bankura, Burdwan and Birbhum. The general range of the country however is very low, and a great fertile plain extends southward from Jalpaiguri to the forests and swamps known as the Sunderbans, which lie between the area of cultivation and the Bay of Bengal.

The People.

Of the inhabitants of the Presidency 25,458,124 or 53.5 per cent are Mahomedans and 20,809,148 Hindus. These two major religions embrace all, but 2.73 per cent of the population. Christians, Buddhists and Animists combined number 1,278,873.

Bengali is spoken by ninety-two per cent. of the population of the Presidency and Hindi and Urdu by 8.8 per cent. The Oriya-speaking people number 298,878 and Nepali is the tongue of 93,040 persons principally residents in the Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts. The great majority of the speakers of the Munda languages are Santals in West and North Bengal.

Industries.

According to the returns of the Census of 1921 nearly 87 millions or over 77 per cent of the population derive their support from pasture and agriculture, and of these more than 80 millions are cultivators, and more than 4 millions farm servants and field labourers. The area under jute in 1920 is estimated at 3,062,300 acres against 3,020,566 in 1929. Bengal is the most important rice-producing area in Northern India, and it is computed that 84 per cent. of the cultivated area of the Presidency is devoted to its production. Other crops include barley, wheat, pulses and oil seeds. The area devoted to the last named in 1929-30 being 1,025,800 acres. Sugar is produced both from the sugar-cane and from the date-palm, and tobacco is grown for local consumption in nearly every district of Bengal. The area under tea in 1928 was

201,100 acres. There were 344 plantations employing a daily average of 181,324 permanent and 10,676 temporary hands.

Manufacture and Trade

The main industries in this part of India in addition to the agricultural industry are the jute mill industry, the tea industry (largely an Assam industry) and coal mining. The jute mills in and around Calcutta constitute the principal manufacturing industry of the Presidency.

The mills reverted from a 60 hour to a 54 hour week on 30th June 1930, the agreement reached by the Jute Mills Association being that a 54 hour week would be worked from that date up to 31st December 1931. In addition, all mills are now closed down for one complete week each month. This commenced in July 1930 and the agreement is that it will be continued up to March 1931.

A census of the looms in the mills attached to the Association was taken in July 1930 and the number was found to be 38,859. In the mills not attached to the Association the number is 1974. The total looms therefore, on 1st January 1931 is 59,713.

General.—The trade of Bengal during the year 1929-30 sustained a general set-back due in the main to the depression in world trade, and the resultant fall in the commodity prices.

The total aggregate value of the overseas trade of the province (excluding treasure) amounted to Rs 258 crores which fell short of the last year's figures by about Rs 25 crores. This decline was due to less receipts under both imports and exports. On the import side, the most noteworthy decline was under grain, pulses and flour, metal and ores, cotton piece-goods, motor cars, provisions, oilman's stores and salt and, that on the export side under raw jute and jute manufactures, lac hides and skins. The tonnage handled by the Calcutta Port Commissioners, however, increased a little.

Imports.—The imports of merchandise during the year 1929-30 totalled Rs 86 crores against Rs 91 crores in 1928-29. Imports of cotton goods, which forms the largest item of the trade, was again disappointing, the total value diminishing by about a lakh of rupees from Rs 24.10 to Rs 23.13 89 lakhs. This falling off was due to an all round decline in the imports from the United Kingdom and also to the diversion of a considerable portion of the goods to Karachi on account of the embargo imposed in 1928-29 on certain classes of British goods by certain classes of traders in Calcutta. But, in spite of this, the United Kingdom retained her premier position in the trade. Japan improved her share of the trade in all its departments at the cost of the former country. The decline in the United Kingdom's supplies was the result of weaker demands throughout the year due to uncertainty in the political situation. But the most potential injury to her trade was done through the misunderstanding that arose out of the enquiry held into the question of external competition.

in the cotton piecegoods trade of India. This enquiry began in July and soon after, an impression got abroad that a heavy protective duty would, as a result of the enquiry, be imposed on the coarser qualities of imported goods, and in spite of a substantial reduction in the prices of raw cotton from the month of August very little forward business was done. The result was that the trade in standardised Japanese grey goods continued to forge ahead at a rapid pace while the British grey shirting almost disappeared from the market. Imports of twists and yarns improved slightly due to increased supply of coarser yarns by China. The supply by the United Kingdom declined by about a million pounds. The motor trade of Bengal also met with a similar reverse. The total value of motor cars omnibuses etc. declined from Rs 1,92,16 lakhs to Rs 1,62,94 lakhs and that of tyres and tubes from Rs 51,12 lakhs to Rs 41,71 lakhs. This decline did not however connote any slackening of Bengal's demand for motor vehicles, but to a growing tendency on her part to get her supplies direct from Bombay. The Assembly Plant in Bombay also did a considerable injury to this trade of Bengal, as it supplied a large number of cars and chassis by sea to Calcutta and its immediate neighbourhood. A noteworthy feature of the trade was that for the first time Germany supplied 33 cars to the value of Rs 14 lakhs. The gross value of imports of machinery and mill work also contracted from Rs 6,93 lakhs to Rs 6,69 lakhs due to heavy decline in the value of imports of paper-making machinery from Rs 80 lakhs to Rs 6 lakhs sugar machinery from Rs 17 lakhs to Rs 5 lakhs, tea machinery from Rs 27 lakhs to Rs 16 lakhs, cotton machinery from Rs 24 lakhs to Rs 19 lakhs, and foundry and workshop machinery from Rs 64 lakhs to Rs 41 lakhs, while the increased imports of prime movers from Rs 89 lakhs to Rs 131 lakhs boilers from Rs 68 lakhs to Rs 71 lakhs jute mill machinery from Rs 130 to Rs 145 lakhs, and paper-making machinery from Rs 4 lakhs to Rs 11 lakhs failed to balance. The United Kingdom was as usual, the principal supplier of these machines but her actual contribution shrank a little from Rs 572 lakhs to Rs 563 lakhs. Imports of iron and steel covered by protective tariff also fell from Rs 9,39,70 lakhs to Rs 8,61,66 lakhs, but that of non-protected materials improved from 91,967 tons to 93,863 tons and metals and ores from Rs 220 lakhs to Rs 241 lakhs. There was also considerable improvement in the imports of papers and paste boards, the value of which rose from Rs 1,05,41 lakhs to Rs 1,21,19 lakhs, and, stimulated by lower prices those of sugar also rose from Rs 559 lakhs to Rs 600 lakhs. Due to increased supply by the United States of America and Burma imports of mineral oil (including Kerosene) improved in value, from Rs 7,39,76 lakhs to Rs 8,65,05 lakhs. Of the other articles, imports of liquors, salt, tobacco, drugs, medicines and chemicals, beads and pearls, phials and bottles, silk and artificial silk, lac, spices, boots and shoes, musical instruments, electric appliances, and tea chests improved, while those of glass bangles, woollen goods, grain, pulse and flour, provisions, oilman's stores, and coconut oil declined.

Exports—Exports of merchandise from the port of Calcutta sustained a further decline from 137 crores to Rs 127 crores. Despite the low level of the prices of raw jute throughout the year, this principal or, in fact, the monopoly trade of Bengal met with a considerable set-back due to the world wide trade depressions. The total shipments of both manufactured and raw jute amounted to Rs 77,60,93 lakhs against Rs 87,58,56 lakhs in the year 1928-29. This contraction in the trade had its repercussions on the business of the Indian Jute Mills, whose profits declined from Rs 7,23 crores to Rs 26 crores. The year opened with the price of first marks of raw jute ruling at Rs 69 per mark of 400 lbs and by October it fell to Rs 59. Thereafter the prices began to fall rapidly and by the end of the year it settled down to Rs 45 per bale. But in spite of this low level of the prices exports of raw jute declined by about five lakhs of bales in quantity and from Rs 30,76,96 lakhs to Rs 25,75,88 lakhs in value, shipments of manufactured jute (gunny bags and gunny cloth and twist) however, improved in quantity from 9 to 9½ lakhs tons, but the value due to low prices of raw jute declined from Rs 56,81,60 lakhs to Rs 51,88,00 lakhs. The tea industry of Bengal made record strides during the year 1928-29. Aided by favourable weather conditions and ample supplies of labour, there was a record production of tea the total output coming up to 371 million lbs against 341 million lbs in the previous year. But, in spite of all these favourable conditions the year did not prove to be a very successful one from the financial point of view for, owing to the continued over production by all the tea producing countries prices generally ruled low. The average price per lb according to the shipping bill, came to 10 annas 10 pies only against 11 annas 8 pies in the previous year and 14 annas 5 pies in 1927. The price of tea dust also ruled very low. The total quantity of tea exported from Calcutta amounted to 247,352,676 lbs valued at Rs 16,78,75 lakhs. The United Kingdom, which is practically the world's market for tea, continued to be the chief customer by absorbing 78 per cent of the total shipments against 75 per cent in the previous year. The noteworthy features of the trade were the heavy decline in the shipments to China and direct shipments to Russia, whose takings advanced considerably. The trade in shellac fell off considerably, the exports declining in value from Rs 8,47,96 lakhs to Rs 6,88,74 lakhs. The trade in hides and skins was also very disappointing the total exports declining to 27,104 tons only which but for those of 1920-21 was the lowest for many decades past. Considerable progress was noticeable in the trade metals and ores. Shipments of manganese ore improved in value from Rs 116 lakhs to Rs 123 lakhs, and those of pig iron rose from Rs 2,11,81 lakhs to Rs 2,59,88 lakhs. There was also considerable improvement in the shipments of scrap iron and steel and lead, while those of tin, zinc and other metals declined. Similar advancement was noticed in the case of oil seeds, the total value under all the heads improving from Rs 2,83,68 lakhs to Rs 4,73,88 lakhs. Due to the price of, boiled rice ruling lower than similar products

from Burma and Saigon, exports of rice from Bengal improved from 106,884 tons to 120,021 tons, while the exports of wheat, barley and pulse declined. The year also recorded considerable improvement in the business of mica, the exports of which advanced from Rs 74 24 lakhs to Rs 85 00 lakhs. Exports of manures, paraffin wax, spices, drugs and medicines and gins improved while those of opium, dyeing and tanning substances, woollen manufactures, and salt petro declined.

Trade of Chittagong—A considerable portion of the maritime trade of Bengal is also carried on through the port of Chittagong. There was a considerable decline in the business of this port as well, the imports declining from Rs 2 95 lakhs to Rs 2 07 lakhs, and the exports from Rs 7 39 to Rs 6 64 lakhs.

Distribution of the foreign trade of Bengal—The United Kingdom was the principal participant in the trade of Bengal her share amounted to 49 34 per cent of the total imports and 21 28 per cent of the total exports against 51 03 and 19 46 per cent respectively in the year 1923-29. The British possessions appropriated 8 99 per cent of the imports and 14 86 per cent of the exports. The United States had 6 49 per cent of the imports and 22 62 per cent of the exports. Japan's share on the import side amounted to 10 03 per cent and on the export side 3 02 per cent while that of Germany amounted to 4 97 per cent of the former and 7 80 per cent of the latter.

Administration

The present form of administration in Bengal dates from January 1921. In 1912 the Government of the Province underwent an important change, when, in accordance with the Proclamation of His Majesty the King Emperor at Delhi, the Province was raised from the status of a Lieutenant-Governor to that of a Governor-in-Council thus bringing it into line with the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. In 1921 under the Reform Scheme, the Local Government was reconstituted, certain of the departments being placed under the control of Ministers appointed from among elected members of the Legislative Council. There are normally four members of the Executive Council who are in charge of the "reserved subjects, and three Ministers who are in charge of the transferred subject.

Bengal is administered by five Commissioners the divisions being those of the Presidency, Burdwan, Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong. The unit of administration is the District Magistrate and Collector. As Collector he supervises the gathering of the revenue and is the head of all the Departments connected with it, while as District Magistrate he is responsible for the administration of criminal justice in the district. The immediate superior of the District Magistrate is the Divisional Commissioner. Commissioners are the channels of communication between the local officers and the Government. In certain revenue matters they are, in their turn, subject to the Board of Revenue in Calcutta, in other matters they are under the direct control of Government.

Justice

The administration of Justice is entrusted to the High Court of Calcutta which consists of the Chief Justice who is a Barrister and 10 Puisne judges including one additional judge who are Barristers, Civilians or Vakils. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Causes Court and Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs. Of these officers the District and Additional Judges and a certain number of subordinate Judges are also endowed with the powers of a Criminal Court while the remainder have jurisdiction in Civil matters only. Criminal Justice is administered by the High Court, the Courts of Session and the Courts of the various classes of Magistrates. On its appellate side the High Court disposes of appeals from the order of a Court of Session, and it also confirms, modifies or annuls sentences of death passed by Sessions Courts. Calcutta has six Stipendiary Presidency Magistrates including two temporary Additional Magistrates one of whom is in charge of the Traffic Court and the other in charge of the Children Court. It has also two Municipal Magistrates and also a number of Honorary Magistrates and it possesses a Court of Small Causes with Judges who dispose of cases of the class that are usually heard in County Courts in England.

In addition a number of Union Benches and Courts have been established in selected rural areas for the disposal by honorary agency of petty criminal cases and civil disputes.

Local Self-Government.

By Bengal Act III of 1884 which regulates municipal bodies in the interior and its subsequent amendments the powers of Commissioners of municipalities have been increased and the elective franchise has been extended. Municipal expenditure now comprises a large number of objects, including veterinary institutions, employment of Health Officers and Sanitary Inspectors and the training and employment of female medical practitioners. The Commissioners also have large powers in regard to the water supply and the regulation of buildings. The municipal Government of Calcutta is governed by Act III of 1923. This Act, which replaced Act III of 1899 makes the Corporation paramount in matters relating to municipal administration. The Act provides for the appointment of a Mayor who replaces the Chairman of the old Act, a Deputy Mayor, an Executive Officer, and Deputy Executive Officer, all elected by the Corporation. The appointment of the Chief Executive Officer is subject to the approval of Government. The total number of councillors is 85, with 5 aldermen, elected by the councillors. Ten of the councillors are nominated by Government, and by the general or special constituencies. There are separate constituencies for Mahomedans. In order to improve the insanitary and congested areas of the city, the Calcutta Improvement Trust has been created with extensive powers. In the mofussil, District and Local Boards exercise considerable powers, with regard to Public Works, Education and Medical relief and Union Committees have been formed which deal for the most part with the control of village roads, sanitation and water-supply.

Bengal Act V of 1919 introduced the new system of self-government by a creation of village authorities vested with the power and duties necessary for the management of village affairs and entrusted with powers of self taxation. The new village authority, called the Union Board, replaces the old *Chaukidari panchayats* and the Union Committees and deal with the village police, village roads, water supply, sanitation, primary schools and dispensaries. The Act also empowers Government to create out of the members of the Union Boards Village Benches and Courts for the trial of petty criminal and civil cases arising within the union. The Act has been extended to all Districts in the Presidency except Midnapur and up to March 1930 over 4,500 Union Boards were sanctioned, of which nearly 4,200 were actually constituted.

Public Works

The Public Works Department consists of P W and Railway Departments and is under the charge of Secretary to Government in the Department of Agriculture and Industries.

The P W D deals with questions regarding the construction of public buildings and roads.

The Railway Department deals with questions regarding acquisition of lands required by the several Railways, the alignment of new lines of Railways, and with Tramway projects.

There is a Chief Engineer who is the principal professional adviser of Government.

Marine

The Marine Department deals with all questions connected with the welfare of seamen, the administration of the ports of Calcutta and inland navigation, including the control and administration of Government launches except the police launches and the Government Dockyard (Naryanganj).

Irrigation

The Irrigation Department deals with irrigation, navigation, flood protection by means of embankments and drainage, the latter including relief from congestion of drainage by regulating the available supplies of water to suit the requirements of agriculture combined with the supply of water for irrigation in cases in which a supply is available.

Police

The Bengal Police force comprises the Military Police, the District Police, the Railway Police, and the River Police. The Bengal Police are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the present Inspector-General being a member of the Imperial Police Service. Under him are Deputy Inspectors-General, for the Dacca Range, the Rajshahi range, the Presidency range, the Burdwan range and the Bakarganj range and also one Deputy Inspector-General in charge of the C I D and the Intelligence Branch. Each district is in charge of a Superintendent, and some of the more important districts have an Additional Superintendent. The Railway Police is divided into three distinct charges each under a Superintendent. The River Police is also under a Superintendent. The cadre comprises Assistant Superintendents, Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors,

head constables and constables. There is also a Village Police, composed of *daddars* and *chowkidars*, who receive a monthly salary which is collected from the villages or unions by the Panchayat or Union Board. There is a training college and school at Bardah, in the district of Rajshahi where newly appointed gazetted officers, and constables of the Bengal police learn their duties. The Calcutta City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government. The Commissioner has under him Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. A school for the training of recruits for the Calcutta Police force has been established at Calcutta. The annual cost of the Police is over 200 lakhs.

Medical

The head of the Medical Department is the Surgeon-General with the Government of Bengal, and Sanitation is in charge of the Director of Public Health, the former appointment is always held by a member of the Indian Medical Service while the latter post is not so reserved. There is also a Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal. In the districts the Civil Surgeons are responsible for medical work. There are 40 hospitals and dispensaries in Calcutta 10 of which are supported by the Government and 6,36,283 persons were treated at these institutions of whom 51,258 were in patients. In the mofussil districts there are 1,085 hospitals and dispensaries, the number of patients treated in them as well as in several huts, *fatras*, *medias*, subsidised and temporary dispensaries and in various medical centres was 80,47,802. This includes 76,378 in patients.

Education

In the Presidency of Bengal education is imparted partly through Government agency and partly through private bodies, assisted to some extent by Government grants-in-aid. Government maintains four Arts Colleges in Calcutta (of which one is a college for women, one is for Mahomedans and one the Sanskrit College) one at Hughli, one at Krishnagar, three, including the Islamia Inter Colleges, at Dacca, one at Rajshahi and one at Chittagong. It also maintains two training colleges, one at Calcutta and one at Dacca, for teachers who teach in secondary schools through the medium of English and 5 normal schools, one in each division, for the training of teachers in secondary schools through the medium of the vernacular also an engineering college at Bihpur and an engineering school at Dacca, two medical colleges, a veterinary college, a school of art and a commercial school in Calcutta, and a weaving school at Serampore. It also provides at the headquarters of all districts, except Burdwan and Midnapore, and also at certain other mofussil centres, English high schools for the education of boys, while to some Government Arts Colleges high schools are attached. In Calcutta there are five Government high schools for boys, two of which are attached to the Presidency College and one to the Sanskrit College. Government high schools for girls exist only in the headquarters stations of Calcutta, Dacca, Mymensingh, Comilla and Chittagong. The other secondary schools,

with the exception of a few middle schools managed either by Government or by municipal and district boards are under private control. The administration of primary education in all areas, which are not under municipalities rests with the district boards grants being given from provincial revenues to the boards, which contribute only slightly from their own funds. Only in backward localities are such schools either entirely managed, or directly aided, by Government. Apart from the institutions referred to above 51 institutions called *Shura Training Schools* are maintained by the Department for the training of primary school teachers. For the education of Mahomedans, there are senior *madrasas* at Calcutta, Dacca, Chittagong, Hughli, and Rajshahi which are managed by Government. There are also certain government institutions for technical and industrial education. All institutions for technical and industrial education (except B. E. College the Alimullah School of Engineering Dacca the Government Commercial Institute and the Government School of Art, Calcutta) are now under the control of the Director of Industries. A large proportion of educational work of every grade is under the control of various missionary bodies, which are assisted by Government grants-in aid.

The municipalities are required to expend a certain proportion of their ordinary income on education. They are mainly responsible for primary education within their jurisdiction but schools in these areas are eligible also for grants from Government. These bodies maintain a high school at Bardwan, a high school at Santipur and a high school at Chittagong.

In 1928-29 there were in the Presidency —

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES

Institutions	Scholars
Universities	2 1,994
Arts Colleges	44 20,469
Professional Colleges	14 5,300
High Schools	1,038 268,560
Middle Schools	1,897 168,207
Primary Schools	41,240 1,661,743
Special Schools	3,181 129,758

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES

Arts Colleges	4 353
Professional Colleges	3 43
High Schools	45 11,530
Middle Schools	67 8,877
Primary Schools	16,416 3,97,350
Special Schools	45 1,865

UNRECOGNISED SCHOOLS

Males	1,330 49,450
Females	253 8,410

The Department is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, assisted by an Assistant Director and an Addl. Asst. Director appointed temporarily an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education and a Director of Physical Education. Each division is in charge of a Divisional Inspector assisted by a certain number of Additional or Second Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors for Muhammadan Education according to the requirements of the several divisions. Similarly the administrative charge of the primary education of each district is in the hands of a District Inspector assisted by Sub-Divisional Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of schools the latter classes of officers being in some instances helped by officers of humbler status called Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting Pandits and Maulvis. Higher education is controlled by the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca established in 1857 and 1921 respectively administered by the Chancellor (the Governor of Bengal) the Vice-Chancellor (appointed by Government) and a number of ex-officio elected and nominated fellows. The University of Calcutta maintains a Law College, called University Law College Calcutta. Dacca University also has a Law Department attached to it. Calcutta University is mainly an examining body but it has now made itself responsible for advanced teaching for which purpose it employs an agency which is mainly distinct from the staffs of the affiliated colleges.

The percentage of scholars to the total population —

	Recognised Schools	All Schools
Males	8.61	8.81
Females	2.01	2.20
Total	5.49	5.52

The University at Dacca is of the residential type. There is a Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education at Dacca. It conducts the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations for the students of institutions at Dacca and also the Islamic Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations.

The education of Europeans is mainly conducted by private agency, assisted by Government grants. Government however maintain a special Inspector, and also a school for boys a school for girls (both residential) at Kurseong, and attached to the latter a Training College (for women only).

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL.**ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1930-31***Heads of Revenue.*

Thousands of Rs

Land Revenue	29,48
Excise	28 00
Stamp	5 000
Forest	28,61
Registration	36 00
Scheduled Taxes	16 2s
Subsidised Companies	1 10
Works for which Capital Accounts are kept—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	7,40
Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works	2,43
Interest	7 13
Administration of Justice	15 92
Jails and Convict Settlements	10,60
Police	11,85
Ports and Pilotage	81
Education	14,90
Medical	8,98
Public Health	1,43
Agriculture	6,38
Industries	7,11
Miscellaneous Departments	30
Civil Works	5,59
Transfer from Famine Relief Funds	20
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	1,23
Stationery and Printing	5,36
Miscellaneous	7,82
Miscellaneous Adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	
Extraordinary receipts	
Receipts in England—	
High Commissioner	1
Secretary of State	
Famine Relief Fund	55
Depreciation Fund for Government presses	1 64
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	50 20
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	7,23
Suspense	6,20
Loans and Advances by the Bengal Government	10,64
Total Receipts	11,73,30
Opening balance	1 87,27
Grand Total	12,60,57

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1930-31

Thousands of Rs

Land Revenue	48,76
Excise	22 92
Stamps	7 78
Forests	17,43
Forests Capital outlay charge to Revenue	2,59
Registration	22,14
Scheduled Taxes	15
Interest on works for which capital accounts are kept	18,16
Revenue Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works—	
Other revenue expenditure financed from ordinary revenue	14 79
Other revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance grants	2
Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works—	
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works	1,30
Interest	9,09
Interest on other obligations	5
Reduction or avoidance of debt	7,23

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL—*contd.*

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1930-1931— <i>contd</i>	Thousands of Rs.
General Administration	1,29.90
Administration of Justice	1,06.84
Jails and Convict Settlements	85.85
Police	2,15.43
Ports and Pilotage	5.40
Scientific Department	36
Education { Reserved	15 19
{ Transferred	1,34.71
Medical	59.84
Public Health	41.77
Agriculture	27.93
Industries	13.62
Miscellaneous Departments	2.52
Civil Works	98.65
Famine Relief	50
Superannuation allowances and pensions	49.19
Commutation of pensions	17.07
Stationery and Printing	24.59
Miscellaneous	8.61
Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by Provincial Government	
Miscellaneous Adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	
Extraordinary charges	
Expenditure in England—	
High Commissioner	} 40.93
Secretary of State	
Forest capital outlay not charged to Revenue	
(Capital expenditure not charged to Revenue	
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works (not charged to Revenue)	18.91
(Civil works not charged to Revenue	22.58
(Committed value of pension	
Famine Relief Fund	50
Depreciation Fund for Government premises	1.40
Repayments to the Government of India of advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	7.23
Suspense	6.84
Loans and advances by the Bengal Government	19.28
Total Expenditure	12,80.56
Closing balance	1,00.01
GRAND TOTAL	13,80.57

Administrations

GOVERNOR AND PRESIDENT IN COUNCIL

His Excellency Colonel the Right Hon ble Sir
Francis Stanley Jackson, P C, O C I E

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary, J D Tyson, ICS

Military Secy, Major W A K Frazer OBE,
D60, M10, MC

Surgeon, Major H Higginson, I M S

Aide-de-Camp, Capt J V Gordon 111th Sikhs
Lieut E D Vaux, 8th King's Own
Hussars

„ Lieut J F Milburne, Scots Guards
„ Lieut A O Maynard, 1st Battalion,
The Seaforth Highlanders

Commandant, H. E. The Governor's Body Guard
 Lt Col W Kenworthy The Poona Horse
 7th Queen Victoria's Own Cavalry)

Commandant, H E The Governor's Body Guard
Lt Col W Kenworthy The Poona Horse
(17th Queen Victoria's Own Cavalry)

H E The Governor's Body Guard Adjutant
Capt E St J Birne, Sam Brown's Cavalry
(12th Frontier Force)

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL.

The Hon Mr A Mait C.I.E. I.C.S

" , S/r Provash Chunder Mitter, Kt
C.I.E (on special duty)

" Alhaj Sir Abdelkerim Ghaznavi
" Mr Bepin Behari Ghosh M A, B L
(temporary)

MINISTERS

MINISTERS

The Hon. Mr. Khwaja Nazimuddin (Education)

The Hon Khan Bahadur Kazi Ghulam Mohiud

din Farooqi (Public Works and Industries)

The Hon Mr Bhoj Prasad Singh Roy

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

The Hon Raja Sir Manmatha Nath Ray Chau-

dhuri, Lt of Santosh (President)
Mr Bazam Rahman Khan, B.L. (Dy President)

SECRETARIAT		LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF BENGAL.	
Chief Secretary to Government, R. N. Reid C.I.E., I.C.S.		Frederick J. Halliday	1854
Secretary Revenue Department, H. C. V. Philpot I.C.S.		John P. Grant	1859
Secretary, Finance, Commerce and Marine Departments, R. N. Blandy, I.C.S.		Cecil Beadon	1862
Secretary to the Council and Secretary, Legislative Department, J. Bartley I.C.S.		William Grey	1867
Secretary, Agriculture and Industries, G. P. Hogg I.C.S.		George Campbell	1871
MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.		Sir Richard Temple, Bart. K.C.M.G.	1874
Director of Public Instruction, H. E. Stapleton M.A.		The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	1877
Inspector-General of Police, I. J. A. Craig		Sir Stuart C. Bayley K.C.S.I. (Offg.)	1879
Commissioner, Calcutta Police Sir C. A. Tegart C.I.E.		A. Rivers Thompson, C.S.I., C.I.E.	1882
Surgeon-General, Lt.-Col. Hugh Barkley Steen, M.D., I.M.S.		H. A. Cookerell C.S.I. (Officiating)	1885
Collector of Customs, Calcutta G. S. Hardy, B.A., I.C.S.		Sir Stuart C. Bayley K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1887
Commissioner of Excise and Salt, Rai Bahadur Bharat Kumar Raha		Sir Charles Alfred Elliott, K.C.S.I.	1890
Accountant-General, Jaljopal Bhandari M.A.		Sir A. P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (Offg.)	1893
Inspector-General of Prisons Viscont		Sir Alexander Mackenzie K.C.S.I.	1895
Postmaster-General (I.E. Clerk), C.I.E. C.B.		Retired 6th April 1898	
Inspector General of Registration, Rai Bahadur J. N. Ray		Charles Cecil Stevens C.S.I. (Officiating)	1897
Director of Agriculture R. S. Finlow, B.Sc., F.R.C.		Sir John Woodburn, K.C.S.I.	1898
Protector of Emigrants Lt. Col. Arthur Denham White, I.M.S., M.D.		Died, 21st Nov. 1902.	
Curator of Herbarium Royal Botanic Gardens, Kallipada Bhowas		J. A. Bourdillon C.S.I. (Officiating)	1903
		Sir A. H. Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I.	1903
		Lancelot Hare C.S.I., C.I.E. (Offg.)	1906
		F. A. Slacke (Officiating)	1906
		Sir E. N. Baker, K.C.S.I.	1909
		Retired 21st Sept 1911	
		F. W. Duke, C.S.I. (Officiating)	1911
		The office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was abolished on April 1st, 1912, when Bengal was raised to a Governorship	
		GOVERNORS OF THE PRESIDENCY OF BOMBAY	
		WILLIAM IN BENGAL	
		The Rt. Hon. Baron Carmichael of Skirling G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G.	1912
		The Rt. Hon. Earl of Ronaldshay, G.C.I.E.	1917
		The Rt. Hon. Lord Lytton	1922
		The Rt. Hon. Sir Stanley Jackson, F.C., G.C.I.E.	1927

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

The Hon. ble Raja Sir Manmatha Nath Ray Chaudhuri Kt., of Santosh, President
 Razam Rahman Khan B.L. Deputy President

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex officio—	
The Hon. ble	Mr A. Marr C.I.E. I.C.S.
" "	Sir Provash Chunder Mitter, Kt., C.I.E. (on leave)
" "	Mr B. B. Ghose (offg.)
" "	Alhadj Sir Abdelkrim Ghuznavi Kt.
" "	Mr W. D. B. Trevellick, C.I.E. I.C.S.

MINISTERS

" "	Khan Bahadur A. G. V. Farouki
" "	Mr Khwaja Nazimuddin M.A. (Caulat.) Bar-at-law C.I.E.
" "	Mr Bijoy Prasad Singh Roy

Official Nominated Members—

Lt. Col. H. D. Steen I.M.S.
J. W. Nelson
A. J. Dash
G. P. Hogg
C. W. Gurner
H. J. Twynham
H. E. Stapleton
G. A. Eason
S. K. Haldar
H. S. E. Stevens
L. G. Pinnell
B. H. Hutchings
Rai Buri Kumar Ganguli Bahadur

Nominated Non Officials—

Rev. B. A. Nuk
Rai Sahib Rishati Mohan Sarker
K. C. Ray Chaudhuri
Maulvi Latifat Hussain
D. J. Cohen
Sir Jadunath Sarker Kt., C.I.E.
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Hafizur Rahman Chaudhuri
P. N. Guha
Mukunda Behary Mullick

Elected Members

Name of Members	Name of Constituency
<p>Babu Jatindra Nath Basu Mr S M Bose Bar at-Law Seth Hunuman Prasad Poddar Rai Dr Haridhan Dutt Bahadur Babu Gokul Chand Bural Dr Sir Nihatan Sircar, Kt & D Munindra Deb, Rai Mahasai Dr Amulya Ratan Ghose Babu Pratulla Kumar Gaha</p> <p>Babu Satyendra Nath Roy</p> <p>Babu Satyendra Kumar Das Mr Balleswar Singh Roy Babu Jitendralal Bannerjee Mr J K Gupta, C.I.E. M.S.E. Babu Satya Kinkar Sahana Babu Hoseni Bout Mr B. Malit, Bar at-Law Rai Sahib Sarat Chandra Mukhopadhyaya Rai Satish Chandra Mukharji Bahadur Babu Haribansa Roy Babu Sarat Chandra Mittra Mr P Banerji Rai Debendra Nath Ballabh Bahadur Mr Narendra Kumar Basu Srijiit Taj Bahadur Singh Mr D N Roy, Bar at-Law Babu Jitendra Nath Roy Babu Suk Lal Nag Rai Keshab Chandra Banerji Bahadur Dr Naresn Chandra Sen Gupta Babu Satish Chandra Ray Chowdhuri, B I Rai Sahib Akshoy Kumar Son Mr Sarat Chandra Bai Mr B C Chatterjee, Bar at-Law Babu Lalit Kumar Bai Rai Kamini Kumar Das Bahadur, M.S.E. Babu Khetter Mohan Ray Babu Hem Chandra Roy Choudhuri Babu Kishori Mohan Chaudhuri Maharaja Jagadish Nath Ray of Dinajpur Rai Sahib Panchanan Barma, M.S.E. Babu Nagendra Narayan Ray, B.L. Dr Jogendra Chandra Chaudhuri Mr Shani Shokhbarwar Ray Mr Prouanna Deb Balcak Mr A Raheem C.I.E. Mr H B Sunkrwardy M.A. (Oxon and Cal.), B.Sc. B.C.L. (Oxon), Barrister at Law Maulvi Shukh Rahim Baksh Maulvi Muhammad Solaiman Maulvi Muhammad Sadeatullah Nawab Khwaja Habibullah Maulvi Abdul Karem Mr A F M. Abdur Rahman Khan Bahadur Maulvi Asiful Haque Maulvi Abbas Samad Maulvi Syed Majid Baksh Maulvi Syed Nausher Ali Maulvi Syed Jalaluddin Hashemy</p>	<p>Calcutta North (Non Muhammadan) Calcutta East (Non Muhammadan) Calcutta West (Non Muhammadan) Calcutta Central (Non Muhammadan) Calcutta South Central (Non Muhammadan) Calcutta South (Non Muhammadan) Hooghly Municipal (Non Muhammadan) Howrah Municipal (Non Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Municipal, North (Non Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Municipal, South (Non Muhammadan) Dacca City (Non Muhammadan) Burdwan North (Non Muhammadan) Birbhum (Non Muhammadan) Bankura West (Non Muhammadan) Bankura East (Non Muhammadan) Midnapore North (Non Muhammadan) Midnapore South (Non Muhammadan) Midnapore South East (Non Muhammadan) Hooghly Rural (Non Muhammadan) Howrah Rural (Non Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Rural Central (Non Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Rural South (Non Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Rural North (Non Muhammadan) Nadia (Non Muhammadan) Murshidabad (Non Muhammadan) Jessore South (Non Muhammadan) Jessore North (Non Muhammadan) Khulna (Non Muhammadan) Dacca Rural (Non Muhammadan) Mymensingh West (Non Muhammadan) Mymensingh East (Non Muhammadan) Faridpur North (Non Muhammadan) Faridpur South (Non Muhammadan) Bakarganj North (Non Muhammadan) Bakarganj South (Non Muhammadan) Chittagong (Non-Muhammadan) Fippera (Non-Muhammadan) Noakhali (Non Muhammadan) Rajshahi (Non Muhammadan) Dinajpur (Non Muhammadan) Bangpur West (Non Muhammadan) Bangpur East (Non Muhammadan) Bogra cum Pabna (Non Muhammadan) Malda (Non Muhammadan) Jaipalguri (Non-Muhammadan) Calcutta North (Muhammadan) Calcutta South (Muhammadan) Hooghly cum Howrah Municipal (Muhammadan) Barrackpore Municipal (Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Municipal (Muhammadan) Dacca City (Muhammadan) Burdwan Division North (Muhammadan) Burdwan Division South (Muhammadan) 24 Parganas Rural (Muhammadan) Nadia (Muhammadan) Murshidabad (Muhammadan) Jessore North (Muhammadan) Jessore South (Muhammadan) Khulna (Muhammadan)</p>

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency
Maulvi Abdul Ghani Chowdhury, B.L.	Dacca West Rural (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Aisur Rahman	Mymensingh North West (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Nur Rahman Khan Kusufji	Mymensingh South West (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Abdul Hamid Shah	Mymensingh East (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Abdul Hakim	Mymensingh Central (Muhammadian)
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Alimussaman Chaudhuri	Faridpur North (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Tamsuddin Khan	Faridpur South (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Muhammad Hossain	Bakarganj North (Muhammadian)
Mr A. K. Fazl ul Huq	Bakarganj West (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Nurul Ahsan Choudhury	Chittagong North (Muhammadian)
Haji Badl Ahmed Choudhury	Chittagong South (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Syed Osman Haidar Chaudhury	Tippera North (Muhammadian)
Khan Sahib Maulvi Bazul Huq	Noakhali East (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Muhammad Faziullah	Noakhali West (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Mohammed Basiruddin	Rajshahi North (Muhammadian)
Haji Lal Mohammed	Rajshahi South (Muhammadian)
Maulvi Hassan Ali	Dinajpur (Muhammadian)
Mr A. F. Rahman	Rangpur West (Muhammadian)
Kazi Rmdadul Hoque	Rangpur East (Muhammadian)
Mr Altaf Ali	Bogra (Muhammadian)
Khan Sahib Maulvi Muazzam Ali Khan	Pabna (Muhammadian)
Nawab Musaharruf Hossain Khan Bahadur	Malda cum Jalpaiguri (Muhammadian)
Mr J. Campbell Forrester	Presidency and Burdwan (European)
Mr E. O. Ormond	Do
Mr F. V. Rushforth	Do
Mr J. E. Ordish	Dacca and Chittagong (European)
Mr W. L. Travers, C.I.E., O.B.E.	Rajshahi (European)
Mr L. T. Maguire	Anglo Indian
Mr E. T. McCluskie	Do
Raja Bhupendra Narayan Sinha Bahadur, of Masulipur	Burdwan Landholders
Mr Baral Kumar Roy	Presidency Landholders
Mr Arun Chandra Singha	Chittagong Landholders
Kumar Sahib Shekharwar Ray	Rajshahi Landholders
Mr Syamaprosad Mookerjee Bar at Law	Calcutta University
Raj Sheshanka Kumar Ghosh Bahadur, C.I.E.	Dacca University
Mr G. B. Datta, C.I.E.	Bengal Chamber of Commerce
" R. B. Lalrod	Do
" W. H. Thompson	Do
" H. H. Burn	Do
" O. E. Sumner	Do
" R. Smith	Do
" N. E. Luke	Do
" G. G. Cooper	Indian Jute Mills Association
" A. D. Gordon	Do
" I. A. Clark	Indian Tea Association
" H. B. Norton	Indian Mining Association
" Surendra Nath Law	Calcutta Trades Association
Maharaja Sri Chandra Nandy, of Kasimbazar	Bengal National Chamber of Commerce
Raj Badridas Goenka Bahadur C.I.E.	Do
Mr Ananda Mohan Poddar	Bengal Marwari Association
	Bengal Mahajan Sabha

The United Provinces.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh lie in practically the centre of Upper India. They are bounded on the north by Tibet, on the north-east by Nepal, on the east and south-east by Bihar, on the south by two of the Chota-Nagpur States of the Central India Agency and the Sagar district of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the States of Gwalior, Dholpur, Bharatpur, Birmoor, and Jubbah, and by the Punjab. Their total area amounts to 105,295 square miles, to which may be added the area of the two Indian States of Tehri and Rampur, both of which lie within the United Provinces, 5,392 square miles and the newly-created State of Benares with an area of 875 square miles, giving a total of 113,562 square miles. The total population is 46,510,668.

The Provinces, originally termed the North Western Provinces and so amalgamated in 1877, receiving their present designation in 1902, include four distinct tracts of country portions of the Himalayas, including the Kumaon division which consists of three hill districts, two of which are entirely in the hills and one is half in the submontane belt, the sub-Himalayan tract, the great Gangetic plain, and portions of the hill systems of Central India including Bundelkhand. The Gangetic plain is protected by an extensive Canal system, which though somewhat liable to run short of water in extremely dry years, is of great benefit in all ordinary years and years of limited drought. The first two of these tracts are infertile and support a very sparse population and the Central Indian plateau is almost equally infertile, though better populated. The soil of the Gangetic plain, however, possesses an extreme fertility and here the density of population rises from 512 persons per square mile in the west, to 549 in the centre and 718 in the east, which gives the Provinces as a whole a greater population pressure on the soil than any other Province in India. In the south there are low rocky hills, broken spurs of the Vindhyan mountains, covered with stunted trees and jungle, and in the North the lower slopes of the Himalayas, clothed with dense forest, affording excellent big and small game shooting, and rising beyond in a tangled mass of ridges, ever higher and higher, until is reached the line of the eternal snows, but the greater part of the province consists of level plain, teeming with highly-cultivated fields and watered by three rivers—the Ganges, Jumna, and Gogra.

The People.

The population is mainly Hindu, 65 per cent ranking as such whilst Mahomedans number 14 per cent., the total of all other religions being a little over 1 per cent. composed of Christians (Europeans and Indians), Jains, Aryas and Sikhs. The Aryas are the followers of the Arya Samaj sect, which obtains widely in the Punjab and has extended its influence to the United Provinces. The three main physical types are Dravidian, Aryan and Mongoloid, the latter being confined to the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan districts and the former to South Mirzapur and Bundelkhand, whilst the high-caste Aryans frequent the Western districts of the Provinces. Most of the people, however, show

a mixed Arya-Dravidian origin. Three languages are spoken by the great majority of the people in the plains—Western Hindi, Eastern Hindi and Bihari, Urdu, or Hindustani is a dialect of Western Hindi, though it contains a large admixture of Persian and Arabic words, which makes it a *lingua franca*.

Industries

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports no less than 76.3 per cent. of the population. The soils of the Provinces fall into three groups, the valley soils of the Himalayas, the main alluvium and the Central Indian alluvium, the chief characteristic soil of the Central Indian alluvium is the black soil, with a lighter variant, though here also there are light loams and gravel. The Himalayan soils are of local origin and vary with the nature of the rock from which they have been formed, whilst the main alluvium soils are sand, clay and loam, the loam being, naturally, the most productive. The soil generally yields excellent crops of rice, millet, maize, linseed, cotton, wheat, sugarcane, pulses, barley and poppy, rice being grown mostly in low-lying, heavy clays. The greater part of the Provinces is highly cultivated, the rainfall varies from 80 to 60 inches in the hills, to 40 inches in the Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions, whilst the Agra Division receives about 25 to 30 inches annually only. Drought seriously affected Bundelkhand and the Agra Division, in the past, but improved drainage, and irrigation (a protective system of irrigation works exists and is being extended) have enabled a complete recovery to be made and the agricultural prosperity of the Provinces is now high, though it varies with the rainfall. Land is held mostly on the ryotwari tenure in Bundelkhand and Kumaon on semi-land tenure in Agra and taluqdari tenure in Oudh. The principal land owners in Oudh are the Taluqdars, some of whom own very large estates. The area held in taluqdari tenure amounts to 54 per cent of the total area in Oudh.

Manufactures.

The Provinces are not rich in minerals. Coal exists in Southern Mirzapur, iron and copper are found in the Himalayan districts, and there were mines of importance there formerly, but increased difficulty of working them as veins became exhausted resulted in the closure of most of them. Gold is found in minute quantities by washing in some of the rivers in the hills. Limestone is found in the Himalayas and in the Meerut district, and stone is largely quarried in the Mirzapur district. Cotton is ginned and spun throughout the provinces, as a home industry, and weaving, by means of hand-looms, is carried on in most districts. According to the census of 1921, 100,000 persons were dependent on cotton spinning, cleaning and pressing, and 920,000 on spinning and weaving. The largest industry is in the Amargarh district, where there are 8,585 looms. Silk spinning is confined almost entirely to the district of Benares, where the famous Mubbar brocade is made. Embroidery is manufactured in Lucknow, where the noted cotton work of silk on cotton or muslin is produced, and in Benares, where gold and

river work on velvet, silk, crepe and sarsonet shawls. The glass industry is important in some districts. Benares and Moradabad are noted for their lacquered brasswork, Farrukhabad for its calico prints and Agra for its carpets and marble and alabaster articles, porcelain is manufactured in Ghazipur, and other industries are those of paper-making (Lucknow) dyeing, leather and brews. The chief centre of European and Indian industry is Cawnpore, which, situated in the most advantageous position on the Ganges, possesses tanneries, cotton, woollen and other mills, which have a large and ever increasing output (the woollen mill is the largest in India). There are cotton factories at Aligarh (famous for its locks), Meerut and Bareilly, Mirzapur (which produces also excellent carpets), Hardoi and Hathras have cotton mills. Excellent furniture is made at Bareilly, at Allahabad there are stone works, at Ross there is a large English distillery with patent still.

The largest trade centres are Cawnpore, Allahabad, Mirzapur, Benares, Lucknow, Meerut, Aligarh, Hathras, Muttra, Agra, Farrukhabad, Moradabad, Chandauli, Bareilly, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Ghazabad, Khurja, Gorakhpur, Ghazipur, Pilibhit and Shahjahanpur.

Administration.

The Province was until the close of 1920 administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, chosen from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Reform scheme the Province was raised to the status of a Governor-in-Council the Governor being assisted by two members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers from Jan 12, 1926, in charge of the Transferred Subjects. The medium for the transaction of public business is the Secretariat, the Staff of which consists of 7 Secretaries and 4 Deputy Secretaries. The Director of Public Instruction is also an *ex-officio* Deputy Secretary in the Education Department. The Chief Secretary is in charge of Appointment, General Administration, Executive, Political Newspaper and Police Departments, the Finance Secretary deals mainly with the Finance Department the Revenue Secretary is in charge of the Revenue and Forest Departments and Public Works Department (Buildings and Road), the Education Secretary looks to the Education, Industries Agriculture and Excise Departments the L. S. G. Secretary to the local Self-Government, Municipal, Medical and Public Health Departments and the Judicial Secretary is in charge of the Judicial and Legislative Departments. The seventh Secretary belongs to the Public Works Department, (Irrigation Branch) and is also Chief Engineer for the Irrigation Branch of the P. W. D. Government spends the cold weather October to April, in Lucknow and Allahabad mostly in Lucknow, though the Secretariat remains throughout the year at Allahabad. The Governor and the Secretaries spend the hot weather in Naini Tal, but during the monsoon the Governor tours the plains, as he does also in the cold weather. The Board of Revenue is the highest court of appeal in revenue and rent cases, being the chief revenue authority in the province. There are fifty-eight British districts, thirty-six in Agra and twelve in Oudh, average area 2,000 square

miles and average population a million. Each district is in charge of a District Officer, termed a Collector and Magistrate in Agra and a Deputy Commissioner in Oudh and Kumaon. The districts are grouped together in divisions under a Commissioner. There are ten divisions, having an average area of nearly 12,000 square miles and a population of from 5 to 6 millions. The districts are sub-divided into *tahsils*, with an average area of 500 square miles and a population of 220,000. Each *Tahsil* is in charge of a *Tahsildar*, who is responsible for the collection of revenue, and also exercises judicial powers. *Tahsils* are divided into *parganas* which are units of importance in the settlement of land revenue. Subordinate to the *Tahsildars* are *sub tahsildars* and *hauquas* and one *sub tahsildar* to a *tahsil*. The *Kanungos* supervise the work of the *patwaris*, or village accountants, check their papers and form a link direct between the villagers and Government. For judicial purposes (revenue and criminal), the District Officer assigns a sub-division consisting of one or more *tahsils*, as the case may be to each of his subordinates, who may be co-opted civilians (Joint and Assistant Magistrates and Collectors) or members of the Provincial Service (Deputy Collectors and Magistrates). The Commissioner of the Rohilkhand and Kumaon Divisions are Political Agents for the Native States of Rampur and Tehri respectively and the Commissioner of Benares is the Political Agent for Benares State.

Justice

Justice is administered by the High Court of Judicature at Allahabad in the provinces of Agra and by the Chief Court of Oudh sitting at Lucknow which are the final appellate authorities in both criminal and civil cases. The former consists of a Chief Justice and eight permanent and three temporary puisne judges six of whom are Indians, and the latter consists of a Chief Judge and four judges four of whom including the chief judge are Indians. There are thirty-two posts (twenty-four in Agra and eight in Oudh) of district and sessions judges of which nine Indians not belonging to the Indian Civil Service as they have been listed to the provincial service and the bar. They have both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases and occasional appellate jurisdiction in rent cases. District Officers and their assistants including *tahsildars*, preside in criminal courts as magistrates and as collectors and assistant collectors, in rent and revenue courts and dispose of a good deal of the work. Kumaon has been brought under the Civil jurisdiction of the High Court from 1st April 1926. The deputy and assistant commissioners exercise inferior civil powers in this division which has no separate civil courts. In the rest of the provinces there are subordinate judges judges of small cases courts and magistrates who dispose of a large number of civil suits. In Agra the jurisdiction of a subordinate judge extends to all original suits without pecuniary limit and a *munshi* can hear cases ordinarily of a value not exceeding Rs 2,000, and if specially empowered up to Rs 5,000. In Oudh the ordinary jurisdiction of a subordinate judge extends to suits valuing not more than Rs 20,000 and the ordinary jurisdiction of a *munshi* to suits of Rs 2,000

value, provided that in special cases the limit of pecuniary jurisdiction can be removed altogether in the case of a subordinate judge and that of the munsif raised up to Rs. 5,000. Appeals from munsifs always lie to the district judge while those from the subordinate judges go to the High Court or the Chief Court except in cases of a value of Rs. 5,000 or less which are heard by the district judge. Small cause court judges try suits to the value of Rs. 500. There are also honorary munsifs limited to Rs. 200 suits, and village munsifs whose jurisdiction is fixed at Rs. 20.

Local Self-Government.

The units of local self-government are the district and municipal boards which, with the exception of four municipal boards, have non-official Chairmen. The more important municipal boards have executive officers to whom certain administrative powers are reserved. The administrative functions of the municipal district boards are performed by the chairman and the secretary but the boards themselves are directly responsible for most of the administration. The district boards obtain 45% of their income from Government grants. The other chief source of income is the local rate levied from the landowners. The chief source of municipal income is the octroi or terminal tax and toll which is an octroi in modified form. Local opinion is strongly in favour of indirect as opposed to direct taxation for municipal purposes.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is divided into the Buildings and Roads branch and the Irrigation branch. The Buildings and Roads branch is administered by a Civilian Secretary and the principal administrative officer is a Chief Engineer; the Irrigation branch is administered by two Secretaries to Government who are also Chief Engineers. The Province is divided into circles and divisions both for buildings and roads and for irrigation purposes. Each circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer or a Deputy Chief Engineer and each division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The whole of the irrigation works constructed or maintained by Government are in charge of the Irrigation branch. All metalled roads maintained from Provincial funds and construction of all buildings more than Rs. 30,000 are in charge of the Buildings and Roads branch. In the Irrigation branch one of the Chief Engineers is in charge of Eastern Canals comprising the Ganga Canal and canals in Bundelkhand and the other is in charge of Western Canals comprising Ganges Canal, Eastern Jumna Canal, Agra Canal and Mirzapur Canals. The Ganga Canal—a work of the first magnitude was opened in 1923 and has introduced irrigation into most of the districts of Oudh. In connection with the Ganges Canal an important hydro electric scheme the scope of which covers seven western districts of the province is nearing completion. It is capable of further development and will ultimately give a total output of 28,500 kilowatts. The energy is being distributed by means of 836 miles of High Tension lines to provide all towns of 5,000 population and over in the seven districts with cheap power for lights, fans and minor industries. The energy will also be used for irrigation pumping from rivers,

and low level canals as well as from tube and open wells. The total cost of the first stage of the scheme including pumping projects for irrigation is 140 lakhs.

Police

The Police Force is divided into District and Railway Police and is administered by an Inspector-General, with three Deputies and two Assistants, forty-six District Superintendents, three Railway Superintendents, forty-one Assistant Superintendents and sixty Deputy Superintendents. There is a Police Training School at Moradabad. There is a local C I D forming a separate detective department, under a Deputy Inspector-General with three assistants. The armed police used to be armed with the 475 musket and in certain districts to some extent also with the Martini-Henry rifle, but these arms are being replaced by the 410 musket. One of the three ranges has already been so armed. The administration of the Jail Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Prisons, who is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

Education

Education is maintained in part by the State and partly by means of grants-in-aid. There are five universities, the four residential universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, Aligarh (Muslim) and Benares (Hindu) and the affiliating University of Agra. The last named was established in 1927 and consists, besides six affiliated colleges situated outside the United Provinces, of the eight colleges for men associated with the Allahabad University on its external side viz., the Agra and St. John's Colleges at Agra, the Christ Church, D.A. V. and Sanshodhan College at Cawnpore, the Mount College, Meerut, the Barilly College, Barilly and St. Andrew's College, Gorakhpur. There are a number of Intermediate Colleges which prepare boys for the high school and intermediate examinations conducted by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, which controls high school and intermediate education. The Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow and the Crothwaite Girls College at Allahabad impart university education to Indian girls and the Theosophical National Girls' School and Women's College at Benares teach up to the intermediate stage. The St. George's Intermediate College, Munroo, the Philander-Smith College, Naini Tal, the St. Joseph's College, Naini Tal, the Martindale College, Lucknow and the Boys Intermediate College, Allahabad, are a few of the well known institutions for European and Anglo-Indian children in the province, besides these there are many excellent private educational institutions for European boys and girls both in the hills and plains which are attended by students from all over India. Government maintain Training Colleges for teachers in Lucknow, Allahabad and Agra, and there are training departments attached to the Aligarh Muslim University and the Benares Hindu University. There is a Government Engineering College at Boorkee (Thames College), a School of Art and Crafts in Lucknow and an Agricultural College, and a Technological Institute at Cawnpore, there is also a non-Government Agricultural Institute at Naini,

Allahabad Education in law is given at the four residential universities and at the Agra and Meerut colleges, and at the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic and Sanatan Dharma Colleges at Cawnpore. Instruction in commerce for the B. Com. degree of the Agra University is given in the Sanatan Dharma and the D.A.V. Colleges at Cawnpore and in the St. John's College at Agra. The King George's Medical College, Lucknow now merged in the Lucknow University, prepares candidates for the M.B.B.S. degree of the Lucknow University. Besides this there are two medical schools at Agra for males and females. Public schools for secondary and primary vernacular education are almost entirely maintained or aided by district and municipal boards and vernacular education is almost entirely in their hands.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, who is assisted by a lady Superintendent for Medical aid to women in the administration of the Dufferin fund affairs. A Civil Surgeon is in charge and is responsible for the medical work of each district and in a few of the larger stations he has an assistant. In two stations (Kanikhet and Borkhee) Medical Officers in military employ hold collateral civil charge. There are 108 Provincial Medical service officers in charge of important Moffusil dispensaries and on the reserve list and a large number of Indian Provincial subordinate medical service officers. Lady doctors and women sub-assistant surgeons visit *paudanaishis* women in their own houses and much good work is done in

this manner. Maternity and Child Welfare Centres have been opened in almost all the districts of the province.

The best equipped hospitals for Indian patients are the Thomson Hospital at Agra, King George's Hospital which has a Pathological Laboratory attached to it, the Balmampur Hospital at Lucknow, the Prince of Wales Hospital, Cawnpore, King Edward VII Hospital Benares, the Civil Hospital at Allahabad (for Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Indians living in European style) and Saint Mary's Cottage Hospital, Mussoorie. The Ramnath Hospital for Europeans at Naini Tal is a first class institution and there are also the Lady Dufferin Hospital, King George's Medical College, Lucknow, is one of the best equipped colleges in the country, with a staff of highly efficient professors, and the hospital attached to it is the first in the Province. There are also male and female medical schools at Agra. As the K. Ray Institute at Dehra Dun has been closed, it is proposed to institute classes of instruction in X-ray diagnosis and therapy at the King George's Medical College, Lucknow, where every facility for such work would be forthcoming. There are sanatoria for British soldiers in the hills. The King Edward VII Sanatorium at Bhawal in the district of Naini Tal is an up-to-date and well equipped institution for the treatment of European and Indian consumptives. In addition five centres for the treatment of tubercular patients have been established at Agra, Allahabad, Benares, Cawnpore and Lucknow. There are mental hospitals for Indian non-criminal lunatics at Agra and Bareilly and for criminal lunatics at Benares.

THE FINANCES OF THE UNITED PROVINCES

As explained in the chapters on the new constitution of India, under the Reforms Act of 1919, the financial position of the Provinces underwent a remarkable change. The Provinces are, for all practical purposes financially independent of the Government of India. The contribution payable by the Local Government has been remitted entirely by the Government of India with effect from the year 1922-23. As the finances of the Provinces thus become of greater importance, the position is set out in some detail in the following pages —

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1930-31

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs
Taxes on Income	
Land Revenue	7,00,12,630
Excise	1,20,78,000
Stamps	1,81,38,000
Forests	57,26,643
Registration	12,55,100
Scheduled Taxes	
Total	10,91,10,408
<hr/>	
Railways.	
Subsidised Companies	1,75,000

The United Provinces

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<i>Irrigation</i>		
Works for which capital accounts are kept—		Rs
(1) Productive Works—		
Net receipts	1,06,87 70a
(2) Unproductive Works—		
Net receipts	..	—3,86,700
	Total, net receipts	1 06,01,001 85,000
Works for which no capital accounts are kept		
	tal Irrigation	1,03,86 001
<i>Debt Services</i>		
Interest	15,63,000
	Total	15,63,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
Administration of Justice		14,95,857
Jails and Convict Settlements		6,25 400
Police		1 91 147
Education		12,00 000
Medical		3 00,000
Public Health		1,68,044
Agriculture		6,21,030
Industries		1 96 700
Miscellaneous Departments		75,025
	Total ..	50,73,253
Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—		
Civil Works		3,50,000
		3,50,000
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		Rs.
Transfers from Famine Insurance Fund		
Receipts in aid of superannuation		2,86 000
Stationery and Printing		4 97,600
Miscellaneous		9,79 600
	Total	17,63,200
Extraordinary receipts	..	
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		
	Total Revenue	12,13 70 857

Debt, deposits and advances —	Rs
(a) Government Press Depreciation Fund	
(b) Famine Relief Funds	14,20,000
(c) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments	88,10,000
(d) Advances from Provincial Loans Funds	1,39,40,000
(e) Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of Debt-Sinking Fund	25,50,000
(f) Investment in shares and debentures of the Indian Bobbin Company	
Total	2,67,20,000
Total receipts	15,50,96,867
Opening Balance	35,30,499
Grand Total	16,86,27,366

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1930-31*Direct demands on the Revenues*

Taxes on Income	
Land Revenue	96,03,572
Excise	13,62,672
Stamps	2,69,513
Forests	33,80,821
Forest Capital outlay charged to revenue	88,394
Registration	5,02,528
Total	1,58,37,408

Railway Revenue Account,

State Railways—Interest on debt	7,934
Subsidised companies	5,200
Total	13,134

Irrigation Revenue Account

Works for which capital accounts are kept—

Interest on Irrigation Works	1,02,12,000
Other revenue Irrigation expenditure financed from ordinary revenues	25,760
Total	1,02,38,810

Irrigation Capital Account (charged to revenue)

Construction of Irrigation Works—

A.—Financed from ordinary revenues	1,57,708
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Debt Services

Interest on ordinary debt	43,22,532
Sinking Fund	21,50,000
Payment to the Provincial loan fund	8,03,968
Total	72,76,499

Civil Administration.		Rs.
General Administration ..		1,40,22,644
Administration of Justice		77,07,309
Jails and Convicts' Settlements		40,68,418
Police		1,70,34,897
Scientific Departments		82,116
Education		2,00,96,037
Medical		87,57,077
Public Health		24,37,838
Agriculture		35,80,946
Industries		15,23,907
Miscellaneous Departments		82,939
Exchange		
	Total	7,47,84,218
<i>Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements</i>		
Civil Works		63,74,462
	Total	63,74,462
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Famine Relief and Insurance—		
A—Famine Relief		2,24,000
B—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund		13,76,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions		50,73,060
Stationery and Printing		15,81,681
Miscellaneous		6,86,431
	Total	88,41,162
<i>Expenditure in England—</i>		
Secretary of State		2,04,000
High Commissioner		41,03,760
<i>Irrigation and other capital expenditure not charged to revenue</i>		
(a) Construction of Irrigation works	}	75,00,660
(c) Hydro-electric scheme		
(d) Outlay on improvement of public health		
(e) Outlay on Agricultural improvement		
(b) Forest outlay		
	Total	75,00,660
<i>Debt, Deposits and Advances—</i>		
(a) Famine Relief Fund		
(b) Civil Contingencies Fund		65,000
(c) Loans and Advances by Local Governments		22,06,000
(d) Sinking Fund Investment Account		2,50,000
(e) Government Press Depreciation Fund		3,500
(f) Repayment of Advances from Provincial Loans Fund		86,10,000
60 B Payment of Commuted Value of Pensions		2,79,431
60 Civil Works		49,13,144
60-A Other Provincial Works not charged to revenue		
Government Accounts		
	Total	1,26,27,075
Total Disbursements		15,33,68,886
Closing Balance		62,58,470
Grand Total		15,86,27,356

Administration
Governor—His Excellency Sir Malcolm Hailey
 G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. I.C.S.

Private Secretary—Major T. F. Paterson M.C.

Aides-de-Camp—Lt. E. R. Benson and Lt. Col.
 E. Menzies, O.B.E.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Capt. Nawab Sir Muhammad
 Ahmad Said Khan, K.C.I.F., M.B.E.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. C. Smith I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Nawab Sir Muhammad Muzammil
 ullah Khan, K.C.I.F. (Temporary)

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Nawab Muhammad Yusuf, Bar
 at-Law

The Hon'ble Maharaj Kumar Major Mahijit
 Singh

The Hon'ble Mr. T. P. Srivastava

SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary to Government, Kunwar Ja. Mohi
 Pasand, O.B.E., I.C.S.

Financial Secretary to Government, E. A. H.
 Hunt, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

Revenue, T. Sloan C.I.E. I.C.S.

Judicial Secretary, A. H. De B. Hamilton, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government, Irrigation Branch St.
 B. D. O. Darley, C.I.E.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS,

Opium Agent, Ghazipur, W. Gaskell, I.C.S.

Chief Conservator of Forests, Frederick Canning

Director of Public Instruction A. H. Mackenzie,
 M.A.

Inspector General of Police R. J. S. Dodd

Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, Col.
 Harold R. Nutt M.D. I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lieut.-Colonel Cuth-
 bert Lindsay Dunn

Inspector-General of Registration, N. C. Mehta,
 I.C.S.

Commissioner of Excise J. N. L. Sathe I.C.S.

Inspector General of Prisons, Lt. Col. C. E.
 Palmer, M.A., M.B., I.M.S.

Director of Agriculture, George Clarke, F.R.C.S.,
 F.O.S. H.E.S., M.L.O.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES.

Sir C. T. Metcalfe Bart. G.C.B. 1886

The Right Hon. the Governor-General
 in the North-Western Provinces (Lord
 Auckland) 1883

T. C. Robertson 1840

The Right Hon. the Governor-General
 in the North Western Provinces (Lord
 Ellenborough) 1842

Sir G. B. Clerk K.C.B. 1843

James Thomson Died at Bareilly 1843

A. W. Begbie, *In charge* 1853

J. B. Colvin Died at Agra 1853

E. A. Reade *In charge* 1857

Colonel H. Fraser, C.B., Chief Commis-
 sioner, N.-W. Provinces 1857

The Right Hon. the Governor-General
 administering the N. W. Provinces
 (Viscount Canning) 1858

Sir G. F. Edmonstone 1859

R. Money, *In charge* 1863

The Hon. Edmund Drummond 1863

Sir William Muir K.C.S.I. 1868

Sir John Strachey, K.C.S.I. 1874

Sir George Comper, Bart., C.B. 1876

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES AND CHIEF COMMISSIONERS

SIGNERS OF OUDH

Sir George Couper Bart., C.B., K.C.S.I. 1877

Sir Alfred Comyns Lyall, K.C.B. 1882

Sir Auckland Colvin K.C.M.G., C.I.E. 1887

Sir Chas. H. T. Crosthwaite, K.C.S.I. 1892

Alan Cadell (*Officiating*) 1895

Sir Antony P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (a) 1895

Sir J. J. D. LaTouche K.C.S.I. 1901

(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH.

Sir J. J. D. LaTouche K.C.S.I. 1902

Sir J. P. Hewett, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1907

L. A. S. Porter, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1913

Sir J. S. Weston, K.C.S.I. 1913

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1918

GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES

Sir Harcourt Butler K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1920

Sir William Marryat, K.C.I.E. 1921

Sir Alexander Muddiman, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1927

Sir Malcolm Hailey G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.C.S. 1928

UNITED PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

PRESIDENT

The Hon ble Rai Bahadur Lala Sita Ram, M A, LL.B

DEPUTY PRESIDENT — Vacant

ELECTED MEMBERS

Body, Association or Constituency represented	Name
Allahabad Jaunpur and Mirzapur Districts (Muhammadian Rural)	The Hon ble Mirza Muhammad Yusuf Bar at Law Minister of Local Self Government.
Bahraich District (non Muhammadian Rural)	The Hon ble Maharaj Kumar Major Mahjit Singh, Minister Industries and Agriculture.
Muzaffarnagar (non Muhammadian Rural)	Raja Bahadur Keshul Pal Singh M A, LL.B
Agra City (non Muhammadian Urban)	Mr Perma
Cawnpore City (non Muhammadian Urban)	Rai Bahadur Babu Awadh Behari Lal
Allahabad City (non Muhammadian Urban)	Babu Kamta Prasad Kakkar B A, LL.B
Lucknow City (non Muhammadian Urban)	Chaudhri Ram Dayal
Benares City (non Muhammadian Urban)	Chaudhri Jagannath
Bareilly City (non Muhammadian Urban)	The Hon ble Rai Bahadur Lala Sita Ram M A LL.B
Meerut-cum Aligarh (non Muhammadian Urban)	Vacant
Moradabad cum Shahjahanpur (non Muhammadian Urban)	Babu Jwala Saran Kothiwala
Dehra Dun district (non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Tappu
Saharanpur District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Pandit Moti Lal Bhargava
Meerut District (North) (non Muhammadian Rural)	Chaudhri Ram Chandra
Meerut District (South) (non Muhammadian Rural)	Chaudhri Ghasita
Bulandshahr District (East) (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rai Bahadur Chaudhri Raghuraj Singh
Bulandshahr District (West) (non Muhammadian Rural)	Mr Arjuna
Aligarh District (East) (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rao Bahadur Bhakur Pratap Bhan Singh.
Aligarh District (West) (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rao Bahadur Thalur Bikram Singh
Muttra District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Kunwar Girwar Singh
Agra District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rai Bahadur Munshi Ambe Prasad
Malapuri District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Chaudhri Dhirya Singh, M B E
Etah District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rao Krishna Pal Singh.
Bareilly District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Honorary Lieut Raja Kali Charan Misra
Bijnor District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Babu Balwant Singh
Budaun District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rai Bahadur Brij Lal Badhwar
Moradabad District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rao Bahadur Kunwar Hardar Singh
Shahjahanpur District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Rai Sahib Manmohan Sahai
Milibhit District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Vacant.
Jhansi District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Lala Shyam Lal
Jalawn District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Babu Kamta Nath
Hamirpur District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Kunwar Jagbhan Singh B A, LL.B
Banda District (non Muhammadian Rural)	Thakur Keshav Chandra Singh, M L C, LL.B.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Farrukhabad District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Brijnandan Lal Bar-at-Law
Etawah District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Nar Singh Rao
Cawnpore District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Bishambhar Singh
Fatehpur District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Bhondwa
Allahabad District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Maharao Raja Ram Singh Rao Bahadur
Benares District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Chaudhri Bharos
Mirzapur District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Shri Sadsyatan Pande
Jampur District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Sri Krishna Dutt Dube
Ghazipur District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Babu Jagdev Rai
Balita District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Babu Sarju Prasad Singh
Gorakhpur District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Rajeshwari Prasad M.A., LL.B.
Gorakhpur District (East) (non Muhammadan Rural)	Vacant
Beeti District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Shiv Pati Singh
Asargah District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Ghriraj Singh B.A., LL.B.
Naim Tal District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Prem Ballabh Belwal
Almora District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Jang Bahadur Singh Bisht, B.A., LL.B.
Gorwal District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Sardar Bahadur Thakur Narayan Singh Negi
Lucknow District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Pandit Brahma Dutt alias Bhatya Sahib
Unao District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Thakur Hanuman Singh
Bae Bareilly District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Lal Sheo Pratap Singh
Shapur District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Kunwar Dewakar Prakash Singh
Hardoi District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Muneshwar Baksh Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Kheri District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Thakur Jalendra Bahadur Singh
Fyzabad District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Raja Jagdishbika Pratap Narayan Singh of Ajothya
Gonda District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Lal Ambikeshwar Pratap Singh
Bahenpur District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Kunwar Surendra Pratap Sahi
Pertabgarh District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr C. Y. Chintamani
Bareilly District (non Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Rajeshwar Baid, O.B.E., B.A.
Allahabad-cum-Benares (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr Zahur Ahmad, Bar-at-Law
Lucknow-cum-Cawnpore (Muhammadan Urban)	Syed Ali Zaheer, Bar-at-Law
Agra and Meerut-cum-Aligarh (Muhammadan (Syed, Urban))	Khan Bahadur Mr Muhammad Abdul Bari Bar-at-Law
Bareilly and Shahjahanpur-cum-Moradabad (Syed (Muhammadan Urban))	Yusuf Ali
Bahra Dun District (Muhammadan Rural)	Sahib Muhammad Maqsood Ali Khan
Sharanpur District (Muhammadan Rural)	Shah Nasser Hussain
Meerut District (Muhammadan Rural)	Captain Nawab Muhammad Jameed Ali Khan, M.B.
Munseer nagar District (Muhammadan Rural)	Nawabzada Muhammad Ilaqat Ali Khan
Bijnor District (Muhammadan Rural)	Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim, B.A., LL.B.
Bulandshahr District (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr Muhammad Rahmat Khan
Aligarh Muttra and Agra Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muhammad Obaidur Rahman Khan.
Mainpuri, Etah and Farrukhabad Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Sahib Muhammad Hadiyah Khan
Etawah, Cawnpore and Fatehpur Districts (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Elmasat Hussain, B.A. Bar-at-Law.
Second Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Saifid Hakimullah.

The Punjab or land of the five rivers, is so named from the five rivers by which it is enclosed, namely, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Satlej. Together with the North West Frontier Province and the Indian State of Jammu and Kashmir which lie to the north, the Punjab occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, and with the exception of the above-mentioned provinces comprises all of British India north of Sind and Rajputana and west of the river Jumna. Previous to October 1912, the Punjab with its feudatories embraced an area of 136,830 square miles and a population at the Census of 1911 of 24,187,750 (inclusive of 28,587 trans-frontier Baluchis) that is to say, about one-thirtieth of the area and population of the Indian Empire. But the formation of a separate province of Delhi reduced the area and population of the Punjab by about 450 square miles and 800,000 souls respectively. The total population of the Province in 1921, including the Rabeah tribes on the border of the Dabru Uthul Khan District was 23,101,060 of whom 4,416,088 were in the Indian States.

Physical Features.

The greater part of the Punjab consists of one vast alluvial plain, stretching from the Jumna in the east to the Sulaiman Range in the west. The north-east is occupied by a section of the Himalayas and the Salt Range forms the north-western angle. A few small spurs of the Aravalli mountain system traverse the extreme south-east and terminate in the Ridge at Delhi. The Punjab may be divided into five natural divisions. The Himalayan tract includes an area of 22,000 square miles, with a scanty population living scattered in tiny mountain hamlets. The Salt Range tract includes the districts of Attock, Rawalpindi and Jhelum and part of Shahpur district. Its physical configuration is broken and confused and the mountainous tracts of Murree and Kahuta approximate closely in character to those of the Himalayan tract. Except in the hills, the rainfall leaves little margin for protection against distress in unfavourable seasons and irrigation is almost unknown. Skirting the base of the hills and including the low range of the Siwaliks, runs the narrow sub-montane tract. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall, and traversed by streams from the hills, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly populated portions of the province. Its population of over four millions is almost wholly agricultural and pastoral but it includes one large town in Simla. Of the plains of the Punjab, the eastern portion covers an area of some 86,000 square miles with a population of 10½ millions. East of Lahore, the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons, but over the greater part of the area the margin is so slight that, except where irrigation is employed, any material reduction in the rainfall involves distress, if not actual famine. Within the eastern plains lie the large cities of Lahore and Amritsar, and the population in comparison with the western Punjab is largely urban. The western plains cover an area of 54,000 square miles, with a population of a little over six millions. The rainfall in this area, heavier in the north and

east and decreasing towards the west and south is everywhere so scanty that cultivation is only possible with the aid of artificial irrigation or upon the low lying river-banks left moist by the retreating floods. In this very circumstance, these tracts find their security against famine, for there cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass. So little rain is sufficient, and absolute drought occurs so seldom that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. The western plains embrace the great colony areas on the Chenab and Jhelum Canals which now challenge the title of the eastern plains as the most fertile, wealthy and populous portions of the province. Multan and Lyallpur are the largest towns in the western area. Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to its wide expanse of unfertilized plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other portion of India. The summer, from April to September, is scorchingly hot, and in the winter, sharp frosts are common. But the bright sun and invigorating air make the climate of the Punjab in the cold weather almost ideal.

States

The Indian States of the Punjab were formerly in the Political charge of the Punjab Government. In 1921, however, the thirteen most important States, including Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind and Nabha, were formed into a separate Punjab States Agency under the control of the Agent to the Governor General, Punjab States. The only States remaining in the charge of the Punjab Government, are the Simla Hill States, for which the Deputy Commissioner of Simla is Political Officer, and three small States in the Ambala Division, Kahla, Patandi and Dulana, which are supervised by the Commissioner of Ambala.

The People

Of the population roughly one-half is Mahomedan, three-eighths Hindu and one-eighth Sikh. Socially the landed classes stand high and of these the Jats, numbering nearly five millions, are the most important. Roughly speaking, one-half the Jats are Mahomedan, one-third Sikh and one-fourth Hindu. In distribution they are ubiquitous and are equally divided over the five divisions of the province. Next in importance come the Rajputs, who number over a million and a half. The majority of them are Mahomedans by religion; about a fourth are Hindus and a very few Sikhs. They are widely distributed over the province. Both Jats and Rajputs of the Punjab provide many of the best recruits for the Indian Army. In fact all the agricultural classes of the Punjab, except in the south-western districts, made a magnificent response to the appeal for recruits in the great war and the province's contribution of upwards of 400,000 men to the main power of the Empire speaks for itself. The Gujars are an important agricultural and pastoral tribe, chiefly found in the eastern half of the province and in the extreme north-west. In organization they closely resemble the Jats and are often absorbed into that tribe. There are many minor agri-

cultural tribes, priestly and religious castes (Brahmins, Kayasths and Kurumbas), most of whom are landholders, the trading castes of the Hindus (Khatris, Aroras and Banias) and trading castes of the Mahomedans (Khojas, Parachas and Khakhais), and the numerous artisan and menial castes. There are also vagrant and criminal tribes, and foreign elements in the population are represented by the Baluchis of Dera Ghazi Khan and neighbouring districts in the west, who number about half a million and maintain their tribal system, and the Pathans of the Attock and Mianwali districts. Pathans are also found scattered all over the province engaged in horse-dealing, labour and trade. A small Tibetan element is found in the Himalayan districts.

Languages.

The main language of the province is Punjabi, which is spoken by more than half the population. Western Punjabi may be classed as a separate language, sometimes called Lahndi, and is spoken in the north and west. The next most important languages are Western Hindi, which includes Hindustani, Urdu (the polished language of the towns) and other Hindi, Western Pahari, which is spoken in the hill tracts, and Rajasthan, the language of Rajputana. Baluchi, Pushto, Sindhi and Tibeto-Burman languages are used by small proportions of the population.

Agriculture

Agriculture is the staple industry of the province, affording the main means of subsistence to 80.5 per cent. of the population. It is essentially a country of peasant proprietors. About one-sixth of the total area in British districts is Government property, the remaining five-sixths belonging to private owners and a large part of the Government land is so situated that it cannot be brought under cultivation without extensive irrigation. Thus the Lower Chenab Canal irrigates 2,074,000 acres of what was formerly waste land, the Lower Shelum Canal, 431,000 acres, and the Lower Bari Doab Canal, adds 1,067,000 acres to this total. On account of the opening of the Sutlej Valley canals an area of about 1,200,000 acres more has been brought under cultivation. Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 6,000 square miles. Of the crops grown, wheat is the most important and the development of irrigation has led to a great expansion of the wheat area. Next in importance to wheat is gram. Other important staples are barley, rice, millets, maize, oilseeds (rape, toria and sesamum), cotton and sugarcane. Cotton is grown generally throughout the province. In the canal colonies large areas of American cotton are grown but in the cotton growing districts the short staple indigenous varieties are predominant. The country being preponderantly agricultural, a considerable proportion of the wealth of the peoples lies in the live-stock. Large profits are derived from the cattle and dairy trades and wool is a staple product in Kulu and Kangra and throughout the plains generally. The production of hides and skins is also an important industry.

Industries

The mineral wealth of the Punjab is small rock salt, saltpetre and limestone for road building being the most important products. There are some small coal mines in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Mianwali districts. Gold washing is carried on in most of the rivers not without remunerative results. Iron and copper ores are plentiful but difficulties of carriage and the absence of fuel have hitherto prevented smelting on a large scale. The Punjab is not a large manufacturing Province the total number of factories being only 618 the majority of which are cotton spinning and pressing factories. Cotton weaving as a domestic industry is carried on by means of hand looms in nearly every village. The Government Central Weaving Institute, Amritsar, and the Weaving Classes attached to the Government Industrial Schools at Multan, Sialkot, Hoshiarpur, Gujrat, Rohtak, Kulu, Ferozepore, Panipat and Rawari have shown considerable enterprise in improving the hand-weaving industry. The Government Demonstration Weaving Factory at Shahdara, (Lahore), which has been equipped with 100 power driven looms in addition to the latest machinery for preparatory and finishing processes started operations on 1st October 1928. Provision has been made in the factory for training about 60 apprentices in the preparatory, weaving and finishing processes. The Weaving Superintendent in charge of the factory and his staff have proved of considerable assistance to the owners of power driven looms in the province by giving technical advice on matters which require expert opinion. The Government Hosiery Institute at Ludhiana and the Institute of Dyeing and Calico Printing at Shahdara, (Lahore), are doing useful work in the development of the hosiery and dyeing and calico printing industries respectively. Blankets and woollen rugs are also produced in considerable quantities and the carpets of Amritsar are famous. Silk weaving is also carried on and the workers in Gold Silver, Brass, Copper and Earthenware are fairly numerous. Ivory carving is carried on extensively at Amritsar and Lohian as well as in the Patiala State. Mineral Oil is being extracted and refined in the Attock and Rawalpindi Districts and a cement factory is established at Wahi near Hassanabad. The Ganesh Flour Mills Coy. Ltd. Lyallpur, have installed a factory for retreating the hydrogenation of oils. Minor subsidiary industries have placed on the market boot polishers, sealing wax, metal polishers, disinfectants and soaps. Reinforced concrete pipes for sanitary and other purposes are being manufactured on a commercial scale at Lahore Cantt.

Administration.

Prior to the Amendment of the Government of India Act in 1919 the system of administration was that of a Lieutenant-Governor, drawn from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Amended Act the Province was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers, the Governor-in-Council being in charge of the Reserved Subjects and the Governor with his Ministers of the Transferred Subjects. The general system of provincial administration under this scheme is sketched in the section Provincial Government (p. v.) where is also given a list of the

Reserved and Transferred Subjects Associated with the Governor and the Council and Ministers is an enlarged Legislative Council, with wide powers, whose scope and authority are given under the Legislative Councils (p v) the system being common to all the major Provinces. The business of Government is carried on through the usual Secretariat which consists of five Secretaries, designated (1) Chief, (2) Home (3) Finance (4) Revenue Secretary and (5) Secretary, Transferred Departments. One Deputy Secretary four Under Secretaries and two Assistant Secretaries in the Public Works Department, there are four Secretaries (Chief Engineers) one in the Buildings and Roads Branch and three in the Irrigation Branch while the Legal Member under the Secretary to Government in the Legislative Department the heads of the Police and Educational Departments are also Under Secretaries to Government. The Government spends the winter in Lahore and the summer (from the middle of May to the middle of October) in Simla. Under the Governor, the province is administered by five Commissioners (for Amritsar, Jullundur, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan) who exercise general control over the Deputy Commissioners—29 in number—each of whom is in charge of a district.

The principal heads of Department in the province are the two Financial Commissioners (who are the highest Court of Revenue jurisdiction and heads of the departments of Land and Separate Revenue and of Agriculture and the Court of Wards) the three Chief Engineers, the Inspector General of Police, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Directors of Agriculture and Industries, the Inspector-General of Registration, the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Joint Stock Companies and the Legal Member.

Justice

The administration of justice is entrusted to a High Court, which is the final appellate authority to civil and criminal cases, and has powers of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences and original civil jurisdiction in special cases. The Court sits at Lahore and is composed of a Chief Justice and eight puisne judges (either Civilian or barristers), and three additional judges including the inspecting Judge sanctioned each year for six months. Subordinate to the High Court are the District and Sessions Judges (26 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a civil and session division comprising one or more districts. In districts in which the Frontier Crimes Regulation is in force, the Deputy Commissioner on the finding of a Council of Elders (Jirga) may pass sentences up to seven years' imprisonment.

Local Self-Government

Local Self-Government is secured in certain branches of the administration by the constitution of District Boards, each exercising authority over a district, of Municipal, Small Town and Notified Area Committees each exercising authority over an urban area, and of Panchayats, each exercising authority over a revenue

estate or a compact group of revenue estates. The funds of District Boards are derived from a cess on the land revenue of the district supplemented by Government grants, profession taxes and miscellaneous fees, and those of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees from octroi or terminal tax and other forms of taxation from Government grants and from rents and miscellaneous fees. The Panchayat system is an attempt to revive the traditional village community organisation the elected committee or Panchayat possessing certain powers in respect of taxation, local option civil and criminal justice the abatement of nuisances and other matters. Most of the Members of practically all local bodies are now elected and elections are usually keenly contested.

Police

The Police force is divided into District Police, Railway Police and Criminal Investigation Department. The combined force is under the control of the Inspector General, who is a member of the Gazetted force and has under him three Deputy Inspectors General in charge of ranges comprising several districts and a fourth Deputy Inspector General in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and of the Finger Print Bureau at Phillaur. There is a Police Training School at Phillaur controlled by a Principal of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The Railway Police are under an Assistant Inspector-General. The District Police are controlled by Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of a district and has under him one or more Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents.

Education

The strides which have been made in the past decade, especially in the concluding years of the period, have brought the Punjab into line with the older and more forward provinces. The advance has not been confined to any one form of education but is spread over all grades and varieties. In addition to institutions maintained in all parts of the province by private enterprise, Government itself maintains fifteen art colleges, (including one for Europeans and another for women) five normal schools and forty four training classes and combined institutions (30 for males and 14 for females) one hundred and fourteen secondary schools for boys and girls and fifty centres for vocational training. Apart from these institutions for general education Government maintains six higher grade professional institutions, viz., the King Edward Medical College and veterinary college at Lahore, the Agricultural College at Lyallpur, the Engineering College at Multan, the Central Training College, Lahore and the Chaimford Training College at Choralagall. In addition there are 30 technical and industrial schools (25 for males and 5 for females) scattered over the province.

The Department of Education is in the charge of the Minister of Education who is assisted in the work of administration by the Director of Public Instruction.

Forests

Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 8,000 square miles.

Medical.

The Medical Department is controlled by the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals who is at present an officer of the Punjab Civil Medical Service of the rank of a civil Surgeon. The Department of Public Health is controlled by the Director of Public Health (also a member of the Indian Medical Service) who has under him five Assistant Directors of Public Health, 34 District Medical Officers of Health, and twenty eight Sanitary Inspectors in addition to a temporary Staff of variable strength engaged as required for combating epidemic diseases. The auxiliary services comprise

(1) An epidemiological bureau, which is in charge of the Epidemiologist to Government where in addition to routine bacteriological examination research work in matters bearing upon public health problems is carried out.

(2) A Vaccine Institute which manufactures antivenom vaccine lymph to meet the needs, not only of the Punjab but of the Army in Northern

India and of several provinces and Indian States in and beyond the confines of India

(3) An Education Bureau to which is attached a photographer who is an expert in cinematography

(4) A Chemical Laboratory in charge of a fully trained chemist whose duties comprise the chemical analysis of water samples and food stuff

(5) A Public Health School the staff of which is responsible for the training of health visitors and for the supervision of maternity and child welfare work throughout the province

In matters connected with sanitary works the Director of Public Health works in close touch with the Superintending Engineer, Public Health Circle, Punjab, who acts as technical adviser of the Public Health Department in engineering matters. This officer and the Director of Public Health are also the technical advisers of the Urban Sanitary Board whose duty it is to examine and report upon sanitary schemes put forward by local bodies

HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1930-31	HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1930-31
REVENUE RECEIPTS	(In thousands of Rupees.)	Beneficial Departments	(In thousands of Rupees.)
<i>Principal Heads of Revenue</i>		XXI—Education	15.03
II—Taxes on Income	1.01	XXII—Medical	7.37
V—Land Revenue (gross)	4,88.18	XXIII—Public Health	1.62
Deduct—Revenue credited to Irrigation	—2.04.92	XXIV—Agriculture	15.30
Total Land Revenue	2,83.21	XXV—Industries	1.86
VI—Excise	1,16.84	Total	88.47
VII—Stamps	1,18.08	Buildings and Roads	
VIII—Forests	81.94	XXX—Civil Works	5.78
IX—Registration	9.26	XXX A—Hydro Electric Scheme	2.48
Total	5,60.11	Deduct—Working Expenses	—251
Irrigation		Net XXX A—Hydro Electric scheme	—8
XIII—Irrigation—Works for which capital accounts are kept—		Total	5.68
Direct Receipts	4,61.62	Miscellaneous	
Indirect credits (Land Revenue due to Irrigation)	2,04.92	XXXII—Transfers from Insurance Fund	
Gross amount	6,66.54	XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	2.83
Deduct—Working Expenses	—2,40.85	XXXIV—Stationery and Printing	2.53
Net XIII—Irrigation Receipts	4,25.69	XXXV—Miscellaneous	20.08
XIV—Irrigation—Works for which no capital accounts are kept	92	Total	31.19
Total	4,97.11	Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments	
Debt Services		XXXIX A—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	
XVI—Interest	10.74	Total Revenue Receipts	10,96.18
Civil Administration		<i>Extraordinary Items</i>	
XVII—Administration of Justice	10.74	XL—Extraordinary Receipts	86.66
XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements	5.88	Total Revenue	11,81.84
XIX—Police	2.04	Advance from Prov. Loans Fund	1,50.00
XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments	3.86		
Total	21.98		

HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimate, 1930-31	HEADS OF ACCOUNTS	Budget Estimate 1930-31
LOANS AND ADVANCES BY PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS		Buildings and Roads	
Recoveries of loans and advances	43.44	41—Civil Works (Reserved)	1.31
DEPOSITS AND ADVANCES		41—Civil Works (Transferred)	1,36.24
Famine Relief Fund	1.52	41—Civil Works, Hydro Electric scheme Interest on Capital Outlay	10.16
Appropriations for reduction or avoidance of debt —		Miscellaneous Total	1,47.71
Sinking Fund for Provincial Loans	1.33	43—Famine Relief and Insurance	2.00
Other appropriations	8.33	45—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	34.96
Suspense		46—Stationery and Printing (Reserved)	11.65
Depreciation Reserve Fund for Government Presses	96	46—Stationery and Printing (Transferred)	1.03
Revenue Reserve Fund	28	47—Miscellaneous (Reserved)	8.81
Miscellaneous Government account	1.80	47—Miscellaneous (Transferred)	19.33
Total	13.51	Total	77.76
TOTAL PROVINCIAL RECEIPTS	13,88.79	Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments	
Opening Balance	33.14	51—Contribution and Assignments to Central Government	
Grand Total	14,11.93	51—A—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.	
EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE		Total	
Direct demands on the Revenue		Miscellaneous	
5—Land Revenue	40.30	Transfers to Revenue Reserve Fund	
6—Excise	13.78	Total Expenditure charged to Revenue	11,27.81
7—Stamps	3.22	CAPITAL EXPENDITURE	
8—Forests	24.90	8 A. CHARGED TO REVENUE	6.09
9—Registration { (R) (T) }	1.11	16—Irrigation Works	
Total	82.31	35-A—Industrial Development	35
Irrigation Revenue Account		41 A—Civil Works	1,19
14—Works for which capital accounts are kept (Interest on debt)	1,29.61	41 B—Hydro Electric Scheme	
15—Miscellaneous Irrigation Expenditure	11.64	41 A—Commutation of Pensions	
Total	1,41.25	Capital Total Expenditure charged to Revenue	21.83
Debt Services		Expenditure Total charged to Revenue	11,43.64
19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	20.22	52 A—Forest Capital Expenditure	
21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	9.64	55—Construction of Irrigation Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works.	42.01
Total	10.68	56 C—Industrial Development Capital Expenditure	
Civil Administration		58—Hydro Electric Scheme Capital Expenditure	1,01.03
22—General Administration (Reserved)	1,15.88	60—Civil Works—Capital Expenditure	
32—General Administration (Transferred)	2.11	60 B—Payment of Commuted value of Pensions Capital Expenditure	812
24—Administration of Justice	56.89	Total Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue.	1,61.16
25—Jails and Convict Settlements	43.22	Advances from Provincial Loan fund	8.53
26—Police	1,23.68	Loans raised in the Markets —	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Reserved)	99	61 per cent. Punjab Bonds, 1933	88
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Transferred)	29	61 " " " 193	42
Total	3,43.06	Total	1,30
Beneficial Departments			
30—Scientific Departments	28		
31—Education (Reserved)	7.40		
31—Education (Transferred)	1,76.98		
33—Medical { (R) (T) }	11		
33—Public Health	53.96		
34—Agriculture	29.69		
35—Industries	61.60		
Total	11.81		
	3,40.28		

HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1930-31	HEADS OF ACCOUNT	Budget Estimate, 1930-31
	(In thousands of Rupees)		(In thousands of Rupees)
Advances from Provincial Loan Fund		Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of Debts —	
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments —		Sinking Fund for Provincial Loans.	1,32
Loans and Advances (Reserved)	2,04	Suspense	
" " (Transferred)	13,98	Depreciation Reserve Fund for Govt. Presses.	44
Total	40,42	Revenue Reserve Fund	
Deposits and Advances —		Deposit with the Government of India.	
Famine Relief Fund		Total	1,76
		Total Provincial Disbursements.	13,46 61
		Closing Balance	65,32
		Grand Total	14,11 98

Administration

Governor, H E Sir Geoffrey Fitzherbert de Montmorency, K C I E, K C V O, C B E, I C S

PERSONAL STAFF

Private Secretary Major R T Lawrence M C
Aide-de-Camp Lt A C Maynard, Lt Napier, R A

Hon. Aide-de-Camp Hon. Capt. Sardar Bahadur Lakh Singh, Hon. Risaldar Major Mir Muhammad Khan and Hon. Lt. Narain Singh Bahadur M C

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL

The Hon. ble Khan Bahadur Captain Sardar Sikandar Hyat Khan, (Revenue)
The Hon. ble Sir H D (rank, Bart., C S I, I C S (Revenue)

MINISTERS

The Hon. ble Sardar Jogendra Singh Minister for Agriculture
The Hon. ble Dr. Gokul Chand Narang M A Ph D Minister for Local Self Government
The Hon. ble Malik Feroz Khan Noon, Minister for Education

CIVIL SECRETARIAT

Chief Secretary, H W Emerson C I E, C B E, I C S
Home Secretary, C M G Ogilvie, D E M
Financial Secretary, J D Penny
Secretary, Transferred Departments, A A Mc Mitchell
Revenue Secretary, W B Wilson, I C S

Public Works Department.
Irrigation Branch

Secretary (Southern Canals) H F Ashton.
Secretary, (Northern Canals), J D G Smith, C I E
Secretary (Construction), H P Hadow, C I E
Buildings and Roads Branch
Secretary A R Astbury, M Inst C E
Financial Commissioners C A H Townsend, (Revenue), H Calvert, I C S, (Development)

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS

Director of Industries, R C Rawley, M A, M Sc D F O (Lond)

Director of Agriculture, D Milne M Sc, (Agr), (Aberdeen)

Director of Land Records and Inspector General of Registration, Rai Bahadur Lala Arjun Das, M A, LL B

Director of Public Instruction, Sir George Anderson, Kt, M A, C I E

Inspector General of Police, G A Cocks, C B E
Chief Conservator of Forests, Ralph Farnell

Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, Lt Col C A Gillies

Director of Public Health, Dr. Kahana Bahadur Khwaja Abdur Rahman.

Inspector General of Prisons, Lt Col F A Barker, C B E, I M S

Accountant General, C E Gwyther D A
Postmaster General, Brevet Lt Col K A Appleby, C B E

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB

Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G C B 1856

Sir Robert Montgomery K C B 1859

Donald Ffrench, M C L O B 1866

Major General Sir Henry Durrant K C B I, C B, died at Tonk, January 1871

R H Davies, C S I 1871

R E Egerton, C S I 1877

Sir Charles U Aitchison, K C S I, C I E 1882

James Broadwood Lyal 1887

Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, K C S I 1892

William Macworth Young, C S I 1897

Sir C M Rivers, K C S I 1902

Sir D C J Ibbotson, K C S I, resigned 1907

22nd January 1908

T G Walker, C S I (Offg) 1907

Sir Louis W Dane, K C I E, C S I 1908

James McCrone Dowie, (Offg) 1911

Sir M F O'Dwyer, K C S I 1913

Sir Edward MacLagan, K C I E, C S I 1918

GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB

Sir Edward MacLagan, K C I E, C S I 1920

Sir Malcolm Hailey, K C S I, C I E 1924

Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, K C I E, K C V O, C B E 1924

PUNJAB LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Chaudhri, Sir Shahab ud Din, Kt, K B, Kangra-cum Gurdaspur (Muhammadan)
Rural - President

MEMBERS AND VISITERS

Ex-Officio

The Hon'ble Captain Sridar Sikander Hyat Khan, M B E K B Member to Government,
Punjab

The Hon'ble Sir Henry (Jack) Bart, C S I C S Financial Member to Government Punjab

The Hon'ble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh Kt, Minister for Agriculture (Sikh) Landholders

The Hon'ble Malik Firoz Khan, M B E K B Minister for Education Shalpur East (Muhammadan)
Rural

The Hon'ble Dr Gokul Chand Narang M A Ph D Minister for Local Self Government (North
West Towns Non Muhammadan), Urban

NOMINATED

Officials

Anderson Sir George Kt, C I E M A Director of Public Instruction Punjab

Ashton Mr H E, Secretary to Government, Punjab Public Works Department Irrigation Branch

Boyd, Mr D J C I E, M B E, C S Chief Secretary to Government Punjab

Albert Mr H C I E C S Financial Commissioner Development Punjab

Dorman Mr W S, M A O B, Secretary to Government, Punjab, Public Works Department
(Buildings and Roads Branch)

Gill Lt Colonel C A D P H, M B E Director of Public Health Punjab

Hearn Mr J W C S Additional Secretary to Government Punjab Revenue Department

Mitchell Mr Alan I O B, Secretary to Government Punjab Transferred Departments

Musaffar Khan Khan Bahadur Nawab, Director of Information Bureau, Punjab and Joint Secre-
tary to Government, Punjab Transferred Departments

Ogilvie Mr C M G C S I O B Home Secretary to Government Punjab

Puckitt Mr E H C I E, I O B Additional Secretary to Government Punjab Finance Department

Sale Mr S L I C S, Legal Member and Secretary to Government Punjab Legislative
Department

Townsend Mr C A H, C I E, I O B, Financial Commissioner, Revenue Punjab

Non officials

Ghani Mr M A Representative of Labouring Classes

Jamneja Singh (Captain) Sardar Bahadur Sardar, O B I, Representative of the Punjab Officers
and Soldiers of His Majesty's Indian Forces

Maya Das Mr Ernest B A Representative of Indian Christians

Rahim Baksh, Maulvi, Sir K O B Representative of General Interests

Rattan Chand Rai Bahadur Lal, O B B Representative of General Interests

Roberts Mr Owen Representative of the European and Anglo Indian (communities)

Shree Dr (Mrs) M C Representative of the European and Anglo Indian (communities)

Sheo Narain Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, O B B Representative of General Interests

ELECTED

Name of Member	Constituency
Abdul Ghani Shaikh	West Punjab Towns (Muhammadan), Urban
Ahmad Yar Khan, Daultana, Mian	(Muhammadan) Landholders
Akbar Ali Pr, B A, L L B	Ferozepore (Muhammadan) Rural
Allah Dad Khan, Chaudhri, B A	Ambala Division, North East (Muhammadan), Rural
Balbir Singh, Rao Bahadur Captain Rao, O B B	Gurgaon (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Bhauri Lal, Chaudhri	Lahore City (Non Muhammadan) Urban
Bhagat Ram, Lal	Jullundur cum Ludhiana (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Bishan Singh, Sardar	Salok-cum-Gurdaspur (Sikh), Rural
Bute Singh, Sardar, B A, L L B	Multan Division and Sheikhupura (Sikh), Rural
Chetan Anand, Lal, B A, L L B	West Punjab Towns (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Chhotu Ram, Rao Bahadur Chaudhri, B A, L L B	South East, Rohak (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Chowdhry, Mr Sajjan Kumar	Hissar (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Din Muhammad, Mr, M A, L L B	East and West Central Towns (Muhammadan), Urban
Fazl Muhammad, Shaikh, B A, L L B	Dera Ghazi Khan (Muhammadan), Rural
Faqir Hussain Khan, Chaudhri	Amritsar (Muhammadan), Rural
Fazl Ali Khan Bahadur Chaudhri, O B B	Gujrat East (Muhammadan), Urban
Gopal Das, Lal	Lahore and Ferozepore-cum-Sheikhupura (Non Muhammadan) Rural

Name of Member	Constituency
Gurbachan Singh Sardar	Jullundur (Sikh) Rural
Habib Ullah Khan Bahadur Sardar	Lahore (Muhammadan) Rural
Habib Khar Daba Khan	Multan East (Muhammadan) Rural
Habibullah Singh Sardar B A	Hoshiarpur and Kangra (Sikh) Rural
Iman ud Din Masli	Hoshiarpur and Ludhiana (Muhammadan) Rural
Jagdev Khan Khairat	Ludhiana North (Muhammadan) Rural
Jaewant Singh Gurn	Ludhiana South (Sikh) Rural
Jawahar Singh Dhillon Sardar B A (Agr)	Lahore (Sikh) Rural
(Wales) WSP (London)	
J. H. Parshad B A B L B	South East Town (Non Muhammadan) Urban
K. S. Singh (Lahore)	Amritsar and Curdaspur (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Lal Singh M. A. B L B (United)	Rural
Mamraj Singh Chohan Kanwar M A B L B	Hoshiarpur Division and Lahore Division North
Manohar Lal M. A.	(Non Muhammadan) Rural
Mohan Lal Bahadur Iala B A B L B	Ambala and Simla (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Mohan Singh Sardar	(Ludhiana University)
Mohinder Singh Sardar	North West Town (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Mubarak Ali Shah Sayal	Rawalpindi Division and Gujranwala (Sikh), Rural
Muhammad Abdul Rahman Khan (Lahore)	Jullundur (Sikh) Rural
Muhammad Amin Khan Khan Bahadur	Thang (Muhammadan) Rural
Mahik O B E	Jullundur (Muhammadan) Rural
Muhammad Din Malik	Attock (Muhammadan) Rural
Muhammad Feroz Khwaja	Lahore City (Muhammadan) Urban
Muhammad Hayat Qureshi Khan Bahadur	South East Town (Muhammadan) Urban
Mian O B E	Hoshiarpur West (Muhammadan) Rural
Muhammad Hassan Khan Sahib Mahmood	Muzaffargarh (Muhammadan) Rural
Shahk	
Muhammad Jamal Khan Loghari, Khan	Baluch Landholders (Landholders)
Bahadur Nawab	
Muhammad Raza Shah Ghani Wazirabad	Multan West (Muhammadan) Rural
Muhammad Saad Shahk	
Muhammad Sarfaraz Ali Khan Raja	Amritsar City (Muhammadan) Urban
Muhammad Yamin Khan (Lahore) B A B L B	Jhelum (Muhammadan) Rural
Mukand Lal Puri Lala M A	Gurgaon and Hissar (Muhammadan) Rural
Mukerji Mr P	Punjab Industries
Musafar Khan Honorary Lieutenant Khan	Punjab Chamber of Commerce and Trades
Sahib Malik	Association of Commerce
Narendra Nath, Diwan Bahadur Raja M A	Mianwali (Muhammadan) Rural
Nath Singh Chaudhri	Punjab Landholders (General)
Nasir Hussain Chaudhri B A B L B	Karnal (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Nihal Chand Aggarwal, Lala	Gujrat West (Muhammadan) Rural
Noor Ahmad Khan Mian	East and West Central Towns (Non Muhammadan) Urban
Nur Khan Khan Sahib Bahadur	Montgomery (Muhammadan) Rural
Nurullah Mian B A (London) B A B L B	Rawalpindi (Muhammadan) Rural
Partham Chand Thakur	Ludhiana South (Muhammadan) Rural
Parthi Mr Nanak Chand M A	Kangra (Non Muhammadan) Rural
Ragbir Singh, Honorary Lieutenant Sardar	Hoshiarpur (Non Muhammadan) Rural
O B E	Amritsar (Sikh), Rural
Ramji Das Lala	Amritsar City (Non Muhammadan) Urban
Ram Sarup, Chaudhri	North-West District (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Ram Singh 2nd Lieut. Sardar	Ambala Division (Sikh) Rural
Ramesh Ali Chaudhri B A B L B	Gujranwala (Muhammadan) Rural
Sampuran Singh Sardar	Ludhiana (Sikh), Rural
Sewak Ram Bahadur Lala	Multan Division (Non Muhammadan), Rural
Shah Muhammad, Chaudhri	Sheikhpura (Muhammadan) Rural
Ujjal Singh Sardar Sahib Sardar M A	Sikh (Urban)
Fazlullah Khan Chaudhri B A, B L B	Slakot (Muhammadan) Rural
Hakim Ahmad Simla, B A, Off. Secretary, Legislative Council	
Fazl-e-Jal Khan Kaul B A B L B Off. Assistant Secretary, Legislative Council	

Burma.

The Province of Burma lies between Assam on the North-West and China on the North-East, and between the Bay of Bengal on the West and South-West and Siam on the South-East. Its area is approximately 268,000 square miles, of which 184,000 are under direct British Administration, 16,000 are unadministered and 68,000 belong to semi-independent Native States. The main geographical feature of the country is the series of rivers and hills running from North to South with fertile valleys in between widening and fattening out as they approach the Delta. Differences of elevation and rainfall produce great variations in climate. The coastal tracts of Arakan and Tenasserim have a rainfall of about 200 inches, the Delta less than half that amount. The hot season is short and the monsoon breaks early. The maximum shade temperature is about 96° the minimum about 60°. North of the Delta the rainfall decreases rapidly to 30 inches in the central dry zone which lies in a rain shadow and has a climate resembling that of Bihar. The maximum temperature is twenty degrees higher than in the wet zone, but this is compensated by a bracing cold season. To the north and east of the dry zone lie the Kachin hills and the Shan plateau. The average elevation of this tableland is 3,000 feet with peaks rising to 9,000. Consequently it enjoys a temperate climate with a rainfall of about 70 inches on the average. Its area is over 50,000 square miles. There is no other region of similar area in the Indian Empire so well adapted for European colonization. The magnificent rivers, the number of hill ranges (Yomas) and the abundance of forests, all combine to make the scenery of Burma exceedingly varied and picturesque.

The People

The total population of Burma at the census of 1931 was 15,169,099. There were 8,382,335 Burmans, 1,017,937 Shans, 1,220,365 Karens, 148,845 Kachins, 289,847 Chins, 800,700 Arakanese, 823,509 Telangs and 122,257 Palaungs. There is also a large alien population of 149,040 Chinese and 887,077 Indians, while the European and Anglo-Indian population numbered 25,005, and Indo-Burmans, 120,271.

The Burmans, who form the bulk of the population, belong to the Tibetan group and their language to the Tibeto-Chinese family. They are essentially an agricultural people. 80 per cent of the agriculture of the country being in their hands. The Burmese and most of the hill tribes also, profess Buddhism, but Animism, or the worship of nature spirits, is almost universal. The interest taken by the Burmese in the course of the war, their response to the call for recruits and their generous contributions to war loans and charitable funds seem to show that their sympathy towards the government of the country is giving way to an intelligent loyalty to British rule.

In appearance the Burman is usually somewhat short and thick set with Mongolian features. His dress is most distinctive and exceedingly comfortable. It consists of a silk handkerchief bound round his forehead, a loose jacket on his body and a long skirt or longyi tied

round his waist, reaching to his ankles. The Burmese women, perhaps the most pleasing type of womanhood in the East, lead a free and open life playing a large part in the household economy and in petty trading. Their dress is somewhat similar to the men's minus the silk handkerchief on the head, and the longyi is tucked in at the side instead of being tied in front. A well-dressed and well-proportioned Burmese lady would, for grace and neatness, challenge comparison with any woman in the world.

Communications

The Irrawaddy, and to a less extent the Chindwin, afford great natural thoroughfares to the country. At all seasons of the year these rivers, especially the Irrawaddy, are full of sailing and steam craft. In the Delta the net-work of waterways is indeed practically the only means of communication. The Irrawaddy Flotilla Company, with a fine fleet of mail, cargo and ferry boats gives the Irrawaddy and the Delta rivers and creeks a splendid river service.

The Burma Railways has a length of 2,442 27 miles open line. The principal lines are from Rangoon to Mandalay from Bagdad to Myitkyna, the most northern point in the system, the Rangoon Yoma line, and the Pegu Martaban line which serves Moulmein on the further bank of the Salween River.

Industry

Agriculture is the chief industry of the province and supports nearly three fourths of the population. The net total cropped area is 16½ million acres of which nearly 2 million acres are cropped more than once. Irrigation works supply water to nearly 1 million acres. India is very largely dependent on Burma for her supplies of kerosene, benzene and petrol which rank second to rice in order of importance. Teak wood is exported in large quantities from Burma to India.

Forests play an important part in the industrial life of the Province. The forest reserves cover some 32,661 square miles while unclassified forests are estimated at about 113,350 square miles. Government extracts some 65,070 tons of teak annually, private firms, of whom the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation and Steel Brothers are the chief, extract over 29,625 tons. Other timber extracted by licensees amounts to over 373,140 tons and firewood over 10,50,500 tons.

Tin and wolfram are found chiefly in the Tavoy and Mergui Districts. Wolfram and tin are found together in most mining areas in Tavoy the proportion varying from almost pure tin to almost pure wolfram. There was a fall in the price of tin.

There was a large increase in the output of wolfram in 1929 owing to an increase in the price of wolfram during the year. Silver, lead and zinc ore are extracted by the Burma Corporation at Rawdwin in the Northern Shan States. Copper in small quantities is also found there. There are small deposits of Molybdenite in Tavoy and Mergui and of platinum in Myitkyna. The output and value of precious stones from the ruby mines increased during 1929.

From the mines in the Hakong valley jade and amber are won. The oldest and largest oil field in the province is at Yanan gaying in Magway district where the Burma Oil Company has its chief wells. But borings in other districts have shown that the oil-bearing strata extend over a large part of the dry zone and the output from the smaller fields in Pakokki and Mawla districts is now considerable while the wells sunk in Thabeikmyin district are also showing satisfactory returns. More than two-thirds of the total production comes from the Yenangyaung and Singu fields. The Burma Oil Company take their oil to the refineries at Rangoon by pipe line from Singu and Yenangyaung. Other companies take it down by river flats. The area under rubber is 91,275 acres.

Manufactures

There are 1,064 factories over a half of which are engaged in milling rice and nearly one sixth are sawmills. The remainder are chiefly engineering works, cotton spinning mills, oil mills for the extraction of oil from groundnuts, printing presses, ice and aerated water factories and oil refineries connected with the petroleum industry. The average daily number of operatives is over 98,000. At the Census of 1941 1,930,729 or 28.48 per cent of the total population were engaged outside agriculture and production.

As is the case in other parts of the Indian Empire the imported and factory-made article is rapidly ousting the home-made and indigenous one. But at Amarapura in the Mandalay District a revival has taken place of hand silk weaving. Burmese wood carving is still famous and many artists in silver still remain, the finish of whose work is sometimes very fine. Brasses and Mandalay paravels are well known and much admired in Burma. But perhaps the most famous of all hand-made and indigenous industries is the lacquer work of Pagan with its delicate patterns in black, green and yellow based on a ground work of red lacquer over bamboo. A new art is the making of bronze figures. The artists have gone back to nature for their models breaking away from the conventionalized forms into which their silver work had crystallized and the new figures display a vigour and life that make them by far the finest examples of art that the province can produce.

Administration

Burma, which was at that time administered as a Lieutenant Governorship, was deliberately excluded from the operation of the Reform Act of 1919. It was felt that the Province differed so markedly from the other Provinces in the Indian Empire that its requirements should be separately considered. After repeated discussions the question was referred to a special Burma Reforms Committee, which in 1922 recommended that all the essential provisions of the Reform Act should be applied to the Province. This recommendation was accepted and its proposals became law. Under this Act Burma became a Governor's Province, with an executive council and ministers, and conforms to the provisions reconstituted under the Act of 1919 (q.v.). The main difference is in the size of the electorate. Under the Indian

Act accepted, the rural electorate is estimated at 1,728,871 and the urban electorate has been put as high as 82,478. The Legislative Council consists of 104 members of which 80 are elected and the balance nominated. Owing to the special status of women in Burma female franchise was adopted from the beginning.

Burma is divided administratively into Upper Burma (including the Shan States and Chin Hills) and Lower Burma. The Shan States are administered by the Chief of the States subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Federated Shan States, who is also Superintendent for the Southern Shan States, and the Superintendent of the Northern Shan States. The Northern and Southern Shan States were formed into a Federation on the 1st October 1922 and are designated the F. S. States. The other Shan State in Burma are subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Sargol Division. The Civil, Criminal and Revenue Administration is vested in the Chief of the State subject to the restrictions contained in the Manual. The law administered is the customary law of the State.

Under the Governor are eight Commissioners of divisions, three in Upper, four in Lower Burma, and one in the Federated Shan States.

Justice

The administration of civil and criminal justice is under the control of the High Court of Judicature at Rangoon which consists of a Chief Justice and ten other permanent Judges. The Superior Judicial Service consists of District and Sessions Judges. There are also separate Provincial and subordinate judicial services.

All village headmen have limited magisterial powers and a considerable number are also invested with civil jurisdiction to a limited extent.

In pursuance of the policy of decentralization steps were taken in 1917 to restore to the village headmen the power and influence which they possessed in Burmese times. Before the centralizing tendency of British rule made them practically subordinate officers of the administration.

Public Works

The P. W. D. comprises two Branches, viz., the B. & R. Branch and the Irrigation Branch.

The B. & R. Branch of this Dept. which is under the Ministry of Forests is administered by one Chief Engineer and one Deputy Chief Engineer. There is also a Personal Asst. to the Chief Engineer. There are seven permanent Superintending Engineers in charge of circles four of whom are stationed at Rangoon and three at Mawmye. These are officers of the administrative rank.

Those of the executive rank are the executive Engineers and Asst. Executive Engineers who number 48 on the cadre of the Indian Service of Engineers. Besides this there is also the Burma Engineering Service Class I, which has been constituted for the purpose of gradually replacing the Indian Service of Engineers, B. & R. Branch, so far thirteen appointments have been made to this latter service.

Further there are the following officers belonging to the specialist services who are stationed at Rangoon.

- (i) One Water and Sewage Engineer, (ii) Four Sanitary Engineers (iii) One Electrical Inspector (iv) Three Electrical Engineers, (v) One Consulting Architect, (vi) One Asst. Architect (vii) One Supt. of Stores (viii) One Asst. Supt. of Stores

The Irrigation Branch of the P.W.D. which is under the control of the Hon. the Finance Member is administered by the Chief Engineer P.W.D. Burma Irrigation Branch who is assisted by a Personal Asst. There are four permanent Superintending Engineers in charge of Circles two of whom are stationed at Rangoon and two at Maymyo. These are officers of the Administrative rank.

Those of the Executive rank are the Executive Engineers and Asst. Executive Engineers, who number 23 on this cadre of the Indian Service of Engineers. Besides this there is also the Burma Engineering Service, which is a Provincial Service.

Further there are also Temporary Engineers recruited locally and in England, and a River Training expert.

Police

The Police Force is divided into Civil, Military and Rangoon Town Police. The first two are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the latter is under the orders of the Commissioner of Police, Rangoon, an officer of the rank of Deputy Inspector-General. There are five other Deputy Inspectors-General, one each for the Northern, Southern and Western Ranges, one for the Railway and Criminal Investigation Department, and one for the Military Police.

A special feature of Burma is the Military Police. Its officers are deputed from the Indian Army. The rank and file are recruited from natives of India with a few Kachins, Karens and Chins. The experiment of recruiting Burmese on a small scale has been successful. The organisation is military, the force being divided into battalions. The object of the force is to supplement the regular troops in Burma. Their duties, apart from their military work, is to provide escorts for specie, prisoners, etc., and guards for Treasuries, Jails and Courts.

Education

Under the Minister for Education there is the Director of Public Instruction with an Assistant Director, both belonging to the Indian Educa-

tional Service. There are nine Inspectors of Schools drawn from the Indian Educational Service, Burma Educational Service and the (class II) while the Burma Educational Service (class II) provides seven Assistant Inspectors. Two Asst. Inspectors of Schools Physical Training, have been appointed on a Temporary basis. There are also two Inspectresses of Schools. There is a Chief Educational Officer for the Federated Shan States.

A centralised, teaching and residential University for Burma, has been established in Rangoon. It now provides courses in Arts, Science, Law, Education, Economics, Engineering, Medicine and Forestry.

Schools are controlled by the Education Dept. and English is a remarkable feature of education in Burma. The system of elementary education evolved, generations ago, by the genius of the people. Nearly every village has a monastery (hpoongyi kyaung), every monastery is a village school and every Burman boy must, in accordance with his religion, attend that school, shaving his head and for the time wearing the yellow robe. At the hpoongyi kyaung the boys are taught reading and writing and an elementary native system of arithmetic. The result is that there are very few boys in Burma who are not able to read and write. Vernacular Education is in the hands of Local Educational authorities.

Among special institutions, the Government Technical Institute, Insein, provides courses in Mechanical, Civil and Electrical Engineering and the Agricultural College, Mandalay, courses in Agriculture.

A liberal scheme of State Scholarships provides for the despatch of 12 scholars to Europe each year.

Medical.

The control of the Medical Department is vested in an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. Under him are 41 Civil Surgeons. There is also a Director of Public Health, two Assistant Directors of Public Health, the senior of whom is also Director, Public Health Institute, at which there is now a Public Analyst and to which is also attached a Malaria Bureau, an Inspector-General of Prisons, three whole-time Superintendents of Prisons, a Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist and a Superintendent of the Mental Hospital.

There is also a Hygiene Publicity Officer.

The Pasteur Institute was opened in Rangoon in July 1915. The Director is a senior member of the Indian Medical Service.

THE FINANCES OF BURMA

In common with the other Provinces of India, the financial arrangements between the Government of India and the Government of Burma underwent a remodelling in consequence of the reconstitution of the Province on the lines of the other Indian Provinces. The Province obtained substantial financial independence. The present position is set out in the following statement —

ESTIMATED RECEIPTS FOR 1930-31

(A) REVENUE RECEIPTS—ORDINARY

	Rs.
Taxes on Income	10,95,000
Land Revenue	5,55,00,000
Excise	1,54,00,000
Stamps	73,14,000
Forest	1,75,55,000
Registration	4,00,000
Scheduled Taxes	5,70,000

	Rs
Irrigation, etc., Works with Capital Accounts	21,36,000
Irrigation etc., Works (No Capital Accounts)	1,66,000
Interest	10,05,000
Administration of Justice	14,38,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	9,69,000
Police	9,32,000
Ports and Pilotage	1,50,000
Education	6 18 000
Medical	3,48,000
Public Health	1,37,000
Agriculture	1,28,000
Industries	4,000
Miscellaneous Departments	6,19 000
Civil Works	9 46,000
Receipts in Aid of Superannuation	1 61,000
Stationery and Printing	4 03 000
Miscellaneous	3 28,000
Total (a)	10 70,83,000

(B) REVENUE RECEIPTS—EXTRAORDINARY

Extraordinary Receipts	
Total (a) & (b)	10,70 83,000

(C) DEBT HEADS

Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	5,16,000
Famine Insurance Fund	
Depreciation Fund—Government Presses	71,000
Depreciation Fund—Commercial Concerns	50 000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments	22,70,000
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	55,00,000
Total (c)	84 07,000
Total (a), (b) and (c)	11,56,00,000
Opening Balance	62,82,000
Grand Total	12,17,82,000

ESTIMATED DISBURSEMENTS FOR 1930-31

(A) EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE

	Rs.
Land Revenue	66,73,000
Excise	23,84,000
Stamps	1,81,000
Forest	70,58,000
Forest Capital Outlay	8,08,000
Registration	1,27,000
Scheduled Taxes	8,000
Interest on Works with Capital Account	23,61,000

	Rs
Other Revenue Expenditure	8 00,000
Construction of Irrigation Works etc.	9,89,000
Interest on Ordinary Debt	22,21,000
Interest on other Obligations	75,000
Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	5 16,000
General Administration	1,09,79,000
Administration of Justice	70 00,000
Jails and Convict Settlements	88 73,000
Police	1 60,80,000
Ports and Pilotage	12 22,000
Scientific Departments	79,000
Education	1,22 10,000
Medical	40 00,000
Public Health	14 60,000
Agriculture	24 24,000
Industries	3,98,000
Miscellaneous Departments	3,89,000
Civil Works	2,34,77,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	46,92,000
Commutation of Pensions	
Stationery and Printing	13,48,000
Miscellaneous	36,04,000
Extraordinary Charges	20 000
Total (a)	11,33,99 000

(B) EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE

Construction of Irrigation etc., Works	12,22 000
Payment of Commuted Value of Pensions	15,83 000
Total (b)	30,05 000
Total (a) & (b)	11 64,54,000

(C) DEBT HEADS

Depreciation Fund—Government Presses	38,000
Depreciation Fund—Commercial Concerns	8 08 000
Loans and Advances	21,15 000
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	6,88,000
Total (c)	31,44 000
Total (a) (b) & (c)	11,05 88 000
Closing Balance	21 84,000
Grand Total	12 17,82 000

Administration

Governor, H. E. Sir Charles Innes, KCSI,
C.I.E., LCB
Private Secretary, Captain Basil Lane Clay
 1st Bn. The Q. O. R. W. K. Regt.
Aide-de-Camp, Captain F. O. Hodgkinson, 1st
 (K.G.O.) Bn., Madras Pioneers and Po. Tun Hla
 Ung, Imperial Olace
Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lieutenant-Colonel
 A. Leithbridge I.A. Captain P. C. H. Lane,
 B.M.
Indian Aide-de-Camp, Naib-Commandant
 Sarwan Singh, Sardar Bahadur, Late of the
 Northern Shan States Batén, Burma Military
 Police. Subadar-Major and Hony Lieut.
 Bhagbir Yakha, Bahadur, late of the North-
 West Border Batta, Burma Military Police
 Naib Commandant Jai Lal Khan Bahadur,
 Reserve Batta, Burma Military Police

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Sir Joseph Augustus Maung Gyi
 Kt., Bar-at Law
 The Hon'ble Mr Thomas Couper M.A. ICS

Ministers

The Hon'ble L. Ba Tin Bar-at-Law
 The Hon'ble Sir Lee Ah Yain, Bar-at Law

Miscellaneous Appointments

Director of Agriculture, T. D. Stock D.I.C. A.R.C.B.
Consulting Architect, S. P. Bush
Commissioner Federated Shan States, Taunggyi
Southern Shan States, J. L. McCallum, ICS
Superintendent, Northern Shan States, G. R.
 Harvey B.A. ICS
Director of Public Instruction, T. P. Bulkeley, M.A.
Inspector-General of Police, Lt.-Col. E. W.
 Macdonald, C.I.E., B.S.O., I.A.

Burma

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<i>Chief Conservator of Forests</i> , S F Hopwood M. O	C H T Crosthwaite	1883
<i>Director of Public Health</i> , Major G G Jolly M.B., Ch. B. O. I. E.	Sir C E Bernard, K.C.S.I.	1886
<i>Inspector General of Prisons</i> , Lt Col P K Tura M.B., Ch. B. O. I. E.	C H T Crosthwaite, C.S.I.	1887
<i>Commissioner of Excise</i> , Gilbert Charles I. W. M. A. I. O. B.	A P MacDonnell, C.S.I. (a)	1889
<i>Financial Commissioner (Reserved Subjects)</i> I G Lloyd M. A. I. O. B.	Alexander Mackenzie, C.S.I.	1900
<i>Postmaster-General</i> , M N Crawford, A.C.G.I. M. B. O. I. E.	D M Smeaton	1892
	Sir F W R Fryer, K.C.S.I.	1895
	(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell	
Chief Commissioners of Burma		
Lieut.-Colonel A P Phayre, C.B.	Lieutenant Governors of Burma.	
Colonel A Fytche, C.S.I.	Sir F W R Fryer K.C.S.I.	1897
Lieut. Colonel B. D. Ardagh	Sir H S Barnes K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O.	1903
The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	Sir H T White, K.C.L.B.	1905
A B Thompson, C.S.I.	Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., LL.D.	1910
C U Aitchison, C.S.I.	Sir Harcourt Butler K.C.S.I., C.M.	1915
C E Bernard, C.S.I.	Sir Reginald Craddock, K.C.S.I.	1917
	Governors of Burma	
	Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.L.E., K.C.S.I.	1922
	Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., K.C.L.E., L.C.S.	1927

SECRETARIES, DEPUTY SECRETARIES, UNDER-SECRETARIES Etc.,

TO GOVERNMENT

F R Leach M.A., I.C.S.	Chief Secretary, Home and Political Department.
R G McDowall, I.C.S.	Secretary, Finance Department
F H Stevenson, I.C.S.	Secretary, Education Department
H L Nubols, B.A. I.C.S.	Secretary, Revenue Department.
F Lister B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Reforms Office
A B Morris I.C.S.	Secretary, Forest Department
U Tun Ya, K.Y.M. A.T.M.	Secretary, Judicial Department
B W Swithinbank I.C.S.	Secretary, Local Government Department.
W H Payton B.A. I.C.S.	Deputy Secretary, Finance Department
R B Langham-Carter I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Home and Political Department
I Kyaw Min M.A. I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Finance Department
U Maung Maung (Ais) A.T.M. B.A.	Under-Secretary, Forest Department
Rai Bahadur S B Ghosh, B.A.	Under-Secretary, Revenue Department
U Kyaw Dun, B.A.	Under-Secretary, Judicial Department
U Ka Si I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Local Government Department.
U Sein Tun B.A.	Under-Secretary Education Department
Rai Bahadur A T Basu	Assistant Secretary, Finance Department
Rai Bahadur K M Basu	Assistant Secretary, Home and Political Department.
H W Boyne	Registrar, Home and Political and Judicial Departments
P N Sen	Registrar, Education and Local Government Departments
I N B Rosario	Registrar, Finance and Revenue Departments.
W A Curties	Registrar, Agricultural and Forest Departments

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONERS

I G Lloyd, B.A., I.C.S.	Financial Commissioner (Reserved Subjects)
C W Dunn, C.L.W., I.C.S.	Financial Commissioner (Transferred Subjects.)
U Ba Thwe, (A) A.T.M. B.A.	Secretary to Financial Commissioner (Reserved Subjects.)
U Myit, T.M.	Secretary to Financial Commissioner (Transferred Subjects.)
C K Banerjee, B.A.	Registrar

BURMA LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL

PRESIDENT.

The Hon U Pu BA, Bar-at Law

DEPUTY PRESIDENT

U AI, B.A., Bar at-Law

Ex Officio Members

OFFICIALS

The Hon'ble Sir Joseph Augustus Maung Gyi, KT, Barrister at Law

The Hon'ble Mr Thomas Couper, M A, ICS

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble U Ba Tin, Barrister at Law

The Hon'ble Sir Lee Ah Yain, Kt Barrister at Law

Nominated Members

OFFICIALS

Walter Booth Gravelly ICS

R G McIlwall ICS

Charles William Dunn CIE, ICS

Tom Lister, BA ICS

A R Morris, ICS

Lieut Col G C Jolly CIE IMN

Bernow Wmthorp Swinburn, ICS DSO

Rodrick William Macdonald CIE

H L Holman Hunt CIE

O F Buckley, M A ICS

L Jun la KEM

Non-officials

U Po Line, TFS (Landowner)

Di N N Parakh LRP, & LM & S

U Kyi Myint

U Po Yin, KSM

D Venkatasawmy

Robert Black Howson

Arthur Jggai

John Arnold Cherry CIE

W G Joglem, VD MI, MCE

ELECTED MEMBERS

Name of Member	Name and class of constituency represented
U Tan Ung	Akyab Town (General Urban)
U Kun, B.A., Barrister-at Law	Bassein Town (General Urban)
U Ba Sein	Hagada Town (General Urban)
U Aung Thun	Mandalay Town (General Urban)
U Po Yin	
U Ba U	
M Euseof, Bar-at-Law . . .	Moulmein (General Urban)
U Chit Hla	

Name of Member	Name and class of constituency represented
U Ba Than .	Prome Town (General Urban)
U Ba Shin, M.B.E . .	} East Rangoon (General Urban)
M M Oon Ghine	
Chan Chor Khine	} West Rangoon (General Urban)
The Hon'ble U Ba Tin, Bar-at-Law	
L H Wellington	Tavoy Town (General Urban)
R K Ghose	Akyab Indian Community (Indian Urban)
B N Das	Bassein Indian Community (Indian Urban)
M A Jan	Mandalay Indian Community (Indian Urban)
Mirza Mahomed Rafi Bar-at Law	Moulmein Indian Community (Indian Urban)
M T Khan	} East Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban)
Khan Bahadur Wali Mahomed	
N M Cawazji, Bar-at-Law	} West Rangoon Indian Community (Indian Urban)
L P Pillay	
Saw Po Chit, Bar-at-Law	Amherst Karen Community (Karen Rural)
Sra Shwe Ba, T.P.	Bassein Karen Community (Karen Rural)
Saw Toe Khut	Maubin Karen Community (Karen Rural)
U Kyaw Zin	Myaungmya Karen Community (Karen Rural)
Raw Pah Dwal, A.T.M., Bar-at-Law	Thahton Karen Community (Karen Rural)
U Tun Win	Amherst (General Rural)
Os Kyaw Khine	Akyab District East (General Rural)
U Tha Ban, K.S.M.	Akyab District West (General Rural)
U Kyaw Mya	South Arakan (General Rural)
U So Nyun	Bassein District (General Rural)
U Ba .	Hanthawaddy East (General Rural)
U Ba So, Bar-at-Law	Hanthawaddy West (General Rural)
U Tun Lin, T.P.	Hensada District North (General Rural)
U Ba Myin	Hensada District South (General Rural)
U Aye, Bar-at Law	Insein (General Rural)
U Nyain	Katha (General Rural)
U Sein Ba	Kyaukse (General Rural)
U Wya	Lower Chindwin East (General Rural)
U Po Hla	Lower Chindwin West (General Rural)
U Ko Gyi, T.P.	Magwe East (General Rural)
U Kio Maung Gyi, Bar-at Law	Magwe West (General Rural)
U Baa Thi	Mandalay District (General Rural)
U Hla Thirwin	Ma-ubin (General Rural)
U Ba Yin, B.A.	Melkilla East (General Rural)
U Sein Toke . .	Melkilla West (General Rural)
U Tun Tin	Mergui (General Rural)
U Faa	Minbu (General Rural)

Name of Member	Name and class of constituency represented
U Ba Maung	Mayungmya (General Rural)
U Ba Shun	Myingyan North (General Rural)
U NI SA, Bar at-Law Dy President	Myingyan South (General Rural)
L San Ma F F S	Pakokku East (General Rural)
U Me, F F S	Pakokku West (General Rural)
U Ho Kim Seng	Pegu North (General Rural)
U Kya Galing, Bar at-Law	Pegu South (General Rural)
U Thein Maung, SA M M F	Prome District (General Rural)
U Thin	Pyapon (General Rural)
U Maung Maung	Sagaing East (General Rural)
U Kan L	Sagaing West (General Rural)
U Ant	Shwabo East (General Rural)
U Ba Din, T.F.S	Shwabo West (General Rural)
L On Nyun	Tavoy District (General Rural)
U Maung Gyi	Tharrawaddy North (General Rural)
U Saw	Tharrawaddy South (General Rural)
U Ba Tin	Thaton (General Rural)
U San Lu	Thayetmyo (General Rural)
U Maung Maung	Toungoo North (General Rural)
Tharrawaddy U Pu	Toungoo South (General Rural)
U Po Aye, SA, Bar at Law	Yamethin North (General Rural)
The Hon'ble (U Pu SA Bar at Law President)	Yamethin South (General Rural)
Charles Haswell Campagnac, M.B.E., Bar at Law	Anglo Indian (Anglo Indian)
Oscar de Glanville O.B.E. Bar at Law	European (European)
Herman Brooke Prior	Burma Chamber of Commerce (Commerce)
The Hon'ble Sir Lee Ah Yain Kt., K.I.E., Bar at-Law	Chinese Chamber of Commerce (Commerce)
Jules Emile Du Bern O.B.E.	Rangoon Trades Association (Chambers)
U Tun Pe M.A.	Rangoon University

William Tyndall Henry, Burma Chamber of Commerce

U Ba Pe M.A., Burmese Chamber of Commerce

Khan Bahadur Ahmed Chandoo—Burma India Chamber of Commerce

SECRETARY

U Ba Dun, Bar at-Law

ASSISTANT SECRETARY

R McG Elliot

Bihar and Orissa.

Bihar and Orissa lies between 19°-22° and 27°-30° N. latitude and between 82°-81° and 88°-28° E. longitude and includes the three provinces of Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur, and is bounded on the north by Nepal and the Darjeeling district of Bengal, on the east by Bengal and the Bay of Bengal, on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Madras, and on the west by the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and the Central Provinces.

The area of the British territories which constitute the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa is 83,180 square miles inclusive of the area of large rivers. In addition to the districts which are directly under British rule, there are two groups of petty States which lie to the south and south west of the Province and which under the names of the Feudatory States of Orissa and Chota Nagpur are governed each by its own Chief under the superintendence and with the advice of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The area of these territories is 28,656 square miles and as it is usual to include them when speaking of Bihar and Orissa the area of the whole Province may be stated at 111,836 square miles. Two of the provinces of the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa, viz., Bihar and Orissa, consist of great river valleys, the third, Chota Nagpur, is a mountainous region which separates them from the Central Indian Plateau. Orissa embraces the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and the neighbouring rivers and is bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the south-east and walled in on the north west by the hilly country of the Tributary States. Bihar lies on the north of the Province and comprises the valley of the Ganges from the spot where it issues from the territories of the Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh till it enters Bengal near Rajmahal. Between Bihar and Orissa lies Chota Nagpur. Following the main geographical lines there are five Civil Divisions, with headquarters at Patna, Munaffarpur (for Tirhut), Bhagalpur, Cuttack (for Orissa) and Ranchi (for Chota Nagpur).

The People.

The headquarters of Government are at Patna. The new capital which lies between the Military Cantonment of Dinapore and the old civil station of Bankipore is known as "Patna," the old town being called "Patna City."

The Province has a population of 37,061,853 persons which is very little less than that of France and rather more than that of the Bombay Presidency. The province is almost entirely rural, no fewer than 963 in every 1,000, live in villages. Even so with 330 persons per square mile, Bihar and Orissa is more thickly populated than Germany. There are only three towns which can be classed as cities, namely, Patna, Gaya and Bhagalpur. During the last thirty years the population of Patna has been steadily diminishing. Hindus form an overwhelming majority of the population. Though the Muhammadans form less than one-tenth of the total population they constitute more than one-fifth of

urban population of the province. Animists account for 6.16 per cent. These are inhabitants of the Chota Nagpur plateau and the Santal Parganas, the latter district being a continuation of the plateau in a north easterly direction.

Industries.*

The principal industry is agriculture, Bihar more especially North Bihar being the "Garden of India." Rice is the staple crop but the spring crops, wheat, barley and the like are of considerable importance. It is estimated that the normal area cultivated with rice is 15,094,000 acres or about 48 per cent of the cropped area of the Province. Wheat is grown on 1,185,100 acres, barley on 1,385,500 acres, maize or Indian-corn on 1,644,700 acres, the latter being an autumn crop. Oil-seeds are an important crop, the cultivation having been estimated by the demand for them in Europe. It is estimated that 2,037,000 acres of land are annually cropped with oil seed in the Province. There is irrigation in Shahabad, Gaya, Patna and Champaran districts in Bihar and in Balasore and Cuttack in Orissa. The Indigo industry is steadily on the decline, the total area sown having decreased from 842,000 acres in 1896 to 25,000 acres in 1923. The principal cause of this was the discovery of the possibilities of manufacturing synthetic or chemically prepared indigo on a commercial scale. Its place as a crop manufactured for export has been largely taken by sugarcane, the cultivation of which has been considerably extended owing to the high prices given by sugar factories. In the district of Purnea and in Orissa, and parts of the Tributary Division jute is grown but the acreage varies according to the price of jute. The last serious famine was in 1895-96 but there was a serious shortage of foodstuffs in the south of the Province in 1910. In any year in which monsoon currents from either the Bay of Bengal or the Arabian Sea are unduly late in their arrival or cease abruptly before the middle of September the agricultural situation is very grave. It may be said that for Bihar the most important rainfall is that known as the *Ashu*, due towards the end of September or up to middle of October. Rain at this time not only contributes materially to an increased outturn of the rice crop, but also provides the moisture necessary for starting the spring or *rabi* crops.

Manufactures.

Opium was formerly, with indigo, the chief manufactured product of Bihar, but in consequence of the agreement with the Chinese Government the Patna Factory has been closed. At Monghyr the Peninsula Tobacco Company have erected one of the largest cigarette factories in the world and as a result tobacco is being grown much more extensively. The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur in Singhbhum district are also one of the largest in the world and numerous subsidiary industries are springing up in their vicinity. The most important of these are the Tinsley Company of India, Agricultural Implements, Ltd. and

* The figures given in this paragraph relate to British territory only.

Cable Company of India, Enamelled Ironware, Limited, and Indian Steel Wire Products. The population of Jamshedpur is rapidly approaching 100,000 and it consumes 1½ million tons of coal annually. This part of the province has also some of the richest and most extensive iron mines in the world and supplies the iron and steel works in both Bengal and Bihar and Orissa with raw materials, but the raising of coal is still the most important of the mineral industries in the province. The coalfields in the Manbhum District have undergone an extraordinary development in the past twenty years, while valuable new fields are being developed at Ramgarh, Bokaro and Karanpura in Hazaribagh. This same district is the most important mica mining centre in the world both on account of the quality as well as the size of its output. Manbhum, Palaman Ranchi, the Santal Parganas and Gaya are also the chief centres for the production of lac and the manu- facture of shellac the latter of which is exported from India to the value of ten crores annually.

Administration

The Province on first constitution was administered by a Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, thus being unique in India as the only Lieutenant-Governorship with a Council. Under the Reform Act of 1919 it was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers. The principles of the provincial administration are fully explained in the section The Provincial Governorships, where the division of the administration into Reserved Subjects, in charge of the Governor and his Executive Council, and Transferred Subjects, in charge of the Governor and Ministers chosen from the Legislative Council, is set out in detail. In all these respects Bihar and Orissa is on the same plane as the other Provinces in India.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department in the Province of Bihar and Orissa consists of two separate branches, viz. (1) the Buildings and Roads and (2) Irrigation which also deals with railways. Each has a Chief Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Local Government with an Engineer Officer as Under-Secretary in the Buildings and Roads branch and a non-professional Assistant Secretary, in the Irrigation branch under him. The electrical work of the Province is carried out by an Electric Inspector and an Electrical Engineer and a staff of subordinates.

Justice

The administration of justice is controlled by the High Court of Judicature at Patna. In the administration of civil justice below the High Court are the District Judges as Courts of Appeal, the Subordinate Judges and the Munsifs. The jurisdiction of a District Judge or Subordinate Judge extends to all original suits cognisable by the Civil Courts. It does not, however, include the powers of a Small Cause Court, unless these be specially conferred. The ordinary jurisdiction of a Munsif extends to all suits in which the amount or value of the subject matter in dispute does not exceed Rs. 1,000 though the limit may be extended to Rs. 4,000. On the criminal side the Sessions Judge hears appeals from Magistrates exercising first class powers while the District Magistrate is the

appellate authority for Magistrates exercising second and third class powers. The District Magistrate can also be, though in point of fact he very rarely is, a court of first instance. It is usual in most districts for a Joint Magistrate or a Deputy Magistrate to receive complaints and police reports, cases of difficulty or importance being referred to the District Magistrate who is responsible for the peace of the district. In the non-regulation districts the Deputy Commissioner and his subordinates exercise civil powers and hear rent suits.

Land Tenures.

Estates in the Province of Bihar and Orissa are of three kinds, namely, those permanently settled from 1793 which are to be found in the Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions, those temporarily settled as in Chota Nagpur and parts of Orissa, and estates held direct by Government as proprietor or managed by the Court of Wards. The passing of the Bengal Tenancy Act (VIII of 1885) safeguarded the rights of the cultivators under the Permanent Settlement Act. Further, the Settlement Department under the supervision of the Director of Land Records makes periodical survey and settlement operations in the various districts both permanently and temporarily settled. In the former, the rights of the under tenants are recorded and attested, while in the latter there is the re-settlement of rents. In the re-settlement proceedings, rents are fixed not only for the landlords but also for all the tenants. A settlement can be ordered by Government on application made by land lords or tenants.

The tenures of Orissa are somewhat different under the zamindars, that is, the proprietors who took settlement from Government and pay revenue to Government direct, is a class of subordinate proprietors or proprietary tenure holders, who were originally village headmen dealing more or less direct with the revenue authorities. They have a variety of names, such as *mekhadem, padhan, mearwar, sarbarbar, pargana, khairidar* and *shikmi zamindar*. These sub-proprietors or proprietary tenure holders pay their revenue through the zamindars of the estates within which their land lies. In Chota Nagpur and the Santal Parganas, the rights of village headmen have been recognised. The headman collects the rents and is responsible for them minus a deduction as remuneration for his trouble.

Both Orissa and Chota Nagpur have their own Tenancy Acts. In the district of the Santal Parganas, the land tenures are governed by Regulations III of 1872 and II of 1886.

Police.

The Departments of Police, Prisons and Registration are each under the general direction of Government, supervised and inspected by an Inspector-General with a staff of assistants. The Commissioner of Excise and Salt is also Inspector-General of Registration.

Under the Inspector-General of Police are four Deputy Inspectors-General and 20 Superintendents. There are also 26 Assistant Superintendents of Police and 28 Deputy Superintendents. The force is divided into the District Police, the Railway Police and the Military Police. A Criminal Investigation Department has also been formed for the collection and

distribution of information relating to professional criminals and criminal tribes whose operations extend beyond a single district and to control, advise, and assist in investigations of crime of this class and other serious action which its assistance may be invoked. There are three companies of unmounted Military Police and one company of Mounted Military Police which are maintained as reserves to deal with serious and organised disturbances and perform no ordinary civil duties.

Education

The position of education in the Province with the numbers attending schools, is set out in the section Education and the tables attached thereto (g v) showing in great detail the educational status of the administration.

There is a University at Patna, whose functions are described under the Indian Universities. (g v)

Medical

The Medical Department is under the control of the Inspector General of Civil Hospitals who

is a Member of the Indian Medical Service. Under him there are 21 Civil Surgeons who are responsible for the medical work of the districts at the headquarters of which they are stationed. 61 Dispensaries are maintained by Government in addition to 612 Dispensaries maintained by Local bodies, Railways, private persons, etc. 6,781,880 patients including 87,158 in-patients were treated in all the dispensaries in 1929. The total income of the dispensaries maintained by Government and Local Bodies including that of the private aided institutions amounted to Rs. 40,13,563.

A large mental hospital for Europeans has been opened at Ranchi which receives patients from Northern India. A similar institution for Indians has been opened at Ranchi since September 1925 for the treatment of patients from Bihar and Orissa and Beagal. An institute for radium treatment has also been established at Patna.

A medical college has been opened at Patna and the Medical School which was in existence at Patna has been transferred to Darbhanga.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA

As Bihar now enjoys practical financial autonomy, the finances are set out in greater detail.

Revenues and Receipts		(In thousands of Rupees)	Budget Estimate, 1930-31
II.—Taxes on Income			8.84
V.—Land Revenue			1,71.98
VI.—Excise			1,95.50
VII.—Stamps			1,09.25
VIII.—Forest			10.39
IX.—Registration			16.51
Irrigation—			
XIII.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which capital accounts are kept			16.00
XIV.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no capital accounts are kept			1.10
XVI.—Interest			0.47
XVII.—Administration of Justice			5.14
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements			6.96
XIX.—Police			1.67
XX.—Ports and Pilotage			1.83
XXI.—Education			0.47
XXII.—Medical			1.87
XXIII.—Public Health			79
XXIV.—Agriculture			2.67
XXV.—Industries			79
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Department			2
XXX.—Civil Works			5.80
XXXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation			1.16
XXXIV.—Stationery and Printing			1.00
XXXV.—Miscellaneous			4.13
XXXIXA.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments			
TOTAL REVENUE			5,74.37
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government			8.56
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund			
Famine Insurance Fund			12.57
Suspense			2.75
TOTAL RECEIPTS			5,98.25
Opening Balance		(s)	1,45.51
GRAND TOTAL			7,53.76
(s) Ordinary balance	96.11
Famine Insurance Fund	69.40
Total ..			1,65.51

		(In thousands of Rupees.)	
	<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>Budget Estimate, 1930-31</i>	
5.—Land Revenue		28.28	
6.—Excise		81.50	
7.—Stamps		8.12	
8.—Forests		7.98	
8A.—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue		1.80	
9.—Registration		6.63	
Irrigation—			
14.—Interest on Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept		20.45	
15.—Irrigation Revenue Account—Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue		4.80	
15 (1).—Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Insurance Grants			
16.—Irrigation Capital Account—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage Works		5	
19.—Interest on Ordinary Debt		1.83	
22.—General Administration		72.37	
24.—Administration of Justice		39.33	
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements		21.35	
26.—Police		84.44	
27.—Ports and Pilotage		1	
30.—Scientific Departments		45	
31.—Education		87.60	
32.—Medical		29.71	
38.—Public Health		15.56	
34.—Agriculture		16.63	
35.—Industries		11.41	
37.—Miscellaneous Departments		38	
41.—Civil Works		79.47	
43.—Famine Relief and Insurance		1.00	
45.—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions		24.77	
45A.—Commutation of Pensions		55	
46.—Stationery and Printing		8.83	
47.—Miscellaneous		4.80	
51.—Contribution to the Central Government by Provincial Government			
51A.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments			
Total expenditure charged to Revenue		5,87.96	
60B. Commuted value of pension		—12	
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government		5.17	
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund		7.84	
Famine Insurance Fund		5.98	
Suspense		2.75	
Total expenditure not charged to revenue		21.42	
Reserve for unforeseen		3.00	
Total expenditure		6,12.38	
	Closing Balance	(b) 1,51.38	
	GRAND TOTAL	7,63.76	
Provincial { Surplus			
Deficit		14.13	
(b) Ordinary balance		75.89	
Famine Insurance Fund		75.99	
Total		1,51.34	
Administration.			
GOVERNOR			
His Excellency Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson,			
K.C.S.I., K.C.I.B., I.C.S.			
PERSONAL STAFF			
Private Secretary, Captain E J Montgomery			
Aides-de-Camp, Captain A D Macnamara and			
Lt K C O. Balyan			
Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Lieut.-Colonel F C			
Temple Commander D J Mansfield and			
Muhammad Reza Khan Bahadur, Baskdar			
Major and Hon'y Lieutenant.			
EXECUTIVE COUNCIL			
The Hon Mr James David Sifton, C.I.E			
I.C.S.			
The Hon Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanja Deo,			
O.R.E.			
Ministers			
The Hon Sir Salyid Mahomed Fakir ud-din,			
Khan Bahadur, Kt., (Education)			
The Hon Sir Ganesh Datta Singh, Kt. (Local Self			
Government)			

SECRETARIES

Chief Secretary to Government, Political and Appointment Departments, M G Hallett CIE, ICS

Secretary to Government, Finance Department, W G Lacey, ICS

Secretary to Government, Revenue Department, R D Russell ICS

Secretary to Government (P W D), Irrigation Branch, F. L. Glass

Buildings and Roads Branch H A Gubbay

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, G H Tawous, M.A

Inspector-General of Police, Walter Swain, CIE

Conservator of Forests, Ernest Benson

Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, Lt Col W M Houston I.M.S

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col J A S Phillips

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt-Col I M Macrae, O.B.E., M.D., I.M.S

Director of Agriculture, G S Henderson

GOVERNORS OF BIHAR AND ORISSA

Lord Sinha of Raipur F.C., M.C. 1920

Sir Henry Wheeler 1921

Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. 1927

Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council

The Hon ble Babu Miru Narayan Sinha, (*President*)

Rai Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mahanti (*Deputy President*)

Mr S Anwar Uddin Bar at Law, (*Secretary*)

Babu Premnanda Saha B.A., B.L. (*Assistant Secretary*)

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon ble Mr J D Sifton, CIE C.S.I.

The Hon ble Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanja Deo, O.B.E.

MINISTERS

The Hon ble Sir Sayid Muhammad Fakhr ud-din Kt., Khan Bahadur

West Patna (Muhammadan Rural)

The Hon ble Sir Ganesh Datta Singh Kt.

East Patna (Non Muhammadan Rural)

Members

NOMINATED OFFICIALS

Mr M G Hallett, CIE

" W B Brett

" G E Owen

" B K Gokhale

" J A Sweeney, CIE

" F L Glass

" H A Gubbay

" G E Fawcett, CIE, O.B.E.

" P W Murphy

" Henry Carlos Prior ICS

" G S Henderson

" Reginald John Hunt, CIE

NOMINATED NON OFFICIAL

Lt Col D Douglas (European)

Mr W H Meyrick (Bihar Planters)

Mr R S Tarleton (Indian Mining Association)

Babu Manindra Nath Mukharji (Indian Mining Federation)

Babu Swayambar Das

Rai Bahadur Kedar Nath

Khan Bahadur Shah Muhammad Yahya

Babu Bimala Charan Singh

Babu Jogendra Chandra Mukharji (Domiciled Bengali Community)

NOMINATED NON OFFICIALS—*concl'd*

Mr A E D'Silva (Anglo Indian Community)
 Rev Brajananda Das (Depressed classes)
 Babu Ram Narayan (Depressed classes)
 Mr Sagram Hembrum (Aborigines)
 Garbett Captain Manki (Aborigines)
 Rai Sahib Harondra Nath Banerji (Labouring classes)
 Rai Bahadur Ram Raviyaya Singh (Industrial interest other than Planting and Mining)
 Mr R. Chandra (Indian Christian Community)

ELECTED

Name	Constituencies
Babu Rajeshwari Prashad	Patna Division (Non Muhammadan Urban)
Mr Salyid Abdul Aziz	Patna Division (Muhammadan Urban)
Raja Bahadur Haribar Prashad Narayan Singh	Patna Division Landholder
Babu Shyam Narayan Singh Sharma	Patna (Non-Muhammadan Urban)
Babu Rajandhar Sinha	West Patna (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Khan Bahadur Salyid Muhammad Hussain	East Patna (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Rameshwar Prashad Singh	East Gaya (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Ramasugrah Narayan Singh	West Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Bhagwati Saran Singh	Central Gaya (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Khaldur Rahman	Gaya (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Badha Mohan Sinha	Arrah (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Sachchidananda Sinha	Central Shahabad (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Badha Prashad Sinha	South Shahabad (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Mr Salyid Muhammad Athar Hussain	Shahabad (Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Dwarka Nath	Tirhut Division (Non Muhammadan Urban)
Maulavi Muhammad Abdul Gham	Tirhut Division (Muhammadan Urban)
Babu Chandeeswar Prashad Narayan Sinha	Tirhut Division Landholders
Babu Shrinandan Prashad Narayan Singh Sharma	North Saran (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Nimu Narayan Sinha	South Saran (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Khan Bahadur Saghur ul Haq	Saran (Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Krishnadeva Narayan Maitha	North Champaran (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Lalita Prashad Chaudhuri	South Champaran (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Abdul Wadood	Champaran (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Ramaswar Pratap Sahl	North Muzaffarpur (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Sri Narayan Maitha	East Muzaffarpur (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Badri Narayan Singh	West Muzaffarpur (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Rai Bahadur Shyamandan Sahay	Hajipur (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Haswan Jai	Muzaffarpur (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Harikrishna Chaudhuri	North West Darbhanga (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Sardasanda Kumar	South East Darbhanga (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Shaikh Muhammad Shafi	Darbhanga (Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Jogendra Mohan Sinha	Bhagalpur Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban)

ELECTED—contd

Name	Constituencies
Khan Bahadur Abdul Wahab Khan	Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadian Urban)
Raj Bahadur Dalip Narayan Singh	Bhagalpur Division Landholders
Babu Haldhar Prashed Singh	North Bhagalpur (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Rudra Pratap Singh	Central Bhagalpur (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Mr Kamakhari Lal	South Bhagalpur (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Chaudhuri Muhammad Nazrul Hasan	Bhagalpur (Muhammadian Rural)
Raj Bahadur Lachmi Prashed Sinha	East Monghyr (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Bishundeo Narayan Singh	North West Monghyr (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Manjavi Salyid Muhammad Mehdi	Monghyr (Muhammadian Rural)
Raja Prithwi Chand Lal Chowdry	Purnea (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Mr Salyid Mohd ud-din Mirza	Kishanganj (Muhammadian Rural)
Khan Bahadur Hajji Muhammad Bux Chau dhuri	Purnea (Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Shih Chandra Singha	Santal Pargana (North) (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Ramjiwan Hinaat Singhu	Santal Pargana (South) (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Manjavi Abdul Aziz Khan	Santal Pargana (Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Harhar Das	Orissa Division (Non Muhammadian Urban)
Manjavi Shaikh Abdul Jalil	Orissa Division (Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Birabar Narayan Chandra Dhir Varendra	Orissa Division Landholders
Raj Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mahanti	North Cuttack (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Imbu Nikunja Kishore Das	South Cuttack (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Radharaman Das	North Balasore (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Jagannath Das	South Balasore (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Godswami Misra	North Puri (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Raj Bahadur Loknath Misra	South Puri (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Brajramohan Panda	Sambalpur (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Mr Ananda Kumar Ghosh	Chota Nagpur Division (Non Muhammadian Urban)
Khan Bahadur Habibur Rahman	Chota Nagpur Division (Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Maheshwari Prashed Narayan Deo	Chota Nagpur Division Landholders
Raj Bahadur Sarat Chandra Ray	Ranchi (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Kalyan Singh	Hazaribagh (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Bhalya Rudra Pratap Deo	Palamau (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Kunja Bihari Chaudra	North Manbhum (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Raj Bahadur Satish Chandra Sinha	South Manbhum (Non Muhammadian Rural)
Babu Devendra Nath Samanta	Singbhum (Non Muhammadian Rural)

The Central Provinces and Berar.

The Central Provinces and Berar compose a great triangle of country midway between Bombay and Bengal. Their area is 181,861 sq. miles, of which 82,262 are British territory proper, 17,790 (viz., Berar) held on perpetual lease from H. E. H. the Nizam and the remainder held by Feudatory Chiefs. The population (1921) is 18,912,780 under British administration, including 8,075,816 in Berar. Various parts of the Central Provinces passed under British control at different times in the wars and tumult in the first half of the 19th century and the several parts were amalgamated after the Mutiny, in 1861, into the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Berar was, in 1858, assigned to the East India Company as part of a financial arrangement with H. E. H. the Nizam for the maintenance of the Hyderabad contingent and was leased in perpetuity to the Central Provinces in 1908, as the result of a fresh agreement with H. E. H. the Nizam.

The Country

The Central Provinces may roughly be divided into three tracts of upland, with two intervening ones of plain country. In the north-west, the Vindhyan plateau is broken country, covered with poor and stunted forest. Below its precipitous southern slopes stretches the rich wheat growing country of the Narbudda valley. Then comes the high Satpura plateau, characterised by forest-covered hills and deep water-cut ravines. Its hills decline into the Nagpur plain, whose broad stretches of "deep black cotton" soil make it one of the more important cotton tracts of India and the wealthiest part of the C. P. proper. The Eastern half of the plain lies in the valley of the Wainganga and is mainly a rice growing country. Its numerous irrigation tanks have given it the name of the "lake country" of Nagpur. Further east is the far-reaching rice country of Chhattisgarh, in the Mahanadi basin. The south-east of the C. P. is again mountainous, containing 24,000 square miles of forest and precipitous ravines, and mostly inhabited by jungle tribes. The Feudatory States of Bastar and Kanker lie in this region. Berar lies to the south-west of the C. P. and its chief characteristic is its rich black cotton-soil plains.

The People

The population of the province is a comparatively new community. Before the advent of the Aryans, the whole of it was peopled by the Gonds and other primitive tribes and these aboriginal inhabitants fared better from the Aryans than their like in most parts of India because of the rugged nature of their homes. But successive waves of immigration flowed into the province from all sides. The early inhabitants were driven into the inaccessible forests and hills, where they form nearly a quarter of the whole population of the C. P. being found in large numbers in all parts of the province, particularly in the south-east. The main divisions of the new comers are indicated by the language divisions of the province, Hindi, brought in by the Hindustani-speaking peoples of the North, prevails in the North and East. Marathi in Berar and the west and centre of

the C. P. Hindi is spoken by 56 per cent of the population and is the *lingua franca*. Marathi by 31 per cent and Gond by 7 per cent. The effects of invasion are curiously illustrated in Berar, where numbers of Moslems have Hindu names, being descendants of former Hindu officials who on the Mahomedan invasion adopted Islam rather than lose their positions. The last census shows that a gradual Brahmanising of the aboriginal tribes is going on. The tribes are not regarded as impure by the Hindus and the process of absorption is more or less civilising.

Industries

When Sir Richard Temple became first Chief Commissioner of the C. P. the province was landlocked. The only road was that leading in from Jabulpore to Nagpur. The British administration has made roads in all directions, the two trunk railways between Bombay and Calcutta run across the province and in the last few years a great impetus has been given to the construction of subsidiary lines. These developments have caused a steady growth of trade and have aroused vigorous progress in every department of life. The prime industry is, of course, agriculture, which is assisted by one of the most admirable agricultural departments in India and is now receiving additional strength by a phenomenal growth of the co-operative credit movement. The land tenure is chiefly on the *semindari* or *landlord system*, ranging with numerous variations, from the great Feudatory chiefships, which are on this basis, to holdings of small disincorporated. A system of legislation has gradually been built up to protect the individual cultivator. Berar is settled on the *Revenue railway* system 19,645 square miles of the C. P. is Government Reserved forest, in Berar the forest area is about 8,330 square miles, the total forest area being one-sixth of the whole Province. The rugged nature of the greater part of the country makes forest conservation difficult and costly. Excluding forest and waste 67 per cent. of the total land is occupied for cultivation, in the most advanced districts the proportion is 83 per cent. and in Berar the figure is also high. The cultivated area is extending continuously except for the temporary checks caused by bad seasons. Rice is the most important crop of the C. P. Wheat comes next, with 16 per cent., then pulses and other cereals used for food and oil-seeds, with 64 per cent. and cotton with 10 per cent. In Berar cotton occupies 80 per cent. of the cropped area, *jowar* covers 31 per cent. then wheat and oil seeds. In agriculture more than half the working population is female.

Commerce and Manufactures

Industrial life is only in its earliest development except in one or two centres, where the introduction of modern enterprises along the railway routes has laid the foundations for great future developments of the natural wealth of the province. Nagpur is the chief centre of a busy cotton spinning and weaving industry. The Empress Mills, owned by *Rani* manufacturers, were opened there in 1877 and the

general prosperity of the cotton trade has led to the addition of many mills here and in other parts of the province. The total amount of spun yarn exported from the Province during the year ending 31st March 1929 was 2,10,438 mounds, valued at Rs. 63,18,900.

The largest numbers engaged in any of the modern industrial concerns are employed in manganese mining which in 1928 employed 23,110 persons and raised 590,833 tons. Then follow coal mining with an output of 782,353 tons and 6,928 persons employed, the Jabulpore marble quarries and allied works, the limestone quarries and the mines for pottery clay, soapstone, etc.

The total number of factories of all kinds legally so described was 898 in 1929 the latest period for which returns are available and the number of people employed in them 69,291. The same economic influences which are operative in every progressive country during its transition stage are at work in the C P and Berar, gradually sapping the strength of the old village industries, as communications improve, and concentrating industries in the towns. While the village industries are fading away, a large development of trade has taken place. The last pre war reports showed an increase in volume by one-third in eight years.

Administration

The administration of the Central Provinces and Berar is conducted by a Governor-in-Council, who is appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by eight Secretaries and five under secretaries. Under the reform scheme the administration is conducted by a Governor with an Executive Council of two members one of whom is a non-official and two Ministers, the latter being in charge of the transferred subjects.

The local legislature consists of 73 members distributed as follows—38 elected from the O P 17 elected from Berar, 2 members of the Executive Council 8 nominated non-officials 8 nominated officials. The Governor (who is not a member of the Council) has the right of nominating two additional members with special knowledge on any subject regarding which legislation is before the Chamber. The O P is divided for administrative purposes into four divisions and Berar constitutes another division. Each of these is controlled by a Commissioner. The divisions are sub-divided into districts, each of which is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, immediately subordinate to the Commissioner. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Inspector-General of Police, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Excise Commissioner, and Superintendent of Stamps and Inspector-General of Registration and Registrar-General of Marriages, Deaths and Marriages, the Director of Agriculture, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Industries, the Legal Commissioner, the Director of Veterinary Services and the two Chief Magistrates, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches.

The Deputy Commissioners of districts are the chief revenue authorities and District Magistrates and they exercise the usual powers and functions of a district officer. The district forests are managed by a forest officer over whom the Deputy Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each district has a Civil Surgeon, who is generally also Superintendent of the District Jail and whose work is also in various respects supervised by the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar and manages the estates of his district which are under the Court of Wards. In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by (a) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service, (b) one or more Extra Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Provincial Civil Service, usually natives of India, but including a few Europeans and Anglo-Indians and (c) by Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars, or members of the Subordinate service who are nearly always natives of India. The district is divided for administrative purposes into tahsils, the average area of which is 1,500 square miles. In each village a lambardar or representative of the proprietary body, is executive headman.

Justice

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of appeal in civil cases, and also the highest court of criminal appeal and revision for the Central Provinces and Berar including proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects.

The Court sits at Nagpur and consists of a Judicial Commissioner and 4 Additional Judicial Commissioners of whom one at least must be an advocate of the Court or a Barrister or pleader of not less than 10 years' standing.

Subordinate to the Judicial Commissioner's Court are the District and Sessions Judges (12 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a Civil and Sessions district comprising one or more Revenue districts. The civil staff below the District and Sessions Judge consists of Sub-Judges of the 1st and 2nd class.

Local Self-Government

Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts and the Municipality of Nagpur dates from 1864. Several reviving Acts extend its scope and the O P Municipalities Act passed towards the end of the year 1922 has considerably increased the power of the Municipal Committees. The O P Municipalities Act has also been extended to Berar. Viewed generally, municipal self-government is considered to have taken root successfully. The larger towns have municipalities, there being 68 such bodies in the Province.

Under the Central Provinces Local Self Government Act passed in 1920 there is a Local Board for each tahsil and a District Council for each district. The Local Board consists of elected representatives of choies and nominated members other than Government

officials not exceeding in number one-fourth of the Board, and the constitution of the District Council is a certain proportion of elected representatives of Local Boards, of members selected by those representatives and of members, other than Government servants, nominated by Government.

The District Councils in the Central Provinces have power of taxation within certain limits and Local Boards derive their funds in allotments from the District Councils. The new Central Provinces Local Self Government Act has also been applied to Berar. The Office Bearers of all the District Councils and with few exceptions Local Boards also are non officials.

Rural education, sanitation, medical relief and rural communications are among the primary objects to which these bodies direct their attention while expenditure on famine relief is also a legitimate charge upon the District Council funds.

The Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act was passed in the year 1920. So far 482 Panchayats have been established. As the result of a recommendation of a Committee appointed in 1926 to look into the question of Panchayats, a Village Panchayat Officer has been appointed to guide the developments of the Panchayat system and the results so far achieved have been satisfactory.

Public Works

The Public Works Department (Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branch) is controlled by two Chief Engineers who are Secretaries to the Government. There are three Superintending Engineers for Buildings and Roads and two for Irrigation. The Province is well served by a network of roads, some of which have been constructed as famine relief works. In a number of cases these roads are not fully bridged and are, therefore, impassable to traffic at times during the rains. During the last 13 years Government has been pursuing a policy of transfer of certain State roads of local importance and buildings situated thereon to the District Councils for maintenance and up to date 1,190 miles of metalled and 820 miles of unmetalled roads have been transferred.

State Irrigation was introduced early in the present century mainly as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Commission (1901-05). The Irrigation Branch of the department was separated from the Roads and Buildings Branch in 1920. During the last thirty one years a sum of about Rs 7 crores has been expended on the construction of irrigation works, of which the more important are the Winganga, Tandula, Mahanadi, Kharung and Manjari projects.

Three works, viz., the Mahanadi and Wainanga Canals and the Asola Mendha tank, were originally sanctioned as productive works and the remainder were all sanctioned as unproductive works. The three works sanctioned as productive have all failed to justify their classification in this category and have now been transferred to the unproductive list. The conditions in the province are such that irrigation works cannot be expected to be productive and their construction is justified only on account of their value as a protection

against famine. The normal area of annual irrigation is at present about 400,000 acres, and the income from these works is somewhat less than the expenditure incurred on their maintenance and management.

Police

The police force was constituted on its present basis on the formation of the Province, the whole of which including the Cantonnments and the Municipalities, is under one force. The strength is equal to one man per nine square miles of area. The superior officers comprise an Inspector General, whose jurisdiction extends over Berar three Deputy Inspectors-General, for assistance in the administrative control and supervision of the Police force, including the Criminal Investigation Department, and the usual cadre of District Superintendents of Police, Assistant and Deputy Superintendents and subordinate officers. On railways special Railway Police are employed under the control of two Superintendents of Railway Police with headquarters at Balpur and Hoshangabad. A Special Armed Force of 870 men is distributed over the headquarters of eight districts, for use in dealing with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. There is a small force of Mounted Police. The Central Provinces has no rural police as the term is understood in other parts of India. The village watchman is the subordinate of the village headman and not a police official and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect.

Education

The Education Department of the Central Provinces and Berar is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, a Deputy Director, five Inspectors and two Inspectresses who in their turn are assisted by eight Assistant Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectresses. An Agency Inspector supervises the schools in the central provinces States. Schools are divided into schools for general education and schools for special education. The latter are schools in which instruction is given in a special branch of technical or professional education. The main divisions of schools for general education is into Primary and Secondary. In the Primary Schools the teaching is conducted wholly in the vernacular and these schools are known as Vernacular Schools. The Secondary Schools are divided into Middle and High Schools. The former may be either Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given wholly in the vernacular, or Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given both in English and the vernacular. In the High School classes instruction until recently was given in English but the vernacular was adopted as the medium of instruction at the beginning of the school year 1922-23. For the convenience of pupils whose mother tongue is not a recognized vernacular of the locality a few English medium classes are still maintained. For administrative purposes schools are further divided according to their management into schools under public management and schools controlled by private bodies. The former consist of (a) schools controlled by Government and (b) schools controlled by Local Bodies or Boards. The latter consist

of (a) Schools which are aided by grant from Government or from Local Funds and Municipal Funds and (b) unaided schools. All schools under public management, all aided schools and all unaided recognized schools conform in their courses of study to the standards prescribed by the Education Department or by the High School Education Board. They are subject to inspection by the Department and to the general rules governing schools of this type. They are recognised by the Department and their pupils may appear as candidates for any prescribed examination for which they are otherwise eligible. Unaided recognized schools do not follow the rules of the Department, nor are they subject to inspection by the Department. They are mostly indigenous schools which have been too recently opened to have acquired recognition. Their pupils may not appear as candidates at any of the prescribed examinations without the previous sanction of the Department.

The inspection and administration of Board Vernacular schools transferred as an experimental measure, to the District Councils at Bhausa, Balaghat, Amroht and Hoshangabad, were retransferred to Government with effect from the 1st September 1923.

The Primary Education Bill which was passed by the Local Legislative Council in March 1920 marks an important stage by giving Local Bodies power to introduce compulsory education in the areas under their jurisdictions.

Higher education is at present given in five colleges. In Nagpur Morris College teaches up to the M.A. standard in Arts. Hilsop College is affiliated up to the M.A. standard in Arts. The College of Science teaches up to the M.Sc. standard in Science. In Jubbulpore Robertson College teaches up to the B.A. and B.Sc. standards. The King Edward College teaches up to the B.A. degree in Arts and the Intermediate degree in Science. The province contains also a Teachers Training College at Jubbulpore and Normal Schools at different centres, and an Engineering School at Nagpur. There is a Technical Institute at Amroht which is controlled by the Department of Industries. There is also an Agricultural College at Nagpur under the Department of Agriculture.

Collegiate Education is under the control of the University of Nagpur to which the colleges of the province are affiliated. The University was established by the Nagpur University Act of 1923. A University Law College has been established at Nagpur with effect from the 1st July 1923.

As a corollary to the Central Provinces University Act the Central Provinces High School Education Bill was passed in 1923 on the lines of the United Provinces Intermediate and High School Education Act. Its aim is to free the High Schools of the Province from the control of the University and from this point of view to substitute for the University a Board of Secondary Education for the regulation and control of Secondary Education. In order,

however that the connection between Secondary and University Education may still be maintained the Bill provides that one-third of the members of the Board will be drawn from men experienced in university affairs and that of this, one-third not less than two-thirds shall be teachers in the University or in colleges affiliated thereto. At the same time teachers engaged in school work are also represented on the Board.

Medical

The medical and sanitary services of the province are respectively controlled by an Inspector General of Civil Hospitals and a Director of Public Health. The medical department has made much progress since the year 1911. A striking advance has been made in recent years with urban sanitation and the opening of a Medical School at Nagpur. The principal medical institutions are the Mayo Hospital at Nagpur, opened in 1874, with accommodation for 217 inpatients, the Victoria Hospital at Jubbulpore, opened in 1886, and accommodation for 106 inpatients, the Lady Dufferin Hospital and the Mure Memorial Hospital at Nagpur and the Lady Elgin Hospital and the Crump Children's Hospital at Jubbulpore these last four being for women and children and containing together accommodation for 190 inpatients. Two important hospitals for women have been recently opened at Chhindwara and Khawda and at all district headquarters where no separate women's hospitals exist, sections of the Main Hospitals have been opened for the treatment of women by women. The Mayo Hospital, Nagpur was provincialised in 1923, the Main Hospital at Amroht in 1925 the Victoria Hospital at Jubbulpore in 1928, and the Main Hospital at Raipur in 1928. In accordance with recent policy, 117 out of 177 local fund dispensaries have been transferred to the administrative and executive control of local bodies. The Province has one Mental Hospital at Nagpur. Vaccination is compulsory in nearly all Municipal towns to which the Vaccination Act has been extended. The Government in 1913, sanctioned the opening of peripatetic dispensaries in unhealthy areas. There are at present 43 such dispensaries. A school for training health workers has been started at Nagpur and 48 Infant Welfare Centres have been opened. A start in the direction of opening a Health Institute has been made with the initiation of chemical and bacteriological works with a small staff in Nagpur.

Finances

The budget presented this year was a progressive one. Its success was in no small measure due to the cautious and skilful handling of the provincial finances in the post-reform period by successive finance members. The willingness of the Council to submit to new taxation during the depressing days of 1923 was another factor that tended to maintain the equilibrium of the finances. The shadow of famine brooded over the northern districts in the provinces in the current year, but Government lost no time in extending relief on a lavish scale, with the result that the outlook is more hopeful.

FINANCES OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1930-31.

<i>Principal Heads of Revenue</i>		Rs
Taxes on Income		1,80,000
Land Revenue		2,41,10,000
Excise		1,25,00,000
Stamps		72,00,000
Forest		61,10,000
Registration		7,30,000
	Total	5,09,30,000
<i>Irrigation.</i>		Rs.
Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept		—2,35,000
Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept		1,48,000
	Total	1,39,000
<i>Debt Services.</i>		
Interest		4,63,000
<i>Civil Administration</i>		
Administration of Justice		5,40,000
Jails and Convict Settlements		3,50,000
Police		62,000
Education		6,05,000
Medical		71,000
Public Health		50,000
Agriculture		4,23,000
Industries		55,000
Miscellaneous Departments		2,61,000
	Total	24,37,000
<i>Civil Works</i>		
Civil Works		5,15,000
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund		5,00,000
Receipts in aid of Superannuation		1,11,000
Stationery and Printing		68,000
Miscellaneous		6,50,000
	Total	13,29,000
<i>Extraordinary Items</i>		
Extraordinary receipts		77,000
Total Provincial Revenue		5,56,10,000
<i>Debt Heads.</i>		
Deposits and Advances—Famine Relief Fund		11,04,000
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund		
Appropriations for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt		3,37,000
Sinking Fund for loans granted to Local Bodies		400
Depreciation Fund for Forest Tramway		28,000
Depreciation Fund for Government Press		40,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments		27,14,400
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Government of India		68,37,000
	Total Revenue and Receipts	6,66,71,000
Opening balance { Ordinary		31,400
Famine Relief Fund		45,00,000
	Grand Total	7,12,02,400

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1930-31

Direct Demands on the Revenue.

	Rs
Land Revenue	31,31,131
Excise	12,03,800
Stamps	2,97,800
Forest	44 14,999
Registration	2,38,000
Total	52,98,930

Irrigation

Revenue Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works—

Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	28 17,000
Other Revenue expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	2,86,999
Total	31,03,999

Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works charged to Revenue—

Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works.—

A.—Financed from Famine Insurance Grants

B.—Financed from Ordinary Revenue

	60 000
Total	60,000

Debt Service

Interest on Ordinary Debt	—3 02,000
Interest on other obligation	61,000
Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	3,37,000
Total	—98,000

Civil Administration

General Administration Reserved	72,45,553
Do. Transferred	98 000
Administration of Justice	33,27,799
Jails and Convict Settlements	10,70,078
Police	63 56,908
Scientific Departments	18,000
Education —	
Reserved	1,41,521
Transferred	61,58,330
Medical	18,73,240
Public Health	5 48,040
Agriculture	20,39,600
Industries—	
Reserved	27,000
Transferred	3,13,040
Miscellaneous Departments—	
Reserved	1,78 540
Total	2,91,97,334

<i>Civil Works</i>		
Civil Works—		Rs
Reserved		78,900
Transferred		86 80,600
	Total	87,88 500
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Famine		5 00,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions		27,48 680
Stationery and Printing—		
Reserved		6 66,520
Transferred		23 000
Miscellaneous—		
Reserved		1 64,120
Transferred		8,38 031
	Total	49 35,310
For rounding		× 240
Total Provincial Expenditure		5 54,31,623
Capital account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, Drainage and other Works not charged to Revenue—		
Forest Capital outlay		71,000
Construction of Irrigation Works		23 32,000
Civil Works not charged to Revenue		11 00 000
Miscellaneous—Capital outlay not charged to Revenue—		
Commuted Value of Pensions		10,00,000
	Total	45,08,000
<i>Debt Heads</i>		
Deposits and Advances—		
Famine Relief Fund		5 00 000
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund		7,93 000
Depreciation Fund for Government Treasuries		20,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government		21,69,000
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Government of India		14,79,000
Total Expenditure and Disbursements		5,48,91 623
Closing balance { Ordinary		12 03,777
Famine Relief Fund		51,04 000
Grand Total		7,12,02,400
Surplus		+1,78,877

The Central Provinces and Berar

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GOVERNOR,
His Excellency Sir Montagu Butler Kt KCSI
CB CIE CVO CMLC ICS

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL
The Hon ble Mr Shripad Bahadur Tambe
B.A., LL.B.

The Hon ble Sir Arthur Edward Nelson M.A.
(Oxon) Kt CIE CBE, ICS

MINISTERS
The Hon ble Dr P. S. D. Shmuhh
The Hon ble Mr G. L. Jaiswal B.Sc. LL.B.

SECRETARIAT
Chief Secretary Sir Charnion Gowan B.A.
CIE CVO ICS

Financial Secretary Alexander McDonald ICS

Revenue Secretary P. J. H. Went ICS

Settlement Secretary C. J. Waterfall ICS

Legal Secretary L. I. Follick ICS

Education Secretary C. E. W. Jones M.A. CIT

Secretary Public Works Department (Buildings
and Roads Branch) J. A. Baker CIP

Secretary Public Works Department (Irrigation
Branch) Col H. de L. Pollard ICS (M.C.)

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS
(Commissioner of Settlements Director of Land
Records Registrar General of Births Deaths
and Marriages and Inspector General of Im-
migration) H. C. Greenfield ICS

Chief Conservator of Forests C. A. Malcolm

Fire Commissioner and Superintendent of
Stamp, T. C. S. Jajamdhari ICS

Commissioner of Income Tax Khan Bahadur
Wah Muhammad B.A.

Postmaster General Syed Miaz Quth M.A. ICS

Assistant General K. E. S. Rau B.A.

Deputy Commissioner B. H. Macnaghten

Inspector General of Prisons Inspector
Colonel William Jackson Powell B.A. M.C.

Inspector General of Police Thomas Henry
Morony OIF

Director of Public Instruction C. L. W. Jones
OIF M.A.

Lord Bishop The Right Reverend Alex. Wood
M.A. OBE

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals Col W. V.
Coppinger M.D. F.R.C.S.

Director of Public Health Lt. Col A. J. H. Punsell
M.A. M.D. ICS

Political Agent Central Provinces Feudatory States
D. H. C. Drake ICS

Director of Agriculture, Francis Joseph Plymon,
A.C.S.I.

Director of Veterinary Service Major R. F.
Stirling F.R.C.V.S.

Director of Industries and Registrar Co-operative
Societies, B. N. Banerji, M.A.

CHIEF COMMISSIONERS
Colonel E. K. Elliot 1860
Lieut. Colonel J. K. Spence (Officiating) 1862
R. Temple (Officiating) 1862
Colonel E. K. Elliot 1863
J. S. Campbell (Officiating) 1864
R. Temple 1864
J. S. Campbell (Officiating) 1865
R. Temple 1865
J. H. Morris (Officiating) 1867
F. Campbell 1867
J. H. Morris (Officiating) 1868

Confirmed 27th May 1870
Colonel R. H. Keatinge V.C. C.S.I. (Off.) 1870
J. H. Morris C.S.I. 1872
C. Grant (Officiating) 1879
J. H. Morris C.S.I. 1879
W. B. Jones C.S.I. 1883
C. H. T. (Northwalke) (Officiating) 1884
(confirmed 12th January 1884)
D. Fitzpatrick (Officiating) 1885
J. W. Neill (Officiating) 1887
A. Mackenzie C.S.I. 1887
R. J. (Northwalke) (Officiating) 1889
Until 10 October 1899
J. W. Neill (Officiating) 1890
A. P. MacDonell C.S.I. 1892
J. Woodburn C.S.I. (Officiating) 1893
Confirmed 1st December 1893
Sir O. J. Lyle C.S.I. K.O.I.F. 1895
The Hon ble Mr D. C. J. Linton C.S.I. 1898
Sir A. H. L. Fraser K.C.S.I.
(Officiating) 1899
Confirmed 6th March 1902
The Hon ble Mr J. P. Hewitt C.S.I. OIF 1902
(Officiating)
Confirmed 2nd November 1903
The Hon ble Mr F. S. P. Lely C.S.I. K.O.I.F. 1904
(Officiating)
Confirmed 23rd Dec 1904
The Hon ble Mr J. O. Miller C.S.I. 1905
S. J. May C.S.I. (Officiating) 1906
Until 21st October 1906
A. F. T. Phillips (Officiating) 1907
Until 24th March 1907 Also from 20th
May to 21st November 1909
The Hon ble Sir B. H. Craddock K.O.B.I. 1907
Mr H. A. Crump C.S.I. 1912
Sub pro tem from 26th January 1912
to 16th February
The Hon ble Mr W. Fox Strangways C.S.I.,
(Sub pro tem) 1912
The Hon ble Sir B. Robertson K.O.S.I. C.I.F. 1912
" Mr Crump C.S.I. (Officiating) 1914
Sir B. Robertson K.O.S.I. 1914
" Sir Frank George Sly K.C.S.I.,
I.C.S. 1919

GOVERNORS
H. E. Sir Frank Sly, K.O.S.I. 1920
H. L. Sir Montagu Butler Kt C.B., C.I.F.
C.I.O., C.B.E. 1920

CENTRAL PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT

The Hon ble Sir Shankarrao Madhoo Chitnavis Kt. L.S.O.

EX OFFICIO MEMBERS

The Hon'ble Sir Arthur Edward Nelson Kt, C.I.E. C.B.E. I.C.S. Member of the Executive Council

The Hon ble Mr E. Baghavendra Rao Barrister-at Law Member of the Executive Council.

NOMINATED MEMBERS

Officials

Mr Hyde Clarendon Gowan, C.I.E. V.D. I.C.S., J.P. Chief Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces

Mr Eyre Gordon I.C.S. J.P. Joint Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces

Mr Geoffrey Pownall Burton, I.C.S. Commissioner of Excise, Central Provinces

Mr Noel James Roughton, I.C.S., J.P. Financial Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces

Mr Frederick Louis Grille I.C.S. J.P. Barrister at Law Legal Remembrancer Legal and Judicial Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces (*Secretary to the Council*)

Mr Rambhadr Nath Banerjee I.C.S. Registrar (Co-operative Societies and Director of Industries Central Provinces Nagpur)

Mr Charles Evans William Jones, C.I.E. I.E.S. Director of Public Instruction and Secretary in the Education Department to the Government of the Central Provinces

Col H de L. Pollard Lowalee C.M.G. C.I.E. D.S.O. Chief Engineer (Irrigation) and Secretary in the Public Works Department (Irrigation) to the Government of the Central Provinces

Non officials

Mr Lalman Singh Zamindar of Matin, Post Office Pasan District Bilaspur (Inhabitants of *Zamindari and Jagirdari Estates*)

The Revd G C Rogers, M.A. Head Master Christ Church School Jabulpore (*European and Anglo-Indian Communities*)

Mr G A. Caval Mal Tekdi Road Amraoti

Mr T C. Sakhar, Gaddigudam, Nagpur

Mr S G Nalk Superintendent of the Chokhamela Hostel Amraoti

Guru Gossain Agamdas Mahanagar of Mouza Bandi P O Kharora Tashli

Rajpur District Rajpur (T O Noora)

} *Depressed Classes*

Mr B W Fulay M.A. LL.B. Walker Road Nagpur City (Urban Factory Labourers)

Mrs Ramabai Tambe B.A. near Maharsajbag Club Nagpur

ELECTED MEMBERS

A—Members elected from the Central Provinces

Name.	Constituency
Mr Balraj Jaiswara	Jubbulpore City, Non Muhammadan (Urban)
Mr Daduram	Jubbulpore Division (Urban)
Mr Badri Prasad Pujari	Chhattisgarh Division (Urban)
Mr Chunnu	Kerwadda Division (Urban)
Mr C B Parakh	Nagpur City cum Kamptee
Lala Jahnarain	Do do
Mr T J Kedar	Nagpur Division (Urban)
Mr Sheoprasad Pandey	Jubbulpore District (South) Non Muhammadan (Rural)

Name	Constituency.
Pandit Kashi Prasad Panda	Jubbulpore District (North)
Mr Gokulchand Singh	Damoh District
Mr Dulchand	Saugor District
Rai Sahib Dadu Dwarkanath Singh	Betul District
(Moudhari Malkhulal	Mandla District
Mr Waman Yado Deshmukh	Raipur District (North)
Mr Anjore Rao Kurdutt	Raipur District (South)
Pandit Bamsenchi Gaurhi	Bilaspur District
Khan Sahib B F Tarapore	Drug District
The Hon ble Mr Gajadhar Prasad Janwal	Hoshangabad District
Mr Gopalrao Rambhau Joshi	Narmar District
Mr Arjunlal	Narainpur District
Mr Seth Sheolal	Chhindwara District
Mr K. M. Dharmadhikari	Betul District
Mr Ganpat Rao Shanker Rao Deshmukh	Nagpur District (West)
Rao Bahadur K. S. Nayudu	Wardha District
Mr R. V. Dube	Chanda District
Mr Vinayak Damodar Kolte	Bhandara District
Khan Bahadur M. M. Wullia	Balaghat District
Mr Itikhar Ali	Jubbulpore Division (Rural) Muhammadan (Rural)
Mr Abdus Salam	Chhattisgarh Division (Rural)
Mr Syed Hifaz Ali	Aerbudha Division (Rural)
Mr Mahomed Yusef Sharief	Nagpur Division (Rural)
Benhar Gulab Singh	Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders Special Constituencies
The Hon ble Sir Shankarrao Madhwarao Chitambar	Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Landholders
Kt. Iso (President)	Nagpur University
Mr D. T. Mangalmoorti	Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association
Mr L. H. Barthitt	Central Provinces Commerce and Industry
Mr Thakurdas Govindhadas	

B—Members from Berar nominated after election

Mr Vishal Bhandari Chabab	East Berar (Municipal) Non Muhammadan (Urban)
Mr B. A. Kandlikar	West Berar (Municipal)
The Hon ble Dr Panjabrao Shamrao Deshmukh	Amraoti (Central) Non Muhammadan (Rural)
Mr Motiram Bajirao Triako	Amraoti (East)
Rao Sahib Uttamrao Sitaramji Patil	Amraoti (West)
Mr Sridhar Govind Sengal	Akola (East)
Mr Nandao Badamdeo Patil	Akola (North West)
Mr Yash Dinkarrao Dharrao Rajurkar	Akola (South)
Mr Laxay Madhav Kale	Budana (Central)
Mr Tukaram Shanker Patil	Buldana (Malkapur and Jalgaon)
Mr Mahadeo Palkaji Kolhe	Yestmal (East)
Mr Ganpat Sitaram Malvi	Yestmal (West)
Mr Syed Mobinur Rahman	Berar (Municipal) Muhammadan (Urban)
Mr Muzaffer Hussain (Deputy President)	East Berar (Rural), Muhammadan (Rural)
Khan Bahadur Mirza Baham Beg	West Berar (Rural)
Mr Balkrishna Ganesh Khatwade	Berar Landholders, Special Constituencies
Rao Bahadur Gajanan Ramchandra Kothare	Berar Commerce and Industry

North-West Frontier Province.

The North West Frontier Province, as its name denotes, is situated on the north-west frontier of the Indian Empire. It is in form an irregular strip of country lying north by east and south by west and may generally be described as the tract of country, north of Baluchistan, lying between the Indus and the Durand boundary line with Afghanistan. To the north it extends to the mountains of the Hindu Kush. From this range a long broken line of mountains runs almost due south, dividing the province from Afghanistan, until the Sulaiman Range eventually closes the south of the Province from Baluchistan. The greatest length of the province is 408 miles, its greatest breadth 276 miles and its total area about 39,000 square miles. The territory falls into three main geographical divisions: the Cis-Indus district of Hazara, the narrow strip between the Indus and the Hills, containing the Districts of Peshawar, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan, and the rugged mountainous regions on the north and west between those districts and the border line of Afghanistan. Hazara and the four districts in the second division contain 18,419 square miles. The mountain regions north and west are occupied by tribes subject only to the political control of the Chief Commissioner in his capacity as Agent to the Governor-General. The area of this tract is roughly 25,500 square miles and in it are situated, from north to south, the political agencies severally known as the Malakand, Khyber, Kurram, North Waziristan and South Waziristan Agencies. Each of the Deputy Commissioners of the five administered districts is responsible for the management of political relations with certain tribes or sections of the tribes across the frontier. A few hundred miles of the trans-border Territory are internally administered by the Political Agents, but the bulk of the trans-border population is free from any internal interference, so long as offences are not committed and so long as the tribes observe the conditions on which allowances are paid to many of them.

The area of the Province is a little more than half that of Bombay (excluding Sind and Aden) and amounts to more than three-fifths of the size of England without Wales. The density of population throughout the Province equals 130 persons to a square mile, but in the more favoured portions the pressure of population is much greater. In the Hazara District there are 208 persons to a square mile and in the trans-Indus plains tract the number is 156. The key to the history of the people of the N.-W. F. lies in the recognition of the fact that the valley of Peshawar was always more closely connected politically with Eastern Iran than with India, though in pre-Mahomedan times its population was mainly Indian by race. Early history finds the Iranians dominating the whole Indus valley. Then came the Greek invasion under Alexander the Great, in B.C. 327, then the invasions of the Sakas, and of the White Huns and later the two great waves of Muhammadan invasion. Last came the Sikh invasion beginning in

1818. The Frontier Territory was annexed by the British in 1849 and placed under the control of the Punjab Government. Frequent warfare occurred with the border tribes. The most serious phases of these disturbances were the war provoked by the aggression of Afghanistan in 1919 and the protracted punitive operations against the Waziris in 1919-1920. These have resulted in the establishment at Rawalakot, a position dominating the Mahsud Waziri country, of a permanent garrison of 10,000 troops drawn mostly from stations lying in the Plains immediately below the hills. A circular road from Bannu through Rawalakot to Sarangdha, Jandola and back to the Derajat provides communications transport with this force and facilitates its mobility. The effect of this measure has been a marked improvement in the internal peace of the Tribal area.

The division of the Frontier Province from the Punjab has frequently been discussed, with the double object, in the earlier stages of these debates of securing closer and more immediate control and supervision of the Frontiers by the Supreme Government and of making such alterations in the personnel and duties of frontier officials as would tend to the establishment of improved relations between the local British representatives and the independent tribesmen. The province was eventually removed from the control of the Punjab administration in 1901. To it was added the political charge of Dir, Swat and Chitral, the Political Agent of which had never been subordinate to the Punjab. The new Province was constituted under a Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General, with headquarters at Peshawar, in direct communication with the Government of India in the Foreign and Political Department. In political questions there is no intermediary between the Chief Commissioner and the local officer, an arrangement designed to secure both prompt disposal of references and the utilization of the expert knowledge of frontier conditions for which the head of the administration is selected. The advisability of re-uniting the Province with the Punjab was much discussed in certain Indian political circles and as a result of the views expressed upon the matter in the Legislative Assembly the Government of India in 1922 appointed a Committee of officials and unofficals to investigate it. The Committee, presided over by Mr. D. de R. Bray, M.L.A., Joint Foreign Secretary, toured the Frontier Province and the Punjab and heard numerous witnesses. Its members were Messrs. Bhai Ali, M.O.S., T. Rangachari, Chaudhri Shaha Buddin, N. M. Samarth and K. B. Abdur Rahim Khan, members of the Legislative Assembly, H. N. Bolton, I.O.S. (Foreign Dept.) and A. H. Parker, I.O.S. (Punjab) (members). The inquiry developed practically into a contest between Mahomedans and Hindus on communal lines. The Hindus, allied in sympathy with their co-religionists in the Punjab, demanded the reunion of the administered districts of the Province with the Punjab or, if that were not attainable, then the placing of the judicial

administration of the Province under the Punjab High Court at Lahore. The Mahomedans on the other hand claimed the right of their Province to a status corresponding with that enjoyed by other Provinces of India and to immediate reforms initiating and providing for progress along that line. The Hindus agreed that a separate Pathan Province on the Frontier would cause a dangerous sentimental division from the rest of India, with leanings towards the allied racial elements outside British India. The answer to that was that a contented Pathan Province would be a valuable buttress against hostile feelings across the Border. The Committee's deliberations ended in disagreement, the two Hindu members writing each a separate report favouring the Hindu viewpoint already explained, and the majority of the Committee, comprised of all its other members, recommending advance on a Provincial basis. Their principal recommendations were for—

Retention of the Settled Districts and Tribal Tracts as a separate unit in charge of a minor administration under the Government of India,

Early creation of a Legislative Council for the Settled Districts and appointment of Member of Council and Minister,

Appointment of a second Judicial Commission which has since been sanctioned and reform of the judicial administration in various directions, including interchange of officers with the Punjab so that the members of the Service in the smaller Province should have the advantage of experience in the larger one.

If (concluded the Majority) the Pathan nationality is allowed self-determination and given scope for that self-development within the Indian Empire under the Reforms Scheme after which it is now striving we are assured that with a contented Frontier population India can face with calm resolution the future that the Frontier has in store for her."

The People.

The total population of the N-W-F-P (1921) is 5,075,476, made up as follows—

Hasara	622,349
Trans-Indus Districts	1,628,061
Trans-Border Area	2,825,136

This last figure is estimated. There are only 561 3 females per 1,000 males in the towns and 872 2 females per 1,000 males in rural areas.

This disproportion of the sexes cannot at present be explained in the N-W-F-P any more than in other parts of Northern India—here it also appears. The discrepancy is greater here than in any other Province of India. There is no ground for believing that the neglect of girls in infancy has any effect in causing the phenomenon. On the other hand, the female population has to face many trials which are unknown to men. The evils of unskilled midwifery and early marriage are among them.

Both the birth and death-rates of the Province are abnormally low. The birth rate in the administered districts, according to the last available official reports, is 80.8 and the death rate 23.7.

The dominant language of the Province is Pashtu and the population contains several linguistic strata. The most important sections of the population, both numerically and by social position, are the Pathans. They own a very large proportion of the land in the administered districts and are the ruling race of the tribal areas to the west. There is a long list of Pathan, Baluch, Rajput and other tribal divisions. Gurkhas have recently settled in the Province. The Mahomedan tribes constitute almost the whole population, Hindus amounting to only 5 per cent of the total and Sikhs to a few thousands. The occupational cleavage of the population contrasts ethnical divisions.

Under the North-West Frontier Province Law and Justice Regulation of 1901, custom governs all questions regarding successions, betrothal, marriage, divorce, the separate property of women, dower, wills, gifts, partitions, family relations such as adoption and guardianship, and religious usages and institutions, provided that the custom be not contrary to justice, equity or good conscience. In these matters the Mahomedan or Hindu law is applied only in the absence of special custom.

Climate, Flora and Fauna.

The climatic conditions of the N.W.F.P. which is mainly the mountainous region but includes the Peshawar Valley and the riverine tracts of the Indus in Dera Ismail Khan District, are extremely diversified. The latter district is one of the hottest areas of the Indian continent, while on the mountain ranges the weather is temperate in summer and intensely cold in winter. The air is generally dry and hence the annual ranges of temperature are frequently very large. The Province has two wet seasons, one the S.W. Monsoon season, when moisture is brought up from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, the other in winter, when storms from Mesopotamia, Persia and the Caspian Districts bring widespread rain and snowfall. Both sources of supply are precarious and not infrequently either the winter or the summer rainfall fails almost entirely. The following description of the Damian, the high ground above the Indus, stretching across Dera Ismail Khan to the mountains on the west, occurs in an account written some years ago by Captain Croft Waite. Men drink once a day and the cattle every second day. Washing is an impossible luxury.

It is possible to sit in the hot weather to ride thirty miles and neither hear a dog bark nor see the smoke of a single fire. With the exception of the Kunhar River, in Hasara, which flows into the Jhelum, the whole territory drains into the Indus. The flora of the Province varies from the shrubby jungle of the south-eastern plains to barren hills, pine forests and fertile mountain valleys. Tigers used to abound in the forests but are

now quite extinct, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals and foxes are the chief carnivora. Bears, deer and monkeys are found, a great variety of fish is caught in the Indus.

The mountain scenery is often magnificent. The frontier ranges contain many notable peaks of which the following are the principal.—

Takht-i-Sulaiman, Sulaiman Range, in Dera Ismail Khan, 11,592 feet

Pre Ghal, Sulaiman Range, in Mahsud Waziristan, 11,583 feet

Sika Ram, in the Safed Koh, in the Kurram Agency, 15,621 feet

Kagan Peaks of the Himalayas, in the Hazara District, 10,000 to 16,700 feet.

Istragh Peak (18,900 ft.), Kachin Peak (23,641 ft.) Tirich Mir (25,426 ft.), all in the Hindu Kush on the northern border of Chitral Agency

Trade and Occupations.

The population derives its subsistence almost wholly from agriculture. The Province is practically without manufactures. There is no considerable surplus of commercial products for export. Any commercial importance which the Province possesses it owes to the fact that it lies across the great trade routes which connect the trans-border tribal territories and the marts of Afghanistan and Central Asia with India, but the influence of railways is diminishing the importance of these trading interests. Special mention may be made of the railway comparatively recently opened linking Baluchistan, in the south-west of the N. W. F. P., via Nushki with south-east Persia. The line connects with the north-west railway system of India and extends 343 miles to Durdag, within the Persian border. Two weekly trains run each way and the freight carried largely consists of carpets, wool and dates, from Persia and of tea, sugar and piece-goods from the Indian side. Though the railway is primarily strategic in purpose its commercial and political effects will be considerable. The travelling traders (or *Powin dahi*) from the trans-frontier area have always pursued their wanderings into India and now, instead of doing their trading in towns near the border, carry it by train to the large cities in India. The Railway line from Pir to Lankitabana which is complete and open to public traffic now will similarly in course of time, develop both the manner and amount of transport communications and trade. The new roads in Waziristan are already largely utilised by the Tribal inhabitants for motor traffic. Prices of agricultural produce have in recent years been high, but the agriculturists, owing to the poverty of the means of communication, have to some extent been deprived of access to Indian markets and have therefore been unable to profit by the rates prevailing. On the other hand, high prices are a hardship to the non-agricultural classes. The effects of recent extensions of irrigation have been important. Land tenures are generally the same in the British administered districts as in the Punjab. The cultivated area of the land amounts to 26 per cent. and uncultivated to 75 per cent.

The work of civilisation is now making steady progress, both by the improvement of communications and otherwise. Relations with the tribes have improved, trade has advanced, free medical relief has been vastly extended, police administration has been reformed and the desire of people for education has been judiciously and sympathetically fostered, though in this respect there is complaint against the limitations imposed by financial embarrasments. In the British administered districts 19 per cent. males and 7 per cent. females of the total population are returned as literate. The figures for males denote a very narrow diffusion of education even for India. Those for females are not notably low, but they are largely affected by the high literacy amongst Sikh women, of whom 13.3 per cent are returned as literate. The inauguration of a system of light railways throughout the Province, apart from all considerations of strategy, must materially improve the condition of the people and also by that means strengthen the hold of the administration over them. The great engineering project of the Upper Swat River Canal, which was completed in 1914, and the lesser work of the Foharpur Canal, also completed a few years ago, will bring ease and prosperity to a number of peasant homes.

Administration

The administration of the North West Frontier Province is conducted by the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General in Council. His staff consists of—

- (1) Officers of the Political Department of the Government of India.
- (2) Members of the Provincial Civil Service.
- (3) Members of the Subordinate Civil Service.
- (4) Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police.
- (5) Officers recruited for the service of departments requiring special knowledge—Military, Engineering, Education, Medicine and Forestry.

The cadre posts reserved for officers coming under the first head above are —

Administration	Chief Commissioner & Agent to the Governor-General	5
	Secretary	
	Under-Secretary	
	Personal Assistant	
	Revenue Commissioner and Revenue Secretary	
	Resident in Waziristan	1
	Deputy Commissioners	
	Political Agents	5
	District Judges	2
	Assistant Commissioners and Assistant Political Agents	13
Judicial Commissioner's Court & Divisional Judges.	Two Judicial Commissioners.	1
	Two Divisional and Sessions Judges.	
	One Additional District Judge.	

The districts under the Deputy Commissioners are divided into from two to five sub-collectorates, in charge of tahsildars, who are invested with criminal and civil and revenue powers, and are assisted by sub-tahsildars, who exercise only criminal and revenue powers. Some sub-divisions are in charge of Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners. The village community characteristic of some parts of India is not indigenous among the Pathans. Its place as a social unit is to some extent taken by the tribe, which is held together by the ties of kinship and ancient ancestry real or imaginary. Modern municipal local government has been introduced in the towns. There are also district boards. The district is the unit for police, medical and educational administration and the ordinary staff includes a District Superintendent of Police, a Civil Surgeon, the Superintendent of Jail and a District Inspector of Schools. The Province forms a single educational circle and only possesses one forest division, that of Hazara. There are four divisions of the Roads and Buildings Branch of the Public Works Department, each under an Executive Engineer. The Irrigation Department of the P. W. D. is in charge of a Chief Engineer, Irrigation who is also *ex-officio* Secretary to the Chief Commissioner. The administration of the civil police force of the districts is vested in an Inspector-General. There is a special force of Frontier Constabulary. The revenue and expenditure of the Province are wholly Imperial. Of the Agencies only Kurram and Tochi Valley pay land revenue to the British Government. The revenue administration of all five administered districts is controlled by the Revenue Commissioner. For the administration of civil and criminal justice there are two Civil and Sessions divisions, each presided over by a Divisional and Sessions Judge. The two Judicial Commissioners are the controlling authority in the Judicial branch of the administration, and their Courts are the highest criminal and appellate tribunals in this Province. The improvements needed to bring the judicial administration up-to-date, in accord with the growth of the business of administration, are dealt with in the Inquiry Committee's report to which reference was made above. The principal officers in the present Administration are —

Agent to the Governor General and Chief Commissioner. The Hon'ble Sir Stewart Edmund Peary, C.B., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Assumed charge 10th May 1930).

Personal Assistant, Captain W. C. Leeper
Resident Warisatan, Lieut. Col. R. E. H. Griffith, C.I.E.

Judicial Commissioner, J. H. R. Fraser, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

Additional Judicial Commissioner, Khan Bahadur Sanduddin Khan, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue Commissioner Lieut. Col. J. A. Brett, C.I.E.

Secretary to Chief Commissioner G. H. Gidney, I.C.S.

Under Secretary to Chief Commissioner, L. G. Wallis, I.C.S.

Assistant Financial Secretary to Chief Commissioner, Rai Sahib Lala Ghun Lal

Indian Personal Assistant to Chief Commissioner, Khan Sahib Haji Gulam Asgharband Khan

Secretary Public Works Department Buildings and Roads Branch, Colonel O. H. Haswell, C.I.E., R.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, Irrigation Branch, F. H. Burkill, O.B.E.

Chief Medical Officer, Lieut. Col. C. I. Brerley, C.I.E., M.B.

Inspector General of Police J. H. Adam, O.B.E.

Commandant Frontier Constabulary V. A. Short

Director of Public Instruction J. H. Towle, I.C.S., M.A.

Superintendent, Archaeological Survey Frontier Circle J. F. Blackiston

Divisional and Sessions Judge J. Almond

Bar-at-Law I. C. S. (Peshawar)

K. B. Arbab Wali Muhammad Khan (Derajat)

Policemen Agents

B. J. Gould, C.M.S., C.I.E., I.C.S. Dir Swat and Chitral

Lieut. Col. W. A. Garstin, C.B.E., Khyber

A. D. F. Dundas, I.C.S. North Waziristan

Capt. B. F. Ross Hurst, M.C., Kurram

Brevet-Major H. H. Johnson, M.V. South Waziristan

Deputy Commissioners

A. J. Hopkinson, I.C.S. Hazara.

G. K. Caroe, I.C.S. Peshawar

L. W. Jardine, I.C.S. Dera Ismail Khan

L. W. H. Best, O.B.E., M.C., I.C.S. Kohat

Captain W. F. Campbell, Bannu

Former Chief Commissioners

Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Harold Deane, K.C.S.I., from 9th November 1901 to 3rd June 1902

Died 7th July 1908

Lieutenant-Colonel Sir George Ross-Keppel, G.C.I.E., R.O. I. from 4th June 1908 to 9th September 1919

The Hon'ble Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. from 10th September 1919 to 7th March 1921

The Hon'ble Sir John Loader Maffey, K.C.V.O., G.S.I., I.C.S., from 8th March 1921 to 6th July 1923

The Hon'ble Sir Horatio Norman Bolton, K.C.I.E., G.S.I., I.C.S., from 7th July 1923 to 30th April 1930

Assam.

The Province of Assam, omitting the partly administered and unadministered tracts on its northern and eastern borders, comprises an area of some 63,510 square miles. It includes the Assam Valley Division, the Surma Valley and Hill Division and the State of Manipur. It owes its importance to its situation on the north-east frontier of India. It is surrounded by mountainous ranges on three sides while on the fourth (the west) lies the Province of Bengal on to the plains of which debouch the two valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma which form the plains of Assam. These two valleys are separated from each other by the Assam Range, which projects westward from the hills on the eastern border.

Population

The total population of the Province in 1921 was 7,990,246, of whom 884,916 were in Manipur. Of the population in 1921, 2½ millions were Mahomedans, 4½ millions Hindus and 1½ millions Animists. 44 per cent of the population speak Bengali, 22 per cent speak Assamese other languages spoken in the province are Hindi, Urdu and a great variety of languages classified under the general heading of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Owing to the great areas of waste and rivers the density of the province is only 150, which compared with that of most other parts of India is low, but is more than double that of Burma.

Agricultural Products.

It has agricultural advantages for which it would be difficult to find a parallel in any part of India. Climate, soil, rainfall and river systems all being alike favourable to cultivation. Rice is the staple food crop, nearly 5 million acres being devoted to this crop. Except in the Himalayan Terai irrigation is unnecessary. Tea and jute are the most important crops grown for export. The area under tea consists of 429,605 acres. Wheat and tobacco are also grown and about 46 square miles are devoted to sugarcane.

Meteorological Conditions.

Rainfall is everywhere abundant, and ranges from 67 to 229 inches. The maximum is reached at Cherrapunji in the Khasi Hills which is one of the wettest places in the world, having a rainfall of 488 inches. The temperature ranges from 59 at Sibsagar in January to 84.8 in July. Earthquakes of considerable severity have taken place, by far the worst being that which occurred in 1897.

Mines and Minerals.

The only minerals in Assam worked on a commercial scale are coal, limestone and petroleum oil. The most extensive coal measures are in the Naga Hills and the Lakhimpur districts, where about 300,000 tons are raised annually. Limestone is quarried in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, in Sylhet, and in the Garo Hills. Petroleum is worked only in Lakhimpur and Cachar.

An account of the petroleum occurrences in Assam was recently published in the *memoirs*

of the Geological Survey of India. It states that the petroleum localities in this province are confined to a curved belt of country along the basins of the Brahmaputra and Surma. This belt is traceable over a distance of some 800 miles from N.E. Assam through Cachar and Chittagong to the Arakan coast, where it has a S.E. trend.

Manufactures and Trade.

Silk is manufactured in the Assam Valley, the weaving being done by the women. Cotton weaving is also largely practised by the women, and almost every house contains a loom, the cloth being gradually displaced by imported goods of finer texture and colour. Tea manufacture is the most important industry of the province. Boat building, brass and metal and earthenware, and limestone burning are the other industries apart from agriculture, which itself employs about 80 per cent of the population. Assam carries on a considerable trade with the adjoining foreign tribes and countries.

Communications.

Much of the trade of Assam is carried by river. The excellence of its water communications makes the province less dependent upon roads than other parts of India. A large fleet of steamers maintained by the India General Navigation Company and the River Steam Navigation Company ply on the rivers in both valleys. An alternate day service of passenger boats runs between Goalundo and Dibrugarh. In recent years the road system has developed. There is an unmetalled trunk road through the length of the Assam Valley and excellent metalled roads from Shillong to Gauhati and to Cherrapunji and also between Dimaapur, on the Assam Bengal Railway, and Imphal, the Capital of the Manipur State. A motor road connecting Shillong with the Surma Valley is under construction. The Government of Assam have recently launched into a large programme of road improvements. About 735 miles are to be bridged throughout and the surface improved by metalling and gravelling where possible. *Kutcha* roads will be maintained by means of mechanical plant which has proved successful in maintaining throughout the year a surface fit for motor vehicles. Motor traffic has increased on all sides and the demands for better roads has been insistent. The open mileage of railway has also shown a steady improvement and several branch lines to the Assam Bengal Railway system have been added in recent years. The main Assam Bengal Railway line runs from Chittagong Port in Bengal, through the North Cachar Hills to Tinsukia, a station on the Dibru Sadia Railway and connects the Surma and Brahmaputra valleys. A branch of the line runs from Badarpur to Sibsagar at the Eastern end of the Surma Valley and another runs through the west of the Assam Valley from Lumding to Gauhati where it effects a junction with the Eastern Bengal Railway. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects Assam with the Bengal system via the Valley of the Brahmaputra.

THE FINANCES OF ASSAM

In common with the other Provinces of India Assam secured substantial financial autonomy under the Reform Act of 1919. The present financial position is set out in the following table.—

Estimated Provincial Revenue for 1930-31 (In Thousands of Rupees.)

Taxes on Income	..	5,00
Land Revenue		1,80,31
Excise	.	63,80
Stamps	.	21,55
Forest	.	33 20
Registration	.	2,30
		<hr/>
State Railways (net)	.	
Interest		2 36
Administration of Justice		2 16
Jails and Convict Settlements		95
Police		2 10
Education		3 07
Medical		2,07
Public Health		83
Agriculture		1,45
Industries		0
Miscellaneous Departments		14
		<hr/>
Civil Works		4 56
		<hr/>
In aid of Superannuation		21
Stationery and Printing		56
Miscellaneous		1 09
		<hr/>
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments		
		<hr/>
Provincial loan account		2 23
Famine Insurance Fund	.	
Government Press—Depreciation Fund	.	—0
Loan from the Central Govt		27,50
		<hr/>
Total Receipts		8,27,52
		<hr/>
Opening Balance	.	22,38
Grand Total		8,49,90
		<hr/>

Estimated Provincial Expenditure for 1930-31

(Reserved)—		
Land Revenue		21,52
Stamps		82
Forest	.	25,04
State Railways	.	4 ^a
		<hr/>

Estimated Provincial Expenditure for 1930-31—(contd.)

(In Thousands of Rupees.)

Subsidised Companies	8
Miscellaneous Railway expenditure	2
Construction of Railways	
Navigation, Embankments and Drainage Works	1,11
Interest on ordinary debt	—77
Reduction or avoidance of debt	3
General Administration	23 43
Administration of Justice	11,58
Jails and Convict Settlements	5,44
Police	23 91
Police (Assam Rifles)	4,22
Ports and Pilotage	47
Scientific Departments	11
Education (European)	81
Miscellaneous Departments	45
Civil Works	56,46
Famine Relief and Insurance	2
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	7,63
Stationery and Printing	3,64
Miscellaneous	1 84
Contributions and assignments to the Central Government by the Provincial Government	
Outlay on Forests (Goalpara tramway side)							81
(Transferred)—							
Land Revenue	1
Excise	8 37
Registration	1,72
General Administration	1,17
Scientific Depts	1
Education (other than European)	34,20
Medical	13,82
Public Health	7,63
Agriculture	3,92
Industries	3 21
Miscellaneous Departments	2
Civil Works	6 21
Stationery and Printing	77
Miscellaneous	3,12
Payment of commuted value of pensions	69
Loans and Government Advances by Assam	8,95
Civil works not charged to revenue	27,90
Total Disbursements	2,51,19
Closing balance	18 71
Grand Total	2,69,90

Administration.

The province of Assam was originally formed in 1874 in order to relieve the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal of part of the administration of the huge territory then under him. In 1905, as the result of further deliberations, it was decided to add to the small Province of Assam the eastern portion of its unwieldy neighbour and to consolidate those territories under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam as then constituted was again broken up on the 1st of April, 1912 the Eastern Bengal Districts were united with the Bengal Commissionerships of Burdwan and the Presidency to form the Province of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council, Bihar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa were formed into a separate province, while the old Province of Assam was re-constituted under a Chief Commissioner.

Under the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 the Province was raised in status to that of administration by a Governor-in-Council and was thereby ranked, with certain minor provinces to suit its undeveloped character with the older major provinces of India.

The capital is Shillong, a town laid out with great taste and judgment among the pine woods on the slopes of the Shillong Range which rises to a height of 6,450 feet above the sea. It was destroyed in the earthquake of 1897 and has been rebuilt in a way more likely to withstand the shocks of earthquakes.

GOVERNOR

H. E. Sir Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond, K.C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The Hon'ble Maulavi Salyid Sir Muhammad Saadulla, Kt., M.A., F.R.S.

The Hon'ble Mr. A. J. Laine, C.I.E., I.C.S.

MINISTERS

The Hon'ble Maulavi Abdul Hamid, M.A.

The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Kanak Lal Barua, B.L.

PERSONAL STAFF OF HIS EXCELLENCY THE GOVERNOR

Private Secretary, Major D. O. Mansel Shewen, 15/9 Punjab Regiment

Aide-de-Camp, Lieut. N. G. Thompson, R.A., 3rd Field Battery, Meerut.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Sardar Bahadur Subadar Pokul Thapa.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Subadar-Major Nain-sing Mall.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Lieutenant-Colonel A. B. Biddow, V.D., M.V., Light Horse, Auxiliary Force.

SECRETARIES, ETC. TO GOVERNMENT

Chief Secretary, W. A. Osgraves, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government (Finance and Revenue), C. K. Rhoads, I.C.S. (offg.)

Secretary to Government (Transferred Departments), H. G. Donnelly, I.C.S. (offg.)

Under Secretary to Government, S. Gohain, M.A., B.L. (offg.)

Under Secretary (Transferred Departments), Abdul Hye Chaudhuri, B.L. (offg.)

Secretary to Government (Legislative Department) and Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council, B. N. Rau, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government in the P.W.D., B. A. Blenkinsop, I.C.S.

Offg. Secretary to Government in the P.W.D., M. Little, I.C.S.

Under Secretary, P.W.D., H. B. Burua, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, Finance and Revenue Departments, A. V. Jones, Rai Bahadur M. K. Gupta (offg.)

Registrar, Assam Secretariat (Civil), Rai Bahadur Mahendra Kumar Gupta, Srijit Bonadhar Das (Offg.)

Registrar, Assam Secretariat (P.W.D.), Mr. C. A. S. Parry, V.D.

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS.

Director of Land Records, I & Registration, etc., W. L. Scott, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Director of Industries and Registrar of Co-operative Societies & Village Authorities, I. Majid, I.C.S.

Director of Agriculture, J. N. Chakrabarti (offg.)

Superintendent, Civil Veterinary Department, W. Harris.

Conservator of Forests, Eastern Circle, J. S. O'Brien, (offg.)

Conservator of Forests, Western Circle, A. J. W. Milroy.

Commissioner of Excise, Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Assam, F. A. S. Thomas, I.C.S.

Director of Surveys, Lieut.-Col. L. C. Thullier, D.S.O., R.E.

Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Administrator General, B. N. Rau, I.C.S.

Inspector General of Police, T. P. M. O'Callaghan.

Director of Public Instruction, J. R. Cunningham, C.I.E.

Inspector General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons, Col. G. Hutchinson.

Director of Public Health, Lt. Col. T. D. Munson.

Chief Engineer, B. A. Blenkinsop.

Offg. " M. Little.

GOVERNORS

Sir Nicholas Dodd Beaton Bell, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1921.

Sir William Sinclair Macle, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1922.

Sir John Henry Kerr, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1925.

Sir William James Reid, K.C.I.E., C.I., 1925.

Sir Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1927.

ASSAM LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Maulavi Faizur Ali (President)
 The Hon'ble Maulavi Sayid Sir Muhammad Saadulla, Kt (Ex-officio)
 The Hon'ble Mr A J Loin, C.I.E., I.O.S.

Names	Constituency by which elected
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ELECTED MEMBERS

The Rev J J M Nicholas-Roy	Shillong (General Urban)
Babu Sanat Kumar Das	Silchar (Non Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Harendra Chandra Chakrabarti	Hailakandi ditto
Babu Harendra Lal Das	Sylhet Sadar ditto
Babu Kalicharan Muchi	Sunamganj ditto
Rai Bahadur Narendranath Chaudhuri	Habiganj (North) ditto
Rai Bahadur Pramoda Chandra Datta, C.I.E.	Habiganj (South) ditto
Banu Chiratan Mochi	South Sylhet ditto
Babu Sasakana Mohas Dass	Karimganj ditto
Kumar Pramathesh Chandra Barua	Dhubri ditto
Srijut Robini Kumar Chaudhuri	Gauhati ditto
Srijut Bepin Chandra Ghose	Goalpara ditto
Rai Bahadur Rajani Kanta Datta Chaudhuri	Barpeta ditto
Raj Sahib Datta Chandra Barua	Tespur ditto
Kumar Bhupendra Narain Deb	Nalgonda ditto
Srijut Brindaban Chandra Goswami	Nowgong ditto
Srijut Jogendra Nath Gohain	Sibsagar ditto
Srijut Kail Nath Bakor	Jorhat ditto
Srijut Mohendra Nath Gohain	Dibrugarh ditto
Rai Bahadur Nilambar Datta	North Lakhimpur ditto
Srijut Sarveswar Barua	Sylhet Sadr (North) (Muhammadan Rural) ditto
The Hon'ble Maulavi Abdul Hamid	Cachar ditto
Haji Idris Ali Faridkhar	Sylhet Sadr (South) ditto
Khan Bahadur (Maulavi) Dewan Abdur Halim Chaudhuri	Sunamganj ditto
Maulavi Munawar Ali	Habiganj (North) ditto
Maulavi Abdur Rahim Chaudhury	Habiganj (South) ditto
Maulavi Sayid Abdul Mannan	South Sylhet ditto
Maulavi Abdul Khaliq Chaudhury	Karimganj ditto
Maulavi Mahmud Ali	Dhubri ditto
Maulavi Abul Masid Ziaohshama	Goalpara cum South Salmara Thana ditto
Maulavi Misanar Rahman	Kamrup and Darrang cum Nowgong ditto
Eban Sahib Maulavi Nuruddin Ahmed	Sibsagar cum Lakhimpur ditto
The Hon'ble Maulavi Faizur Ali	Assam Valley Planting ditto
Lieutenant-Colonel H C Garbett, V D	Ditto
Charles H Witherington	Ditto
R. S. Roffey	Ditto
W E D Cooper	Surma Valley Planting ditto
F J Heathcote	Ditto
The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Kanak Lal Barua	Commerce and Industry

NOMINATED MEMBERS

Officials

W A Cragg
 C K Rhodes
 H G Denny

M Little
 J R Cunningham

Non-Officials

Babu Kishna Atal Bhattacharya.
 Srijut Mahendra Lal Das
 Jhan Sahib Muhammad Maahraf
 Rai Sahib Pyari Mohan Das
 Khan Bahadur Keramat Ali

Rev Ianuram Salkia, representing the Labouring Classes
 Subadar Major bardar Bahadur Janghir Lama, O.S.
 I.D.S.M., representing the inhabitants of backward tracts,

Baluchistan.

Baluchistan is an oblong stretch of country occupying the extreme western corner of the Indian Empire. It is divided into three main divisions: (1) British Baluchistan with an area of 9,476 square miles consisting of tracts assigned to the British Government by treaty in 1879; (2) Agency Territories with an area of 44,340 square miles composed of tracts which have, from time to time, been acquired by lease or otherwise brought under control and placed directly under British officers; and (3) the Native States of Kalat and Las Bela with an area of 78,434 square miles. The Province embraces an area of 1,14,648 square miles and according to the census of 1921 it contains 99,620 inhabitants.

The country, which is almost wholly mountainous, lies on a great belt of ranges connecting the Sialkot hills with the hill system of Southern Persia. It thus forms a watershed, the drainage of which enters the Indus on the east and the Arabian Sea on the south while on the north and west it makes its way to the inland lakes which form so large a feature of Central Asia. Rugged, barren, sun-burnt mountains rise by high chains and gorges, alternate with acid deserts and stony plains, the prevailing colour of which is a monotonous sight. But this is redeemed in places by level valleys of considerable size in which irrigation enables much cultivation to be carried on and rich crops of all kinds to be raised.

The political connection of the British Government with Baluchistan commenced from the outbreak of the First Afghan War in 1839. It was traversed by the Army of the Indus and was afterwards occupied until 1842 to protect the British lines of communication. The districts of Kachi, Quetta and Mastung were handed over to the Amir of Afghanistan and Political Officers were appointed to administer the country. At the close of the First Afghan War, the British withdrew and these districts were assigned to the Khan of Kalat. The founder of the Baluchistan Province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman who broke down the close border system and welded the Baluch and Brahui Clans into a close confederation. In the Afghan War of 1879 Feroz Khan, Sherard, Qabul, Sawara Valley and Thal Chotah were handed over by Yakub Khan to the British Government and returned at Sir Robert Sandeman's strenuous insistence.

Industries

Baluchistan lies outside the monsoon area and its rainfall is exceedingly irregular and scanty. Shahrug, which has the heaviest rainfall records, no more than 11½ inches in a year. In the highlands few places receive more than 10 inches and in the plains the average rainfall is about 5 inches, decreasing in some cases to 3. The majority of the indigenous population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, provision and care of animals and transport. The majority of the Afghan and the Baluch as a rule, cultivate their own lands. The Brahui dislike agriculture and prefer a pastoral life. Previous to the advent of the

British life and property were so insecure that the cultivator was fortunate if he reaped his harvest. The establishment of peace and security has been accompanied by a marked extension of agriculture which accounts for the increase in the numbers of the purely cultivating classes. The Makran Coast is famous for the quantity and quality of its fish and the industry is constantly developing. Fruit is extensively grown in the highlands and the export is increasing.

Education is imparted in 100 public schools of all kinds with 6,391 scholars. There is a distinct desire for education amongst the more enlightened headmen round about Quetta-Pishin and other centres where the Local Government with its officers stays at certain seasons such as Bibi and Zinat, but on the whole education or the desire of it has made little or no advance in the outlying districts. The mineral wealth of the Province is believed to be considerable, but cannot be exploited until railways are developed. Coal is mined at Shahrug and Harrai on the Sind-Pishin Railway and in the Bolan Pass. The output of coal in 1929-30 was 16,959 tons. Chromite is extracted in the Zhob District near Hindubagh. The chrome output fell off owing to poorer demand. Lime-stone is quarried in small quantities. The output of chromite during 1929-30 amounted to 17,906 tons.

Administration

The head of the local administration is the officer styled Agent to the Governor General and Chief Commissioner. Next in rank comes the Revenue Commissioner who controls the revenue administration and exercises the functions of a High Court as Judicial Commissioner of the Province. The keynote of administration in Baluchistan is self government by the tribesmen as far as may be, by means of their Jirgas or Councils of Elders along the ancient customary lines of tribal law, the essence of which is the satisfaction of the aggrieved and the settlement of the feud, not retaliation on the aggressor or the vindictive punishment of a crime. The district levies play an unobtrusive but invaluable part in the work of the Civil administration not only in watch and ward and the investigation of crime, but also in the carrying of the mails, the serving of process and other miscellaneous work. In addition to these district levies there are ordinarily three irregular Corps in the Province, the Zhob Militia, the Makran Levy Corps and the Chagai Levy Corps. The Province does not pay for itself and receives large subsidies from the Imperial Government.

Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner in Baluchistan. The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. C. E. Bruce, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Revenue and Judicial Commissioner, A. N. L. Carter, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary Public Works Department, Brigadier W. H. Evans, C.I.E., D.S.O., R.E.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, Captain E. E. Burnett, I.A.

Political Agent, Zhoob, Major G. L. Batham, M.C.

Political Agent, Kaint and Ba'an Pass, Lt.-Col. G. T. O. Plowden, I.A.

Political Agent and Deputy Commissioner, Quetta, Major L. T. R. Wickham, M.V.D.

Political Agent, Sub, O. P. Shroff, I.C.S.

Political Agent, Loralai, Khan Bahadur Sharbat Khan, C.I.F.

Assistant Political Agent and Assistant Commissioner, Quetta-Peshawar, Capt. L. A. G. Pinhey

Political Agent, Chagun, Lt. Col. S. Williams

Assistant Political Agent, Sub, Major H. M. Poulton

Residency Surgeon and Chief Medical Officer, Lt. Col. R. F. D. Macgregor, I.M.S.

Civil Surgeon, Sub, Major J. Williamson, I.M.S.

Civil Surgeon, Quetta, Major R. L. Vance, I.M.S.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS

This is a group of islands in the Bay of Bengal of which the headquarters are at Port Blair by sea 780 miles from Calcutta 740 miles from Madras and 380 miles from Rangoon with which ports there is regular communication.

The land area of the islands under the administration is 3,163 square miles, namely, 2,506 square miles in the Andamans and 656 square miles in the Nicobars. The total population is 26,459. The islands are administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands who is also the Superintendent of the Penal Settlement. The penal settlement, which was established in 1868, is the most important in India.

Chief Commissioner of Port Blair, Lieut.-Col. M. L. Ferrar, C.B.E., C.I.E., C.B.E., I.A.

Commandant, Military Police, Lt.-Col. G. O. Wheeler, V.C., I.A.

Senior Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon, Major A. J. D. Scum, I.M.S.

COORG.

Coorg is a small petty Province in Southern India, west of the State of Mysore. Its area is 1,588 square miles and its population 174,976. Coorg came under the direct protection of the British Government during the war with Sultan Tippu of Seringapatam. In May 1884 owing to misgovernment, it was annexed. The Province is directly under the Government of India and administered by the Chief Commissioner of Coorg who is the Resident in Mysore with his headquarters at Bangalore. In him are combined all the functions of a local government and a High Court. The Secretariat is at Bangalore where the Assistant Resident is styled Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Coorg. In Coorg his chief authority is the Commissioner whose headquarters are at Mercara and whose duties extend to every branch of the administration. A Legislative Council consisting of 15 elected members and five nominated members was created in 1923. The chief wealth of the country is agriculture and especially the growth of coffee. Although owing to over production and insect pests coffee no longer commands the profits it once enjoyed, the Indian output still holds its own against the severe competition of Brazil. The bulk of the output is exported to France.

Chief Commissioner, Coorg, The Hon. Lt.-Col. R. J. C. Burke

AJMER MERWARA.

Ajmer-Merwara is an isolated British Province in Rajputana. The Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana administers it as Chief Commissioner. The Province consists of two small separate districts, Ajmer and Merwara, with a total area of 3,711 square miles and a population of 501,395. At the close of the Pindari war Daulat Rao Scindia, by a treaty, dated June 25, 1818, ceded the district to the British. Fifty-five per cent of the population are supported by agriculture, the industrial population being principally employed in the cotton and other industries. The principal crops are maize, millet, barley, cotton, oil seeds and wheat.

Chief Commissioner, The Hon. Mr. L. W. Reynolds, C.B.E., C.I.E.

Aden.

Aden was the first new territory added to the Empire after the accession of Queen Victoria. Its acquisition in 1839 was the outcome of an outrage committed by the local Abdali chief upon the passengers and crew of a British brig wrecked in the neighbourhood. Various acts of treachery supervened during the negotiations regarding the brig-wreck outrage and Aden was captured by a force sent by the Bombay Government under Major Bellie. The act has been described as one of those opportune political strokes which have given geographical continuity to British possessions scattered over the world.

Aden is an extinct volcano, five miles long and three broad, jutting out to sea much as Gibraltar does, having a circumference of about 15 miles and connected with the mainland by a narrow

isthmus of flat ground. This is nearly covered at one part at high spring tides, but the causeway and aqueduct are always above, though some times only just above water. The highest peak on the wall of precipitous hills that surrounds the old crater which constitutes Aden is 1,775 feet above sea level. Ragged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre to the circumference of the crater. A great gap has been rent by some volcanic disturbance on the sea surface of the circle of hills and this opens to the magnificent harbour. The peninsula of Little Aden, adjacent to Aden proper, was obtained by purchase in 1808 and the adjoining tract of Shalikh Othman, 30 square miles in extent, was subsequently purchased when, in 1862, it was found necessary to make provision for an overflowing population.

Attached to the settlement of Aden are the islands of Perim, an island of 5 square miles extent in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, in the entrance to the Arabian Sea. Sokatra Island, at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden, in the Arabian Sea, came under the British sphere of influence by a Protectorate treaty in 1886 and 1,388 miles in extent, and the five small Kuria Kuria islands, ceded by the Imam of Maskat in 1864 for the purpose of landing the Red Sea cable, and otherwise valuable only for the guano deposits found upon them. They are off the Arabian coast about two-thirds of the way from Aden to Maskat. The whole extent of the Aden settlement, including Aden, Little Aden, Shaikh Othman and Perim, is approximately 80 miles. The 1921 census showed Aden, with Little Aden, Shaikh Othman, and Perim to have a population of 56,671. The population of Perim is 2,078 largely dependent on the Coal Depot maintained there by a commercial firm. That of Sokatra is 12,000, mostly pastoral and migratory inland, fishing on the coast.

Strategic Importance.

Aden's first importance is as a naval and military station of strategic importance. This aspect was ably discussed by Colonel A. M. Murray, in his "Imperial Outposts." He points out that Aden is not a naval base in the same sense that Gibraltar, Malta and Hong Kong were made, but a point d'appui, a rendezvous and striking point for the fleet. It was seized in 1839 because of its usefulness as a harbour of refuge for British ships and from a strategic point of view this is its primary purpose and the reason of its forts and garrison. Aden under British rule has retained its ancient prestige as a fortress of impregnable strength, invulnerable by sea and by land, dominating the entrance to the Red Sea, and valuable to its owners as a commercial emporium, a port of call and a cable centre. The harbour extends 8 miles from east to west and 4 from north to south and is divided into two bays by a spit of land. The harbour is dredged to 30 below L.S. L.W. and is approached by a dredged cut of the same depth. This cut extends seaward to join the 5 fathom contour and thus gives a depth at low water spring tides of 5 fathoms for vessels entering the Port. The junction of this cut with the 5 fathom contour is marked by the fairway buoy which carries a flashing red light. The bottom is sand and mud. There are several islands in the inner bay. Strategic control of the Red Sea was rendered complete by the annexation of Perim and by a Protectorate treaty with the Sultan of Sokatra, which may both be regarded as outposts of Aden, and are under the political jurisdiction of the Resident.

The Arab chiefs of the hinterland of Arabia are nearly all vassals of the British Government. Colonel Wabab and Mr. G. H. Flatau, of the Constantinople Embassy, were appointed, in 1907, as Commissioners to delineate the frontier between Turkish Arabia and the British protectorate around Aden. A convention was signed in 1906 setting details, the frontier line being drawn from Shaikh Murad, a point of the Red Sea coast opposite Perim, to the bank of the river Bane, the eastern limit of Turkish claims, at a point some 20 miles north east of Dhale, and thence north-east to the

great desert. The area left within the British Protectorate was about 5,000 square miles. The arrangement gave to Turkey Cape Bab-el-Mandeb, which forms the Arabian bank of the eastern channel past Perim into the Red Sea. A sanatorium and small British garrison used to be maintained at Dhale, which is 7,700 feet high, but the garrison was withdrawn in 1906, Lord Morley explaining this step as being in accordance with the policy stated in the House of Lords in 1903—that His Majesty's Government had never desired to interfere with the internal and domestic affairs of the tribes on the British side of the boundary, but had throughout made it plain that they would not assent to the interference of any other Power with those affairs. Affairs in this respect have been disarranged considerably by the war.

British Policy

There has been much criticism of a policy under which Aden has failed to advance with the same progressive strides which have marked the development of other British dependencies. It is said that the former Persian possessors of Aden built its wonderful water tanks, and the Arabs made an aqueduct 20 miles long, while the British have done nothing except mount guns to protect their coal yards. Trade, it is argued, flourishes because this is a natural emporium of commerce, but not because of the attention its needs get from Government. Lord Roberts, writing on this point a few years ago, said: "It is not creditable to British rule to make use of a dependency like Aden for selfish purposes of political necessity without attempting to extend the benefits of civilised Government to the neighbouring native tribes, especially when those tribes are living under the aegis of the British Crown. The Persians, the Turks and even the Arabs did more for Aden in their time than we have done during our seventy years' occupation. Aden has always suffered under the disadvantage of being an appanage of the Bombay Presidency, with which it has neither geographical, racial nor political affinity. Probably the best solution of the matter would be to hand over the place to the Colonial Office, relieving the Government of Bombay of a charge which is only looked upon as an incubus." This question has now been finally decided. As explained below, His Majesty's Government are now responsible for the military and political administration of Aden, the Government of India remaining responsible for the internal administration of the settlement. Management has no doubt resulted in a dual control. But the change has been found necessary because Aden has assumed a far wider importance in Imperial Communications from that of a port of call in the voyage to India and because it is hoped that the cost of its defence might be reduced if it was treated as a part of the Middle East.

Language.

The language of the settlement is Arabic, but several other Asiatic tongues are spoken. The population is chiefly composed of Arabs and Shaikhs. The Somalis from the African coast and Arabs do the hard labour of the port. So far as the settlement is concerned the chief industries are salt and cigarette manufacture. The crops of the tribal low country adjoining are jowar, sesamum, a little cotton, sugar

a bastard adron and a little indigo. In the hills, wheat, madder fruit, coffee and a considerable quantity of wax and honey are obtained. The water supply forms the most important problem. This appears to have been now nearly solved. An artesian supply of fresh water has been obtained at Shalkh Othman. Early in 1924 a start was made with a deep bore and sweet water was found at a depth of 1545 ft. The artesian flow of water now rises from this bore at 750 gallons per hour. A second bore was started in 1928-29 and proved more productive than the first sinking of more bores is proceeding.

The discovery of artesian supplies of fresh water at Aden by the Bombay Government has removed one of the greatest hardships to the growth of that very important sea port, frequently referred to as the Gibraltar of the East and should cause much satisfaction to the residents since the cost of sweet water hitherto only obtainable in normal years by distillation has been about fifty times higher than the water rates, usually payable to Municipalities in India. The urgent need of a fresh water supply at Aden can be realised the better when it is stated that it has a population of some 40 000 souls and that over 1,500 vessels enter the port annually, carrying on trade amounting to from 15 to 20 millions sterling per year. It is the only port at which ships call for water between the Suez Canal and India or Ceylon and upto the present time this supply has been met by the costly process of condensing sea water.

Administration

The administration of Aden was in former times directly under the Government of Bombay. In 1920, the political control of Aden, which was exercised during the period of the war by the High Commissioner of Egypt, was transferred to the Political Resident in Aden, who was to be directly responsible to the Foreign Office. In 1921, this responsibility was taken over by the Colonial Office. The future of the Protectorate has been the subject of no little discussion and various proposals have been put forward. At one time the idea that it should be transferred to the Colonial Office was seriously entertained. The proposals met with warm disapproval from the important Indian community in Aden whose views were supported in India. There has been much friction between India and the Colonial Office over the status of Indians in the Dominions and some of the Crown Colonies, and the lukewarmness of the Colonial Office in protecting their rights was much resented. Therefore transfer to the Colonial Office was opposed as transfer to an unkindly and unsympathetic administration. On the 11th July 1922 the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies stated in the House of Commons that there was no prospect of the Colonial Office taking over the control of Aden in the near future. Deliberations between the Government of India and the Imperial Government reached their conclusion during 1927 and the decisions finally taken were announced by the Government of India in the Legislative Assembly assembled in Delhi during the Budget debates in March, 1927. The new arrangements came into operation on April 1st, 1927. Under the new conditions, the Imperial Government are responsible for the military and political situation in Aden and its

Hinterland. The settlement of Aden itself, which is to a large degree peopled by Indians, remains under the Government of India. The financial settlement required by this division of authority provides for the payments by India to Imperial Revenues of £250 000 a year for three years and thenceforward of £150 000 a year. The larger amount is considerably less than the annual expenditure falling upon Indian revenues under the former system of control.

The administration is conducted by a Resident and Commander in Chief who is assisted by four Assistants. Since the introduction of the dual control referred to above the Resident's post is to be held alternately by an Officer of the Indian Service and by a member of the Colonial Service. The Court of the Resident is the Colonial Court of Admiralty under Act XVI of 1891, and its procedure as such is regulated by the provisions of the Colonial Courts of the Admiralty Act 1890 (53 and 54 Vic Chapter 27). The laws in force in the settlement are generally speaking those in force in the Bombay Presidency, supplemented on certain points by special regulations to suit local conditions. The management of the port is under the control of a Board of Trustees formed in 1884. The principal business of the Port Trust has been the deepening of the harbour so as to allow vessels of all sizes to enter and leave at all states of the tide. The Aden police consists of land, harbour and armed police under a scheme of re-organisation recently introduced. There are hospitals and dispensaries in both Aden and Perim, in addition to the military institution of this character. The garrison comprises a troop of engineers, three companies of garrison artillery, one battalion of British infantry, two companies of sappers and miners and one Indian regiment. Detachments from the last named are maintained at Perim and Shaikh Othman respectively.

Climate

The average temperature of the station is 87 degrees in the shade the mean range being from 75 in January to 98 in June, with variations up to 102. The humidity between the monsoons, in May and September are very oppressive. Consequently long residence impairs the faculties and undermines the constitution of Europeans and even Indians suffer from the effects of too long an abode in the settlement, and troops are not posted in the station for long periods, being usually sent there one year and relieved the next. But Aden is usually free from infectious diseases and epidemics and the absence of vegetation, the dryness of the soil and the purity of the drinking water constitute efficient safeguards against many maladies common to tropical countries. The annual rainfall varies from 2 inch to 24 inches with an irregular average of 3 inches.

Resident and Commander in Chief Lieut-Col Sir Stewart Symes, K.C.S.I., C.M.G., D.S.O.

1. Lt-Col B. R. Kelly, C.I.E., D.S.O.
2. J. T. Lawrence, T.O.S., Judicial Assistant
3. R. S. Champion.
4. Lt-Col M. C. Lake (Aden Protectorate)
5. Mr C. Denny (Perim)

The Home Government.

The Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing board of the old East India Company. The affairs of the company were originally managed by the Court of Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established a Board of Control, with full power and authority to control and direct all operations and concerns relating to the civil and military government, and revenues of India. By degrees the number of the Board was reduced, and its powers were exercised by the President, the immediate precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications, this system lasted until 1858, when the Mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, demanded a complete change. Under the Act of 1858 (merged in the consolidating measure passed in 1915) the Secretary of State is the constitutional adviser of the Crown on all matters relating to India. He inherited generally all the powers and duties which were formerly vested either in the Board of Control or in the Company, the Directors and the Secret Committee in respect of the government and revenues of India.

The Secretary of State

Until the Reform Act of 1919 came into force, the Secretary of State had the unqualified power to give orders to every officer in India, including the Governor General, and to superintend, direct and control all acts, operations and concerns relating to the government or revenues of India. In the relations of the Secretary of State with the Governor General in Council no express statutory change was made, but Parliament ordained through the Joint Select Committee that in practice the conventions governing these relations should be modified, only in exceptional circumstances should he be called upon to intervene in matters of purely Indian interest where the Government and the Legislature of India are in agreement.

Of the wide powers and duties still vested in the Secretary of State, many rest on his personal responsibility, others can be performed only in consultation with his Council, and for some of those the concurrence of a majority of the members of his Council is required. The Act of 1919 greatly modified the rigidity of the law maintained for sixty years as to the relations of the Secretary of State with his Council, and he has fuller power than in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though in practice the Council meets weekly (save in vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in every month.

The India Council

The number of members of the Council was reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may, for special reasons of public advantage to be communicated to Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least

ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £600 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total cost now is about £230,000. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and most of the outlay needed for the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is met from British revenues, agency functions being still chargeable to Indian revenues. The contribution from the Treasury to India Office administrative expenses is about £115,000.

The High Commissionership.

The financial readjustment was accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act, in the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the High Commissioner took over control of the purchase of Government stores in England and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, the recruitment of technical officers, supervision of I.C.S. and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave, repatriation of disallowed leave, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The staff of the Stores Department is located at the Depot of the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff, also at India House, Aldwych W.C.2, built to the designs of Sir Herbert Baker at a cost for construction and equipment of £324,000. There could be no question of adopting a distinctive Oriental style for the exterior, but there are enough Indian features of ornamentation to produce the Eastern association of the place. Moreover, the Exhibition Hall (typically Indian in design) has five windows on two sides for display of specimens of the arts and crafts and commerce of India.

Parliament has set up since 1920 a Joint Standing Committee on Indian affairs consisting of eleven members of each House. The purpose is to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs and to refer to the Committee draft rules and also Parliamentary Bills after they have received a second reading.

INDIA OFFICE

Secretary of State.

The Rt. Hon W Wedgwood Benn, D.S.O., D.F.C.
M.P.

Under Secretaries of State.

Sir Eadweard Stewart, K.C.I.B., C.B.
Vacant.

Deputy Under-Secretary of State

Sir Malcolm Seaton, K.C.B.
Assistant Under Secretaries of State.
Sir Louis Ker Gaw, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Council.

Sir William H. H. Vincent, G.C.I.B., K.C.B.
Sir Reginald A. Munt, K.C.I.B., C.B.
Sir Robert Erskine Holland, K.C.I.B., C.B.,
C.V.O.
Sir Campbell W. Rhodes, C.B.
Dr. R. F. Paranjpye, M.A., B.Sc.
Sir Henry Wheeler, K.C.S.I., K.C.B.
Colonel, Sir Umar Hayat, K.C.I.B., C.B.

M.V.O.

Sir Basanta Kumar Mukherjee
Sir D. A. S. Bray, K.C.I.B., C.B.
Sir Henry Strachan, G.B.
Clerk of the Council,
L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Deputy Clerk of the Council, R. Mowbray,
Private Secretary to the Secretary of State,
D. T. Montagu, C.B.

Assistant Private Secretary, M. J. Clouston
Political A.D.C. to the Secretary of State, Lieut-
Col. S. B. A. Patterson, C.I.E., C.B.

Asst. to Dir., O. Grunzel, M.V.O.
Private Secretary to Sir F. Stewart, A. T. Williams
Private Secretary to Sir F. Stewart, A. T. Williams
H. A. F. Rumbold.

Heads of Departments.

SECRETARIES

Financial, W. Robinson, C.B., C.I.E., K.C.B., C.B.
Public and Judicial, V. Dawson, C.I.E.
Military, General Sir Alexander Cobbe, V.O.,
C.B., K.C.S.I., D.S.O.
Personal Assistant—Col. W. W. Chitty, C.I.E.,
C.B.

Joint Secretary, S. K. Brown, C.V.O.
Staff Officer attached, Col. J. C. Freeland, C.B.,
C.B.

Political, J. C. Walton, M.C., R. H. A. Carter, C.B.
P. J. Patrick (Asst.)

Economic and Overseas, H. J. Turner, C.B.
Services and General and Establishment Officer—
F. W. H. Smith, C.I.E.

Director-in-Chief of the Indo-European Tele-
graph, Public Works Department, M. G.
Munro, C.I.E.

Asst. to Dir., W. Sutherland, C.B.
Accounts-General, Sidney Turner, C.B., F.R.S.
also Director of Funds and Official Agent to
Administrators-General in India

Records Department—Superintendent of Re-
cords, W. T. Otwell, M.S.
Zetler, W. A. Sturdy, C.B.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Government Director of Indian Railway Com-
panies, W. Stantiall, C.I.E.
Asst. to Dir., W. Gould.

Librarian, Fredk. O. A. Storey, M.A.
Asst. Librarian, H. N. Bandle, M.A., D. Phil.
Sub-Librarian, J. W. Smeadwood, M.A.

President of Medical Board for the Examination
of Officers of the Indian Services and Advisor
to the Secretary of State on Medical matters.
Maj Gen Sir L. Rogers, C.B., F.R.S.

Members of the Medical Board, Lt.-Col. G. M. I.C.
Smith, C.M.S., Lt.-Col. H. R. Dutton, C.B.
Legal Advisor and Solicitor to Secretary of State,
Sir Edward Chamberlain, K.C.I.B.

Asst. Solicitor, F. R. Martin
Information Officer, H. MacGregor
Ordnance Consulting Officer, Lt.-Col. O. E. Vines,
R.A.

Asst. to Dir., Lt. J. H. Lawrence Archer
HIGH COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE,
India House Aldwych W.C. 2

The High Commissioner, Sir A. C. Chatterjee,
K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

Personal Assistant, V. J. G. Baynes.
Private Secretary—W. M. Nather, M.B.
Deputy High Commissioner A. M. Green, C.B.
Chief Accounting Officer, G. H. Stoker, C.I.E.,
C.B.

Secretary General Department, R. E.
Montgomery

Indian Trade Commissioner, H. A. F. Lindsay,
C.I.E., C.B.

Deputy Dir., S. N. Gupta, I.O.S.
Secretary, Education Department, T. Quayle,
D. Litt. (Lond.)

Store Department Depot at Belvedere
Road, Lambeth, S. E. 1

Director-General Lieut. Col. S. B. W. Paddon,
C.I.E., C.B.

Director of Purchase—R. E. Howlett.
J. P. Forsyth (Temporary)

Director of Inspection, F. E. Bennett, M.B.
* Sir B. N. Mitra, K.C.S.I., K.C. I.E., has
been appointed to succeed Sir A. C. Chatterjee
as High Commissioner with effect from 1st
July 1931

Secretaries of State for India

	Assumed charge
Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby)	1858
Sir Charles Wood, Bart. (Viscount Halifax)	1859
Earl de Grey and Ripon (Marquess of Ripon)	1860
Viscount Cranborne (Marquess of Salisbury)	1866
Sir Stafford Northcote, Bart. (Earl of Idelburgh)	1867
Duke of Argyll	1868
Marquess of Salisbury	1874
Viscount Cranbrook	1878
Marquess of Hartington (Duke of Devon- shire)	1880
Earl of Kimberley	1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	1886
Earl of Kimberley	1888
Viscount Cross	1889
Earl of Kimberley	1892
H. H. Fowler (Viscount Wolverhampton)	1894
Lord George F. Hamilton	1895
Sir John Brodick (Viscount Middleton)	1903
John Morley (Viscount Morley)	1905
The Earl of Crewe, (Marquess)	1911
Amson Chamberlain	1915
H. S. Montagu	1917
Viscount Peel	1922
Lord Olivier	1924
Lord Birmenshead	1924
Viscount Peel	1928
W. Wedgwood Benn	1930

The area enclosed within the boundaries of India is 1,773,168 square miles, with a population of 316,139,297 of people—nearly one fifth of the human race. But of this total a very large part is not under British administration. The area covered in the Indian States is 675,267 square miles with a population of seventy millions. The Indian States embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They vary in size from petty states like Lawa, in Rajputana, with an area of 12 square miles, and the Simla Hill States, which are little more than small holdings, to States like Hyderabad, as large as Italy, with a population of thirteen millions. They include the inhospitable regions of Western Rajputana, Baroda, part of the Garden of India, Mysore, rich in agricultural wealth and Kashmir, one of the most favoured spots on the face of the globe.

Relations with the Paramount Power

So diverse are the conditions under which the Indian States were established and came into political relation with the Government of India that it is impossible even to summarise them. But broadly it may be said that as the British boundaries expanded, the states came under the influence of the Government and the rulers were confirmed in their possessions. To this general policy however there was, for a brief period, an important departure. During the regime of Lord Dalhousie the Government introduced what was called annexation through lapse. That is to say, when there was no direct heir, the Government considered whether public interests would be secured by granting the right of adoption. Through the application of this policy, the states of Satara and of Nagpur fell in to the East India Company, and the kingdom of Oudh was annexed because of the gross misgovernment of its rulers. Then came the Mutiny. It was followed by the transference of the dominions of the East India Company to the Crown, and an irrevocable declaration of policy toward the Indian States. In the historic Proclamation of Queen Victoria it was set out that "We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions, and while we will permit no aggression on our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity we shall allow no encroachments on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity and honour of the Native Princes as our own and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government. Since the issue of that proclamation there has been no encroachment on the area under Indian rule by the Government of India. On the contrary, the movement has been in the opposite direction. In 1881 the State of Mysore, which had been so long under British administration that the traditions of Native rule were almost forgotten, was restored to the old Hindu ruling house. In 1911 the Maharajah of Benares, the great tahnqdar of Oudh, was granted ruling powers over his extensive possessions. On many occasions the Government of India has had to intervene, to prevent gross misgovernment, or to carry on the administration during a long minority, but

always with the undeviating intention of restoring the territories as soon as the necessity for intervention passed. Almost all states possess the right of adoption in default of heirs.

Rights of Indian States.

The rights and obligations of the Indian States are thus described by the Imperial Gazetteer. The Chiefs have, without exception, gained protection against dangers from without and a guarantee that the protector will respect their rights as rulers. The Paramount Power acts for them in relation to foreign Powers and other Indian States. The inhabitants of the Indian States are the subjects of their rulers, and except in case of personal jurisdiction over British subjects, these rulers and their subjects are free from the control of the laws of British India. Criminals escaping to an Indian State must be handed over to it by its authorities, they cannot be arrested by the police of British India without the permission of the ruler of the State. The Indian Princes have therefore a sovereign power which acts for them in all external affairs, and at the same time scrupulously respects their internal authority. The Emperor also intervenes when the internal peace of their territories is seriously threatened. Finally they participate in all the benefits which the protecting power obtains by its diplomatic action, or by its administration of its own dominions and thus secure a share in the commerce, the railways, the ports, and the markets of British India. Except in rare cases, applied to maritime States, they have freedom of trade with British India although they levy their own customs, and their subjects are admitted to most of the public offices of the British Government.

Obligations of Indian States.

On the other hand, the Indian States are under an obligation not to enter into relations with foreign nations or other states, the authority of their rulers has no existence outside their territories. Their subjects outside their dominions become for all intents and purposes British subjects. Where foreign interests are concerned, the Paramount Power must act so that no just cause of offence is given by its subordinate allies. All Indian States alike are under an obligation to refer to the British every question of dispute with other states. Inasmuch as the Indian States have no use for a military establishment other than for police, or display, or for co-operation with the Imperial Government, their military forces, their equipment and armament are prescribed by the Paramount Power. Although old and unaltered treaties declare that the British Government will have no manner of concern with any of a Maharajah's dependents or servants, with respect to whom the Maharajah is absolute, logic and public opinion have endorsed the principle which Lord Curzon set forth in his minute of 1890, that the "Government of India is not precluded from stepping in to set right such serious abuses in a Native Government as may threaten any part of the country with anarchy or disturbance, nor from assuming temporary charge of a Native State when there shall be sufficient reason to do so." Of this necessity the Governor-General in Council is the sole judge

subject to the control of Parliament. Where the law of British India confers jurisdiction over British subjects or other specified persons in foreign territory, that power is exercised by the British courts which possess it. The subjects of European Powers and the United States are on the same footing. Where no limitations exist in an Indian State, jurisdiction both over the suzerain and the vassal is exercised by the suzerain power.

Political Officers

The powers of the British Government are exercised through Political Officers who, as a rule reside in the states themselves. In the larger states the Government is represented by a Resident, in groups of states by an Agent to the Governor General assisted by local Residents or Political Agents. These Officers form the sole channel of communication between the Indian States and the Government of India and its Foreign Department, with the officials of British India and with other Indian States. They are expected to advise and assist the Ruling Chiefs in any administrative or other matters on which they may be consulted. Political Agents are similarly employed in the larger States under the Provincial Governments but in the petty states scattered over British India the duties of the Agent are usually entrusted to the Collector or Commissioner in whose districts they lie. All questions relating to the Indian States are under the special supervision of the Supreme Government, and in the personal charge of the Governor General.

Closer Partnership.

Events have tended gradually to draw the Paramount Power and the Indian States into closer harmony. Special care has been devoted to the education of the sons of Ruling Chiefs first by the employment of tutors and afterwards by the establishment of special colleges for the purpose. There are now established at Aynore Rajkot, Indore and Lahore. The Imperial Cadet Corps, whose headquarters are at Dehra Dun, imparts military training to the sons of the ruling chiefs and noble families. The spread of higher education has placed at the disposal of the Indian States the products of the Universities. In these ways there has been a steady rise in the character of the administration of the Indian States, approximating more closely to the British ideal. Most of the Indian States have also come forward to bear their share in the

burden of Imperial defence. Following on the spontaneous offer of military assistance when war with Russia appeared to be inevitable over the Peshawar Incident in 1885, the States have raised a portion of their forces up to the standard of the troops in the Indian Army. These were until recently termed Imperial Service Troops but are now designated Indian State Forces, they belong to the States, they are officered by Indians but they are inspected by a regular cadre of British officers under the general direction of an Inspector General. Their numbers are approximately 22,000 men, their armament is the same as that of the Indian Army and they have done good service often under their own Chiefs on the Frontier and in China, in Somaliland and in the Great War. Secure in the knowledge that the Paramount Power will respect their rights and privileges the Ruling Chiefs have lost the suspicion which was common when their position was less assured, and the visits of the Prince of Wales in 1875, of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1905-06 and of the King and Queen in 1911-12 have tended to seal the devotion of the great feudatories to the Crown. The improvement in the standard of native rule has also permitted the Government of India largely to reduce the degree of interference in the internal affairs of the Indian States. The new policy was authoritatively laid down by Lord Minto, the then Viceroy, in a speech at Udaipur in 1909 when he said—

Our policy with rare exceptions, one of non-interference in the internal affairs of the Native States. But in guaranteeing their internal independence and in undertaking their protection against external aggression it naturally follows that the Imperial Government has assumed a certain degree of responsibility for the general soundness of their administration and could not consent to incur the reproach of being an indirect instrument of misrule. There are also certain matters in which it is necessary for the Government of India to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole as well as those of the paramount power such as railways, telegraphs and other services of an Imperial character. But the relationship of the Supreme Government to the State is one of fraternity. The foundation stone of the whole system is the recognition of identity of interests between the Imperial Government and Rulers and the minimum of interference with the latter in their own affairs.

HYDERABAD

The Nizam exercises full sovereignty within his domains, grants titles and has the power of life and death over his subjects. Before 1919 the Government consisted of a Prime Minister responsible to the Nizam with Assistant Ministers, but in this year, an Executive Council was established which now consists of seven members. A legislative Council consisting of 20 members of whom 12 are official and non-official is responsible for making laws. The administration is carried on by a regular system

of departments on lines similar to those followed in British India. The state is divided into two divisions—Ichangana and Mahabubnagar—12 Districts and 103 Taluqs. Local Boards are constituted in each District and Taluqa. The State maintains its own currency which consists of gold and silver coins and a large note issue. The rupee, known as the Gomania Rupee, exchanges with the British Indian rupee at an average ratio of 116 to 100. There is a State postal service and stamps for internal purposes. The

Nizam maintains his own army consisting of 18,235 troops of which 6,849 are classed as regular troops and 11,384 as irregular. In addition to these, there are two battalions of Imperial Service Troops, 1,062 strong

FINANCE—Hyderabad State is far the wealthiest of the Indian States, having a revenue in its own currency of over 84 crores which is approximately the same as that of the Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa and double that of any other State. After many vicissitudes, its finances are at present in a prosperous condition and it enjoys a large annual surplus of revenue from which a reserve of 8 crores has been built up. This is being used partly as a sinking fund for the redemption of debt and partly for the development of the resources of the State. The budget estimates for the present year show a revenue of 839 lakhs under service heads and an expenditure of 781 lakhs, inclusive of large sums set aside for development, famine insurance and reserve for re-organisation and development. The capital expenditure programme provides for an expenditure of 169 lakhs, which includes 60 lakhs for the large irrigation project known as Nizam Sagar and other sanctioned projects and 92 lakhs for the construction of feeder lines. The year opened with a cash balance of 219 lakhs which is expected to be about 149 lakhs by the end of the year. The Government loans stand at 103 for short term and 117-4-0 for long term issues.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY—The principal industry of the State is agriculture which maintains 57 per cent of the population. The common system of land tenure is ryotwari. About 55 per cent of the total area is directly administered by the State. The rest consists of private estates of His Exalted the Nizam, which comprise about one-tenth of the total area of the State, and the estates of the Jagirdars and Patil nobles. The total land revenue is over 3 crores. The principal food crops are millet and rice, the staple money crops cotton which is grown extensively on the black cotton soils and oilseeds. Hyderabad is well known for its Gaurani cotton which is the longest staple indigenous cotton in India. The total area under cotton exceeds 3 million acres. Hyderabad possesses the most southerly of the Indian coal mines and the whole of southern India is dependent on it for such coal as is transported by rail. The chief mine is situated at Singareni which is not far from Berwada junction on the Calcutta-Madras line. The chief manufacturing industry is based on the cotton produced in the State. There are five large mills in existence and others are likely to be established while about one-third of the cloth worn in the Dominions is produced on local hand-looms. There are about 287 ginning and pressing factories in the cotton tracts and also a number of tanneries and flour mills. The total number of factories of all kinds in the State being 601. The Shahabad Cement Co. which has been established at Shahabad on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line, not far from Wadi, supplies the whole of southern India with cement and has at present an annual output of about 72,000 tons.

TAXATION—Apart from the land revenue

which as stated above brings in about 3 crores the main sources of taxation are excise and customs. The receipts from each are estimated for the present year at 168 and 140 lakhs respectively. After these come interest on investments (51 lakhs), railways (58 lakhs) and Bazar rent (39 lakhs). The customs revenue is derived from an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent on all imports and exports.

COMMUNICATIONS—One hundred and thirty seven miles of broad gauge line from Bombay to Madras traverse the State. At Wadi, on this section, the broad gauge system of the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway takes off and running east through Hyderabad City and Warangal reaches the Calcutta-Madras line at Berwada a total length of 380 miles. From Kasipet, near Warangal on this line a new link to Bellarahah strikes north thus providing the shortest route between Madras and Delhi. From Secunderabad the metre gauge Godavari Valley railway runs north west for 386 miles to Masnad on the main line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Calcutta. A metre gauge line also runs south from Secunderabad through Mahbubnagar nearly to the border and is now linked up with Kurnool on the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Branch lines exist from Purna to Hingoli, Farbhani to Purna, Kasipalli to Kothagudum and Vikharabad to Bidao. Thus, with branch lines there are now 560 miles of broad gauge and 623 of the metre gauge in the State. The Bareilly Light Railway owns a short extension from Kurwad on the Bombay-Madras line to Latur in Osmanabad District. The Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway was worked by a Company until April 1930 when it was purchased by the Nizam's Government. The road system is incomplete at present but is being rapidly extended on a well considered programme.

EDUCATION—The Osmania University at Hyderabad which marks a new departure in Indian education imparts instruction in all the faculties through the medium of Urdu. English being taught as a compulsory language. It has one First Grade College, four Intermediate Colleges, a Medical College, an Engineering College and a Training College for teachers. The Nizam College at Hyderabad (first grade), is however affiliated to the Madras University. In 1929-30 the total number of Educational Institutions were 4,246, the number of Primary Schools in particular having been largely increased.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL—Raja Rajayan Rajah Sir Kishen Pershad Maharaja Bahadur, Yamlur Suktanath C.I.E., President. Nawab Wahid Dowlat Bahadur Education, Medical and Military Departments. Member. Nawab Sir Akbar Hydar, Finance and Railway Member; Lt Col Chenevix-Trench, C.I.E., O.B.E. Revenue and Police Member, Nawab Lutful Dowlat Bahadur, Judicial Member, Nawab Aqel Jung Bahadur, Public Works Member. Nawab Mahdi Yar Jung Bahadur Political Member.

BRITISH RESIDENT—The Hon'ble Lt-Col T. H. Keyes, C.M.G., C.B.E., C.I.E.,

MYSORE.

The State of Mysore is surrounded on all sides by the Madras Presidency except on the north and the north-west where it is bounded by the districts of Dharwar and North Canara respectively and towards the north-west by Coorg. It is naturally divided into two regions of distinct character, the hill country (the mauland) on the west and the wide spreading valleys and plains (the maldan) on the east. The State has an area of 28,475 square miles extending that of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore and a population of 5,850,523 of whom over 92 per cent. are Hindus. Kannada is the distinctive language of the State.

HISTORY.—The ancient history of the country is varied and interesting. Tradition connects the table land of Mysore with many a legend enshrined in the great Indian epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Coming down to historical times, the north-eastern portion of the country formed part of Asoka's Empire in the third century B.C. Mysore then came under the rule of the Andhra dynasty. From about the third to the seventh century A.D. Mysore was ruled by three dynasties, the north-western portion by the Kadambas, the eastern and northern portions by the Pallavas and the central and the southern portions by the Gangas. In the seventh century, Mysore formed part of Chola dominion, but the Cholas were driven out early in the twelfth century by the Hoysalas, an indigenous dynasty with its capital at Halebidu. The Hoysala power came to an end in the early part of the fourteenth century. Mysore was next connected with the Vijayanagar empire. At the end of the fourteenth century Mysore became associated with the present ruling dynasty. At first tributary to the dominant empire of Vijayanagar, the dynasty attained its independence after the downfall of Vijayanagar in 1565. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the real sovereignty passed into the hands of Hyder Ali and then his son, Tipu Sultan. In 1799, on the fall of Seringapatam, the British Government restored the State comprised within its present limits, to the ancient dynasty in the person of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar Bahadur III. Owing to the insurrections that broke out in some parts of the country the management was assumed by the British Government in 1831. In 1881 the State was restored to the dynasty in the person of Sri Chamarajendra Wodeyar Bahadur under conditions and stipulations laid down in the Instrument of Transfer. That ruler with the assistance of Mr. (afterwards Sir) K. Satcha- dri Iyer, B.A.L., as Dewan, brought Mysore to a State of great prosperity. He died in 1894, and was succeeded by the present Maharaja Colonel Sir Sri Krishnarajendra Wodeyar Bahadur, C.S.I., C.M.S., who was installed in 1902. In November 1919 the Instrument of Transfer was replaced by a Treaty which indicates more appropriately the relation subsisting between the British Government and the State of Mysore.

ADMINISTRATION.—The City of Mysore is the Capital of the State, but Bangalore City is the Administrative headquarters. His Highness the Maharaja is the ultimate authority in the

State, and the administration is conducted under his control, by the Dewan and three Members of Council. The High Court consisting of three Judges is the highest Judicial tribunal in the State. There are two constitutional Assemblies in the State—the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Representative Assembly was established in 1921 by an executive order of Government, and its powers and functions have been increased from time to time by similar orders of Government. Under the scheme of constitutional developments announced in October 1923 the Representative Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis and given a definite place in the constitution by the promulgation of the Representative Assembly Regulation XVIII of 1923. The franchise has been extended and the disqualification of women on the ground of sex, from exercising the right to vote has been removed. The privilege of moving resolutions on the general principles and policy underlying the budget and on matters of public administration has been granted in addition to those already enjoyed of making representations about wants and grievances and of interpellating Government. The Assembly is also to be consulted on all proposals for the levy of new taxes and on the general principles of all measures of legislation before their introduction into the Legislative Council. Besides the Budget Session (formerly Birthday Session) and the Desam Session, provision has been made for a special session of the Assembly to be summoned by only for Government business.

The strength of the Legislative Council has been raised from 20 to 50, of whom 20 are official and 30 are non-official members. The Council which exercised the privileges of interpellation discussion of the State Budget and the moving of the resolutions on all matters of public administration is, under the reformed constitution, granted the powers of voting on the demands for grants. The Dewan is the Ex-officio President of both the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council has also a Public Accounts Committee which examines all audit and appropriation reports and brings to the notice of Council all deviations from the wishes of the Council as expressed in its Budget grant.

STANDING COMMITTEES.—With a view to enlarge the opportunities of non-official representatives of the people to influence the every day administration of the State three Standing Committees consisting of Members of the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, have been formed, one in connection with Railway, Electrical and P. W. Departments, one in connection with Local Self-Government and the Departments of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health and the third in connection with Finance and Taxation.

All the important branches of the administration are controlled by separate Heads of Departments. The combatant strength of the Military Force at the end of 1923-24 was 2,204 of which 628 were in the Mysore Infantry, 122 in the

Mysore Horse, 83 in the Transport Corps, and the remaining 1,540 in the Infantry. The total annual cost is about 18 lakhs of rupees. The cost of the Police Administration during 1927-28 was about 18 lakhs.

FINANCE.—The actual total receipts and disbursements charged to Revenue for the past five years together with the revised budget estimate for 1929-30 and budget for 1930-31 were as below:—

Year	Receipts	Disbursements	Surplus	Deficits.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1924-25	3,30,02,390	3,36,35,870	+26,420	
1925-26	3,46,38,960	3,46,02,686	+36,274	
1926-27 (Accts.)	3,38,08,349	3,47,30,906		-8,70,557
1927-28	3,60,86,978	3,60,49,590	+40,688	
1928-29	3,74,57,981	3,74,02,595	+55,386	
1929-30 (Revised)	3,73,81,000	3,73,51,000	+30,000	
1930-31 (Budget)	3,79,82,000	3,79,26,000	+56,000	

AGRICULTURE.—Nearly three-fourths of the population are employed in agriculture, and the general system of land tenure is ryotwari. The principal food crops are ragi, rice, jola, millets, gram and sugar cane, and the chief fibres are cotton and sun-emp. Nearly fifty thousand acres are under mulberry, the silk industry being the most profitable in Mysore next to Gold Mining. A Superintendent of Sericulture has been appointed and the Sericultural Department affiliated to the Industries and Commerce Department. Arrangements are being made for the supply of disease-free seed, and a central and five taluk popular schools have been doing good work. The Department of Agriculture is popularizing agriculture on scientific lines by means of demonstrations, investigations and experiments. There are six Government Agricultural Farms at Hebbal, Babbar, near Hiriya, Marthar, Nageshalli, Lunad and the coffee experimental Station at Balehonnur. A live-stock section has been organized which has been taking necessary steps for the improvement of live-stock. A cattle breeding station is being established at Parvatharayana, near Ajjampur in the Kader District, and a Serum Institute has been opened at Bangalore for the manufacture of serum and vaccines for inoculation against the rinderpest disease of cattle.

INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.—A Department of Industries and Commerce was organized in 1913 with a view to the development of Industries and Commerce in the State. Its main functions are stimulating private enterprise by the offer of technical advice and other assistance for starting new industries, undertaking experimental work for procuring industries and developing existing industries and serving as a general bureau of information in industrial and commercial matters. Mysore is the largest producer of silk in India, and the care and government of this industry is entrusted to a Dept. of Sericulture which is under the control of the Director of Industries and Commerce. The sandalwood oil factory started on an experimental basis is now working on a commercial scale. A factory is working at Bangalore, and another at Mysore. A large plant at a cost of more than 170 lakhs of rupees has been constructed at Bhadravathi for purposes of manufacturing charcoal, pig-iron, distilling wood-alcohol, and developing subsidiary industries. A new iron foundry was opened at Bhadravathi for the manufacturers of pipes which are in great demand in several municipal towns

in India. The works are on the borders of an extensive forest area and practically at the foot of the hills containing rich deposits of iron manganese and haematite, and are not far from the Gersappa Water Falls estimated to be capable of producing 100,000 horse-power of electric energy. A Trade Commissioner in London has been recently appointed to look after the interest of the trade and industry of the State.

HYDRO-ELECTRIC AND IRRIGATION WORKS.—The river Cauvery in its course through the State, possesses a natural fall of about 580 feet near the island of Sivassamudram, and this fall was harnessed in the year 1902 for the development of electric power, to the extent of about 12,000 H. P. for supplying mainly to the Kolar Gold Mining Companies and incidentally for lighting the cities of Mysore and Bangalore. In course of time, the demand on the power station increased and with a view to protecting the existing supply and augmenting the generation of additional power to meet the growing demands, the "Krishnarajasagara Reservoir" called after the name of the present Maharaja was constructed. The storage from the reservoir besides enabling the generation of electric power up to 48,000 H. P. will also bring under irrigation about 1,20,000 acres of land situated in an area subject to more or less continuous drought. The new Canal Works are now in progress, and the main Canal is named the "Irwin Canal" after the present Viceroy. Full advantage is being taken of the available electric power for small industries and the electrification of towns and lift irrigation.

EDUCATION.—A separate University for Mysore was established on the 1st July 1916. It is of the teaching and residential type composed of the Central, and Engineering Colleges at Bangalore and the Medical Maharaja's and Maharani's Colleges at Mysore, and five Intermediate Colleges with head quarters at Mysore. The colleges are efficiently equipped and organized and there is a training college for men located at Mysore. The Maharani's College at Mysore is a College for Women.

With the introduction of compulsory education in select centres and the increase in the number of village schools, primary education has during recent years made considerable advance. Schools have been started for imparting instruction in agricultural, commercial, engineering and other technical subjects. There were altogether 3,886 institutions on 31st March

1929 This gives one school to every 3.58 square miles of the area and to every 726 of the population. An Elementary Education Regulation to provide for the progressive expansion and development of elementary education in the State has been recently passed. Under the Regulation local bodies are invested with powers for providing and controlling elementary education.

Resident in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of

Coorg—The Hon. Lieut. Col. R. J. C. Burke,
Dewan.—Amin ul Mulk Sh., Mirza Mahomed
Jamaal Oid, O.S.

Members of the Executive Council—Rajkaryas-
pranaka Diwan Bahadur, M. N. Krishna Rao,
B.A. First Member of Council, Rajamantrapra-
vina C. S. Balasundaram Iyer, M.A., 2nd
Member of Council and Rajamantrapravina
K. Nathan, B.A., Third Member of Council.

BARODA

The State of Baroda is situated partly in Gujarat and partly in Kathiawar. It is divided into four district blocks: (1) the southern district of Navsari near the mouth of the Tapi river, and mostly surrounded by British territory, (2) central district, North of the Narbada, in which lies Baroda the capital city, (3) to the North of Ahmedabad the district of Kadi, and (4) to the West, in the Peninsula of Kathiawar, the district of Amreli, formed of scattered tracts of land. The area of the State is 8,185 square miles, the population is 2,126,522 of whom over four fifths are Hindus.

HISTORY—The history of the Baroda State as such dates from the break-up of the Mughal Empire. The first Maratha invasion of Gujarat took place in 1705. In later expeditions Peshwa Baji Rao, who may be considered as the founder of the present ruling family, greatly distinguished himself. Songhad was the headquarters till 1766. After 1723 Peshwa regularly levied tribute in Gujarat. His son Damaji finally captured Baroda in 1734, since then it has always been in the hands of the Gaikwars, but Mughal authority in Gujarat did not end until the fall of Ahmedabad in 1763, after which the country was divided between the Gaikwar and the Peshwa. In spite of the fact that Damaji was one of the Maratha chiefs defeated at Panipat by Ahmed Shah, he continued to add to his territory. He died in 1768, leaving the succession in dispute between two rival sons. He was succeeded in turn by his sons Sayaji Rao I, Fatehgar Rao, Manaji Rao and Govind Rao. The last died in 1800, and was succeeded by Anand Rao. A period of political instability ensued which was ended in 1802 by the help of the Bombay Government, who established the authority of Anand Rao at Baroda. By a treaty of 1806 between the British Government and Baroda, it was arranged *inter alia* that the foreign policy of the State should be conducted by the British, and that all differences with the Peshwa should be similarly arranged. Baroda was a staunch ally of the British during the wars with Bajji Rao Peshwa, the Pindari hordes and Holkar. But from 1820 to 1841, when Sayaji Rao II was Gaikwar, differences arose between the two Governments, which were settled by Sir James

Carnac Governor of Bombay in 1841. Ganpat Rao succeeded Sayaji Rao in 1847. During his rule, the political supervision of Baroda was transferred to the Supreme Government. His successor Khande Rao, who ascended the Gadi in 1866, introduced many reforms. He stood by the British in the Mutiny. He was succeeded by his brother Malhar Rao in 1870. Malhar Rao was deposed in 1875 for "notorious misconduct" and "gross misgovernment," but the suggestion that he had instigated the attempt to poison Col. Phayre the Resident was not proved. Sayaji Rao III, a boy of 15 years of age, who was descended from a distant branch of the family was adopted as heir of Khande Rao in 1875 and is the present Gaikwar. He was invested with full powers in 1881.

ADMINISTRATION—An executive council consisting of the principal officers of the State carries on the administration subject to the control of the Maharaja, who is assisted by a Dewan and other officers. A number of departments have been formed, which are presided over by officials corresponding to those in British India. The State is divided into four *prants*, each of which is sub-divided into *Mahals* and *Pate Mahals* of which there are in all 42. Attempts have for some years been made to restore village autonomy, and village *panchayats* have been formed which form part of a scheme for local self-government. There is a Legislative Department, under a Legal Remembrancer, which is responsible for making laws. There is also a Legislative Council, consisting of nominated and elected members. A High Court at Baroda possesses jurisdiction over the whole of the State and hears all final appeals. From the decisions of the High Court, appeals lie in certain cases, to the Maharaja, who decides them on the advice of the Hunar Nyaya Sabha. The State Army consists of 5,086 Regular forces and 3,806 Irregular forces.

FINANCE—In 1928-29 the total receipts of the State were Rs. 2,49,00,000 and the disbursements Rs. 2,11,18,000. The principal Revenue heads were—Land Revenue, Rs. 94,32,000; Abkari, Rs. 38,02,000; Opium, Rs. 5,34,000; Railways, Rs. 15, 68,000; Interest, Rs. 18, 83,000; Tribute from other States, Rs. 3,45,000. British Currency was introduced in 1901.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY—Agriculture and pastoral support 63 per cent of the people. The principal crops are rice, wheat, gram, mustard, oil, rapeseed, poppy, cotton, sun hemp, tobacco, sugarcane, maize, and garden crops. The greater part of the State is held on ryotwari tenure. The State contains few minerals, except sandstone which is quarried at Sonagar, and a variety of other stones which are little worked. There are 73 industrial or commercial concerns in the State registered under the State Companies Act. There are four Agricultural Banks and 750 Co-operative Societies in the Baroda State.

COMMUNICATIONS—The B & C I Railway crosses part of the Narsari and Baroda prants and the Rajputana Malwa Railway passes through the Kadi prant. A system of branch lines has been built by the Baroda Durbar in all the four prants in addition to which the (apt) Valley Railway and the Baroda (Godhra) Chord line (B & C I) pass through the State. The Railways constructed by the State are about 669 miles in length. Good roads are not numerous.

EDUCATION—The Education Department controls 2,996 institutions of different kinds in 76 of which English is taught. The Baroda

College is affiliated to the Bombay University. There are a number of high schools, technical schools, and schools for special classes, such as the jungle tribes and uncivilized castes. The State is "in a way pledged to the policy of free and compulsory primary education." It maintains a system of rural and travelling libraries. Ten per cent of the population is returned in the census as literate. Total expenditure on Education is Rs 32,88,520.

CAPITAL CITY—Baroda City with the cantonment has a population of 94,712. It contains a public park, a number of fine public buildings, palaces and offices, and it is crowded with Hindu temples. The cantonment is to the north west of the city and is garrisoned by an infantry battalion of the Indian Army. An Improvement Trust has been formed to work in Baroda City and has set itself an ambitious programme.

RULER—His Highness Farzand-i-Khas-i-Dowlat, Englishia Maharya Sur baya; Rao Gaekwar Sena Khas Khel, Sansher Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.C.I.E. L.D. Mah rya of Baroda.
Resident—Lt Col D G Wilson

Deewan—Rao Bahadur V T Krishnamachari, C.I.E.

BALUCHISTAN AGENCY

In this Agency lies the State of Kalat with its feudatory State of Las Bela.

Kalat is bounded on the North by the Chagai district, on the East by Sind and the Marri, Magri tribal territories, on the South by the Arabian Sea and on the West by Persia.

The State includes the tribal territories of the Chiefs of the Brahui Confederacy of which the Khan of Kalat is Head. The divisions of the State are Sarawan or the Highlands, Jhalawan or the Lowlands, Kachhi, Makran, the Khanate of Kharan and the feudatory State of Las Bela. The inhabitants are for the most part Brahui or Baluch, both being Muhammadans of the Sunni sect. The area of Kalat with Las Bela is 80,410 sq. miles. The country is sparsely inhabited, the total population being about 379,000.

The relations of Kalat with the British Government are governed by the treaties of 1864 and 1876 by the latter of which the independence of Kalat was recognised while the Khan agreed to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. There are also agreements with Kalat in connection with the construction of the Indo-European telegraph line, the cession of jurisdiction on the railways and in the Bolan Pass and the permanent lease of Quetta, Nushki and Nasirabad.

The Khan is assisted in the administration of the State by a Wazir-i-Azam at present a

retired officer of the British service. The Governor General's Agent in Baluchistan controls the relations between the Government of India and the Khan, and exercises general political supervision over the State. The revenue of the State is about Rs 18,41,500, out of which the Khan retains a civil list of Rs 3,50,000 per annum. The present Khan is His Highness Beglar Begi Sir Mir Mahmud Khan of Kalat, G.C.I.E. He was born in 1864.

Las Bela is a small State under the suzerainty of Kalat. The Hab river for the Southern part of its course forms the Eastern boundary with Sind, and the greater part of the State consists of the valley and the delta of the Parul river. Area 7,192 square miles, population 50,608 chiefly Sunni Muhammadans. The estimated average revenue is about Rs 3,81,000. The Chief of Las Bela, known as the Jam, is bound by agreement with the British Government to conduct the administration of his State in accordance with the advice of the Governor General's Agent. This control is exercised through the Political Agent in Kalat. The Jam also employs an approved Wazir to whose advice he is subject and who assists him generally in the transaction of State business.

Agent to the Governor General for Baluchistan—Hon'ble Lt Col Sir H D St John, K.C.I.E., C.B. (on leave)

RAJPUTANA AGENCY

Rajputana is the name of a great territorial circle with a total area of about 131,698 square miles, which includes 19 Indian States, one chieftainship, and the small British district of Ajmer-Merwara. It is bounded on the west by Sind, on the north west by the Punjab State of Bahawalpur, on the north and north-east by the Punjab, on the east by the United Provinces and Gwalior while the southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line. Of the Indian States and Chieftainship 17 are Rajput, 2 (Bharatpur and Dholpur) are Jat, and one (Tonk) is Mahomedan. The chief administrative control of the British district is vested *ex-officio* in the political officer who holds the post of Governor-General's Agent for the supervision of the relations between the several Indian States of Rajputana and the Government of India. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups—Bikaner and Sirsahi in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor-General Eastern Rajputana Agency 5 States (Bharatpur Dholpur Karnali, Alwar and Kotah) Haroti and Tonk Agency, 4 States (Bundi Jhalawar, Shahpura and Tonk) Jaipur Residency, 2 States (Jaipur and Kishanganah) Mewar Residency and Southern Rajputana States Agency, 3 States (Dangarpur Banswara and Pratargarh and the Kishanganah Chieftainship) Western Rajputana States Residency, 2 States (Jodhpur and Jaisalmer).

The Aravalli Hills intersect the country almost from end to end. The tract to the north west of the hills is, as a whole, sandy, ill watered and unproductive, but improves gradually from being a mere desert in the far west to comparatively fertile lands to the north-east. To the south-east on the Aravalli Hills lie higher and more fertile regions which contain extensive hill ranges and which are traversed by considerable rivers.

COMMUNICATIONS—The total length of rail ways in Rajputana is 3,254 miles, of which 100 are the property of the British Government. The B. & C. I. (Vetro-gange) (Government) runs from Ahmedabad to Bandikui and from there branches to Agra and Delhi. Of the Indian State railways the most important are the Jodhpur and Bikaner lines from Marwar Junction to Hyderabad (Sind) and to Bikaner.

INHABITANTS—Over 50 per cent of the population are engaged in some form of agriculture about 20 per cent of the total population are maintained by the preparation and supply of material substances personal and domestic service provides employment for about 5 per cent and commerce for 24 per cent of the population. The principal language is Rajasthani. Among castes and tribes, the most numerous are the Brahmins Jais Mahajans, Chamais, Rajputs, Minas, Gujars, Billis, Malis and Balais. The Rajputs are, of course, the aristocracy of the country, and as such hold the land to a very large extent, either as receivers of

rent or as cultivators. By reason of their position as integral families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India, and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a tribe or clan (as distinguished from a caste) in India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rajput stocks.

The population and area of the States are as follows—

Name of State	Area in square miles	Population in 1921
<i>In direct Political relations with A G G—</i>		
Bikaner	2,39,012	669,685
Sirsahi	1,904	186,639
<i>Mewar Residency—</i>		
Udaipur	12,915	1,406,990
<i>Southern Rajputana States Agency—</i>		
Banswara	1,606	190,362
Dangarpur	1,447	189,272
Pratargarh	896	67,110
Kishanganah (Chieftainship)	340	29,162
<i>Western State Residency—</i>		
Jodhpur	37,066	1,848,825
Jaisalmer	16,062	67,652
<i>Jaipur Residency—</i>		
Jaipur	1,662	2,338,802
Kishanganah	358	77,784
Lawa	19	2,262
<i>Haroti-Tonk Agency—</i>		
Bundi	2,220	1,70,068
Tonk	2,568	287,898
Jhalawar	610	96,182
Shahpura	406	48,130
<i>Eastern States Agency—</i>		
Bharatpur	1,182	496,437
Dholpur	1,200	230,188
Karnali	1,242	138,730
Alwar	3,21,299	701,154
Kotah	5,684	696,649

Udaipur State (also called Mewar) was founded in about 646 A.D. The capital city is Udaipur, which is beautifully situated on the slope of a low ridge, the summit of which is crowned by His Highness the Maharana's palaces, and to the north and west, houses extend to the banks of a beautiful piece of water known as the Pichola Lake in the middle of which stand two island palaces. It is situated near the terminus of the Udaipur Chittor Railway 697 miles north of Bombay. His Highness Maharaja Adhiraj Maharana Sir Fateh Singhji Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., who was born in 1849 and succeeded in 1884 died in 1930. He was succeeded by Sir Bhupal Singhji Bahadur, K.C.I.E. The revenue and expenditure of the State are now about 50 lakhs a year respectively. Its archaeological remains are

numerous, and stone inscriptions dating from the third century have been found.

Banswara State is the southernmost State of Rajputana within the Political Agency of the Southern Rajputana States. The area of the State is 1,946 square miles and the population 219,824 souls. It is thus in regard to size eleventh among the States of Rajputana. Dungarpur originally formed a county known as Bagar, which was, from the beginning of the thirteenth century until about the year 1720 held by certain Rajput Rulers of the Ghelot or Shishodiya clan who claimed descent from an elder branch of the family of now ruling in Udaipur. After the death of Rawal Udas Singhji the ruler of Bagar about 1529 his territory was divided between his two sons Prithvi Singhji and Jagnal Singhji and the descendants of the two families are now respectively the Rulers of Dungarpur and Banswara. When the town of Banswara now stands there was a large Bhil pal or colony under a powerful Bhil Chieftain named Wasna who was defeated and slain by Maharawal Jagnal Singhji about 1430. The name of Banswara is by tradition said to be a corruption of Wasnawara or the country of Wasna. Others assert that the word means the country (nara) of bamboos (bans). Nearly three centuries after its foundation by Maharawal Jagnal Singhji, Maharawal Bhai Singhji anxious to get rid of the supremacy of the Mahrattas offered to become a tributary to the British Government. In 1818 a definite treaty was made with his successor Maharawal Umed Singhji. Banswara has been described as the most beautiful portion of Rajputana. It looks at its best just after the rains. The principal rivers are the Mahi, the Anas, the Dhan, the Chap and the Hiran.

The present Ruler is His Highness Ravan Rai Maharaja Bhairaj Maharawalji Sahib Shree Prithvi Singhji Bahadur who was born on July, 1898 and is the 21st in descent from Maharawal Jagnal Singhji. His Highness was educated in the Mayo College and succeeded his father in 1914. His Highness is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The State is ruled by His Highness the Maharawalji Bahadur in consultation with the assistance of the Diwan and the Home Minister and the Judicial and the Legislative Council of which the Diwan is the President and the Vice-President, Maharaj Raj Kumar Bahadur Shri Chandravar Singhji Bahadur is a member. The revenue of the State is about 7 lakhs and the expenditure is about the same.

Diwan—Mr R. K. Chatterjee, B.A., Bar at Law.

Home Minister—Mr Nand Lal Banerjee.

Dungarpur State, with Banswara, formerly comprised the country called the Bagar. It was invaded by the Mahrattas in 1818. As in other States inhabited by hill tribes it became necessary at an early period of British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhils. The State represents the Gads, the eldest branch of the Sindhas and dates its separate existence from about the close of the 12th Century. Samant Singh,

King of Chitor, when driven away by Kirtipal of Jalor, fled to Bagad and killed Chowmadmal, Chief of Baroda, and founded the State of Dungarpur. The present Chief is His Highness Rai Rajan Maharajadhiraj Maharawal Shri Lakshman Singhji born on 7th March 1906, succeeded on 16th November 1918 and assumed charge of the administration on the 16th February 1923. No railway line crosses the territory, the nearest railway station, Udaipur, being 65 miles distant. Revenue about 6½ lakhs.

Partabgarh State, also called the Kaxthal, was founded in the sixteenth century by a descendant of Rana Mokal of Mewar. The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1608 by Partab Singh. In the time of Jaswant Singh (1775-1844), the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar a tribute of *Sahm Shahi* Rs. 72,700 (which then being coined in the State Mint was legal tender throughout the surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs. 15,000 formerly paid to Delhi. The first connexion of the State with the British Government was formed in 1804 but the treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord Cornwallis, and a fresh treaty by which the State was taken under protection was made in 1818. The tribute to Holkar was paid through the British Government and in 1904 was converted to Rs. 38,350 British currency. The present ruler is His Highness Maharawat Ram Singh Bahadur who was born in 1903 and succeeded in 1920. The State is governed by the Maharawat with the help of the Dewan, and, in judicial matters, of a Committee of members styled the Raj Sabha or State Council. Revenue about 5½ lakhs, expenditure nearly 5½ lakhs. The financial administration is under the direct supervision of the State.

Jodhpur State, is the largest in Rajputana with an area of 35,016 miles, and a population of more than 18 millions of which 63 per cent are Hindus, 8 per cent Mussmans and the rest Jains and Animists. The greater part of the country is an arid region. It improves gradually from a mere desert to comparatively fertile land as it proceeds from West to East. The rainfall is scanty and capricious. There are no perennial rivers and the supply of sub-soil water is very limited. The only important river is Lun.

The Maharaja of Jodhpur is the head of the Rathor clan of Rajputs and claims descent from Rama the deified King of Ayodhya (a deity). The earliest known King of the Clan named Abhimanyu lived in the fifth century, from which time their history is increasingly clear. After the breaking up of their kingdom at Kanauj they founded this State about 1212 and the foundations of the Jodhpur City were laid by Rao Jodha in 1459. He had abolished the tax levied by Hussain Shah of Jaunpur from Hindu pilgrims at Gaya. His descendant was the famous Rao Maldeva, the most powerful ruler of his time having an army of 50,000 Rajputs and the Emperor Humayun when expelled by Sher Shah in 1542 A.D. had sought refuge with him. Raja Sur Singh, son of Raja Udas Singh, in recognition of his deeds of valour was created a 'Bawal Raja' with a mansab of 5,000 Zat.

3,300 Bowers by the Emperor Akbar. Maharaja Jaswant Singh I with whom the secret hostility of Emperor Aurangzeb are well known was once a pillar of the Indian Empire and a great defender of the Hindus, and their temples. He was also a patron of learning and himself wrote books on Philosophy, Poetry and other profound subjects. After his demise Aurangzeb confiscated Marwar and Asheraja Jaswant Singh a posthumous son and successor Maharaja Ajit Singh had to pass 8 years in hiding in mountains and subsequent 20 years in constant wars with Aurangzeb's army with the help of his nobles chief of whom was the famous hero Durga Dasa before he ascended the throne of Marwar. In the time of Maharaja Bheem Singh a later descendant of the same time one of the richest districts viz Godwar was finally acquired from Mewar and annexed to Marwar. The State entered into a treaty of alliance with the British Government in 1818.

The present ruler Major His Highness Raj Rajeshwar Saramad Raja Hrud Maharaja Dhiraaj Maharaja Sri Sri Yashvi Singhji Sahib Bahadur G.C.I.E. K.C.S.I. K.C.V.O. is the head of Rathors and is the 32nd ruler from Rao Bhoji. His Highness was born on 11th July 1903 and is now in the 24th year of his age. He succeeded his elder brother on 3rd October 1918. He was educated at the Mayo College Ajmer and was invested with full ruling powers on 27th January 1923. In October of the same year he was granted the rank of honorary Captain in the British Army made a Knight Commander of the Royal Victorian Order in March 1921 and was elevated to the Rank of Honorary Major in June 1923. He was created K.C.S.I. on 3rd June 1923 and invested with G.C.I.E. on the 1st January 1930. His Highness was married in November 1921 and has three sons, the heir-apparent being Maharaj Kumar Sri Hanut Singhji Sahib born on 18th June 1923. His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur has one younger brother Maharaja Sri Ajit Singhji Sahib and two sisters, the elder of whom is Maharani of Jaipur and the younger the Maharani of Rewa.

His Highness is greatly interested in educational, athletic, and progressive institutions generally of modern times both in India and abroad and has always exhibited his sympathy with them by liberal donations. An example of this can be easily found in the donation of 3 lakhs made by His Highness for founding the Irwin Chair of Agriculture at the Benares Hindu University. He is a keen sportsman Polo player and first rate shot. His favourite pastimes are pig-sticking, fishing, shooting and photography.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns within his own territories and 17 guns elsewhere.

The administration is carried on with the aid of a State Council composed of His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur President, Lt Col C J Windham (I.E.S.) (retired) Vice-President Mr J W Young O.B.E. (Indian Finance Department) Finance Member Rao Bahadur Thakur Chalo Singhji M.A. LL.B. Judicial Member Rao Bahadur Rao Raja Narpat Singhji, Member-in-Waiting, and Munshi Himmat Singhji, M.A. Revenue Member. There is also an Advisory Committee representing

the great body of Sardars who hold as much as five-sixths of the total area to aid the administration with opinion on matters affecting general customs and usage in the country.

The revenue of the State during the year 1928-29 was Rs. 1,30,27,000 and the expenditure Rs. 1,03,92,000. The Jodhpur Railway extending from Hyderabad (Sind) to Luni Junction and Marwar Junction to Kuchaman Road with its branches on all sides in the territories of the State is the principal railway, while the B.B.A.C.I. Railway runs across a portion of the South Eastern Border. The famous marble quarries of Makrana as well as the salt lake at Sambhar are situated in Jodhpur territory.

Jaisalmer State is one of the largest States in Rajputana and covers an area of 16,062 square miles. The Rulers of Jaisalmer belong to the Jadon clan and are the direct descendants of Krishna. Jaisalmer City was founded in 1156, and the State entered into an alliance of perpetual friendship with the British Government in 1818. In 1844 after the British conquest of Sind the forts of Shahgarh, Garsia and Ghotaru which had formerly belonged to Jaisalmer were restored to the State. The present Ruling Prince is His Highness Maharajadhiraja Maharaj Shri Sir Jawahar Singhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I. Revenue about four lakhs.

Sirohi State is much broken up by hills of which the main feature is Mount Abu 5,630 feet. The Chiefs of Sirohi are Deora Rajputs a branch of the famous Chohan clan which furnished the last Hindu kings of Delhi. The present capital of Sirohi was built in 1425. The city suffered in the eighteenth century from the wars with Jodhpur and the depredations of wild Mina tribes. Jodhpur claimed suzerainty over Sirohi but this was disallowed and British protection was granted in 1823. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharao Shri Sir Sarup Ram Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I. The State is ruled by the Maharao with the assistance of Ministers and other officials. Revenue about 10½ lakhs.

Jaipur is the fourth largest State in Rajputana. It consists for the most part of level and open country. It was known to the ancients as Matsya Desh and was the kingdom of the King Virata mentioned in the Mahabharata. In whose court, the five Pandava brothers during their last period of exile resided. Bhairat in the Jaipur State has been identified.

The Maharaja of Jaipur is the head of the Kuchawa clan of Rajputs which claims descent from Kush son of Rama, King of Ayodhya, the famous hero of the famous epic poem, the Ramayana. This dynasty in Eastern Rajputana dates as far back as ninth century A.D. Dulha Rai, one of its most early rulers, made Amber the capital of the State in 1037 A.D. About the end of 12th century one of the rulers of the army of Prithvi Raj, Emperor of Delhi defeated Shihabuddin Ghori in the Khyber Pass and pursued him as far as Ghazni. Prithvi Raj had given his sister in marriage to him. History of India records several distinguished rulers of Jaipur from amongst whom the following require particular mention Man Singh 1506-1515. He was a victorious general, intrepid commander and

tautful administrator, whose fame had spread throughout the country. During most troublous times, he maintained imperial authority in Kabul and was the brilliant character of Akbar's time. Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh II (1700—44) was the first town planner in India. He removed the capital of the State to Jaipur and named it after him. During his time the State acquired great power and fame. He was a great mathematician and scientist of his age, and is famous for his astronomical observations which he built at several important centres in India. His court was visited by foreign astronomers. Maharaja Sawai Ram Singh 1835-1880. He was one of the most enlightened princes in India at that time. He encouraged art and learning. He embellished the city in various ways and improved the administration and material condition of the people. Maharaja Sawai Madho Singh II, 1880-1922. He was a very wise and intelligent ruler who followed in the foot-steps of his father. He maintained and steadily improved all the useful measures initiated by the late Maharaja. His administration was characterized by great liberality, catholicity and a broad outlook on affairs. His deep religious devotion and piety and unrivalled generosity and genuine and active sympathy are well known. His staunch loyalty and maintenance of the traditions of his house raised him in the estimation of the paramount power. He passed away after a long reign of 41 years. His late Highness' donations and subscriptions to works of charity are enormous and too numerous to detail. His Highness the present Maharaja Sawai Man Singh II Bahadur was born on 21st August 1911. He was adopted by His late Highness on 24th March 1921. He is a scion of the Rajawat House of Isarda, and ascended the gadi on the 7th September 1922, and was married to the sister of the present Maharajah of Jodhpur on the 30th January 1924. He studied at the Woolwich Military Academy in England and promises to be an ideal ruler having given abundant evidence already of his keen and sympathetic interest he takes in all that concerns the welfare of his people and mankind in general.

During the minority of the present Ruling Prince, the administration is carried on by a Council of State. A Chief Court of Judicature was established in 1924. The army consists of Cavalry, Infantry, Transport and Artillery. The normal revenue is about one crore and twenty five lakhs and expenditure about one crore and twenty lakhs. According to the Census of 1921, the population of the State is 23,88,802. In area, it is 12,632 sq. miles.

Kishangarh State is in the centre of Rajasthan and consists practically of two narrow strips of land separated from each other with an area of 358 square miles (population 90,000) the northern mostly sandy, the southern generally flat and fertile. The Ruling Princes of Kishangarh belong to the Rathor clan of Rajputs and are descended from Maharaja Kishan Singh (second son of Maharaja Udai Singh of Jodhpur) who founded the town of Kishangarh in 1611. The present ruler is His Highness Umdas Rajpal Bundel Maharajah Dhiraj Dikshit Yag

narain Singh Bahadur. He was born on the 26th January, 1886, and was educated at the Mayo College, Ameer, where he passed the Diploma Examination. He was married to the sister of Raja Bahadur Mahendrasagar in May, 1915. He went to England and travelled on the Continent with His Late Highness in 1921. On the demise of His Late Highness on 25th September 1926, he succeeded to the Gadi on the 24th November, 1926. He administers the State with the help of a Council. Revenue about 9 lakhs and expenditure 8 lakhs.

Lawa State or Chief of Rajputana is a separate chieftainship under the protection of the British Government and independent of any Native State. It formerly belonged to Jaipur and then became part of the State of Tonk. In 1867, the Nawab of Tonk murdered the Thakur's uncle and his followers and Lawa was then raised to its present State. The Thakurs of Lawa belonged to the Naruka sect of the Kachwaha Rajputs. The present Thakur Hansperdeep Singh was born on September 24 1923 and succeeded to the estate on 31st December 1929. The estate is under minority Administration. Revenue about Rs. 50 000.

Bundi State is a mountainous territory in the south east of Rajasthan. The Ruler of Bundi is the head of the Hara sect of the great clan of Chauhan Rajputs and the country occupied by this sect has for the last five or six centuries been known as Haroti. The State was founded in the early part of the thirteenth century and constant feuds with Mewar and Malwa followed. It threw in its lot with the Mahomedan emperors in the sixteenth century. In later times it was constantly ravaged by the Marathas and Pindaries and came under British protection in 1815 at which time it was paying tribute to Holkar. The present ruler of the State is His Highness Maharaja Raja Shri Jahwar Singhji Sahab Bahadur. He was born on 8th March 1898 and succeeded to the Gadi on 8th August 1927. His Highness is entitled to a Salute of 17 guns. Revenue about 12 lakhs. Expenditure nearly the same.

Tonk State—Partly in Rajasthan and partly in Central India, consists of six Parganas separated from one another. The ruling family belongs to the Salarsai Clan of the Gunawal Afghan tribe. The founder of the State was Nawab Muhammad Amir Khan Bahadur, General of Holkar's Army from 1798-1806. Holkar bestowed grants of land on him in Rajasthan and Central India and the land so granted him was consolidated into the present State. The present Ruler of the State is His Highness Nawab Hafiz Muhammad Saadat Ali Khan Bahadur who ascended the Maqad in 1930. The administration is conducted by the Nawab in consultation with the Council of four members viz:—(1) Shri Cecil Kave, Kt. C.M.I. (I.E. C.B.E. Revenue Member and Vice President. (2) B. T. D. Ferguson Judicial Member. (3) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Muhammad Ishaque Khan Financial Member and (4) Sahibzada Muhammad Abdus Fawwab Khan Home Member.

Secretary—Malik Muhammad Din.

Revenue Rs. 23,65,786. Expenditure 23,51,180

(Chaudhri Bhal) His appointed Mahara-
kumar Ganesh Pal Chief Member State Council
Pandit Shiva Kumar Chaturvedi B.A., M.A.,
F.R.S.

Kotah State belongs to the Hara section of the clan of Chauhan Rajputs and the early history of this house is up to the 17th century identical with that of the Bundi family from which they are an offshoot. Its existence as a separate State dates from 1625. It came under British protection in 1817. The present ruler is H. H. Lieut Colonel Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, GCSI, GCMG, GSR, who was born in 1873 and invested with full powers in 1896. In administration he is assisted by two members Rai Bahadur Pandit Bishwanath Nath, M.A., and Major-General Oankar Singh, CIE. The most important event of his reign has been the restoration on the deposition of the late Chief of the Jhalawar State of 15 out of the 17 districts which had been ceded in 1838 to form that principality. Revenues 53 lakhs. Expenditure 48 lakhs.

Jhalawar State consists of two separate tracts in the south-east of Rajputana with an area of 810 square miles yielding a revenue of about 8 lakhs of rupees. The ruling family belongs to the Thala clan of Rajputs. The present Ruler His Highness Maharaj Ranu Rajendra Singhji succeeded to the Gadi on 13th April 1929. He was born in 1900 and educated at the Mayo College, Agra and Oxford University. The new appointed Maharaj Kumar Vinodra Singh was born in England on 27th September 1921.

The Bikaner State in point of area is the seventh largest of all the Indian States and the second largest in Rajputana. The population of the State is 659,680 of whom 84 per cent are Hindus, 11 per cent Mohammedans and 1.5 per cent Jains. The Capital City of Bikaner, with its population including the suburbs of 69,410, is the 3rd city in Rajputana.

The northern portion of the State consists of level loam land, whilst the remainder is for the most part sandy and undulating. The average rainfall is about 12 inches. The water level over most of the State is from 150 feet to 300 feet deep.

The Ruling Family of Bikaner is of the B. H. clan of Rajput, and the State was founded in 1465 A.D. by Rao Bikan, son of Rao Jodha, Ruler of Marwar (Jodhpur) and after him both the Capital and the State are named after him. The first to receive the title of Rajah was one of Akbar's most distinguished Generals and it was during his reign that the present fort of Bikaner was built in 1593. The title of Maharajah was conferred on Rajah Anup Singhji by the Mughal Emperor in 1687 in recognition of his distinguished services in the capture of Goleonda. The conspicuous services of Maharajah Sardar Singhji who in the Jodha Mutiny of 1857 personally led his troops to cooperate with the British forces in the field on the outbreak of the Mutiny was acknowledged by the Government of India by the transfer of the Sub Tehsil of Talai, consisting of 41 villages from the adjoining Sirsa Tehsil in the Punjab to the Bikaner State.

The present Ruler, Lieutenant General His Highness Maharajadhiraj Raj Rajodhwar Narendra Shriromani Maharaja Sri Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur, GCSI, GCMG, GSOVO, GBE, KCB, ADC, ICD, is the 21st of a long line of distinguished rulers renowned for their bravery and statesmanship. He was born on the 3rd October 1880 and assumed full ruling powers in December, 1898. He was awarded the first class Maharaja Hind Medal for the active part he took in relieving the famine of 1899-1900 and soon after he went on active service to China in connection with the China War of 1900-1901 in command of his famous Ganga Risala and was mentioned in despatches and received the China Medal and a CIE. The State forces consist of the Camel Corps known as Ganga Risala, whose mentioned strength is 468 strong, an Infantry Battalion 619 strong, a Regiment of Cavalry, 342 strong including Body Guard, a Battery of Artillery (4 guns) and 235 strong and Camel Battery 30. At the outbreak of the Great War in 1914, His Highness immediately placed the services of himself and his State forces and all the resources of the State at the disposal of His Imperial Majesty the King Emperor and the Ganga Risala reinforced by the Infantry Regiment, which became incorporated in the Camel Corps in the field, rendered very valuable services in Egypt and Palestine. An extra force was also raised for internal security. His Highness personally went on active service in August 1914 and enjoyed the honour of having fought both in France and Egypt, and thus has the distinction of having fought for the British Crown on three continents, viz. Asia, Europe and Africa. He was mentioned in despatches both in Egypt and France. His Highness also played a very conspicuous political part during the period of the War when he went twice to Europe as the Representative of the Princes of India, once in 1917 to attend the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, and again in 1918-19 to attend the Peace Conference where he was one of the signatories to the treaty of Versailles.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns (personal) whilst the permanent local salute of the State is also 19. His Highness has also had the honour of being elected the first Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, an office which he filled most creditably for 5 years till 1925.

His Highness is assisted in the administration of the State by a Prime Minister and Chief Councillor in the person of Sir Manubhai N. Wadia, B.A., GSI, M.A., LL.B., formerly the Dewan of the Baroda State. A Legislative Assembly was inaugurated in 1913, and consists of 45 Members 18 out of whom are elected Members, and which meet twice a year.

The revenues of the State are over a crore of rupees and the State owns a large Rail way system, the total mileage being 750.00. Several projects for its extension are under contemplation, including the new scheme of rail way line connecting Delhi with Sindh and running through the Bikaner and Jaisalmer States. Hitherto there was practically no irrigation in the State, the crops depending only on the scanty rainfall, but the Gang Canal taken out

from the Betlej river has now been constructed and opened and will help to protect about 60,000 acres of land in the northern part of the State against famine from which it has suffered in the past 1,500. Squares of the Canal land have already been sold. Even larger expectations are laid out from the Bhakar Dam Project from which it is hoped that the remaining level lands in the north of the State will be irrigated. A coal mine is worked at Palans, 14 miles south from the Capital.

Alwar State is a hilly tract of land in the East of Rajputana. Its Rulers belong to the Lalawat Karnika branch of Kachharias, Solar Dynasty. This ruling family is descended from Raja Udal Karanjil, who was the common ancestor of both Alwar and Jaipur. The State was founded by Pratab Singh, who before his death in 1791 had secured possession of large territories. His successor sent a force to co-operate with Lord Lake in the war of 1803 and an alliance was concluded with him in that year. Disputes about successions mark the history of the State during the earlier part of the nineteenth century. The present chief, H. H. Raj Rishi Veerendra Shikromaji Dev Col. Shri Sewa Maharaja Sir Jey Singhji Bahadur, C.I.F. & C.S.I., who was born in 1882 succeeded his father in 1892 and was invested with powers in 1903. He carries on the administration with the assistance of five Ministers, Members

of His Highness's Council and various heads of departments. The normal revenue and expenditure are about Rs. 55 lakhs a year. The State besides maintaining other forces, maintains also the Imperial Service Troops which His Highness the late Maharaja was the first prince in Rajputana to offer (in 1888) in the defence of the Empire. Alwar stood first in recruiting in Rajputana at the time of the Great War and enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The capital is Alwar on the Rajputana Malwa Railway 98 miles west of Delhi.

RAJPUTANA

Agent to Governor-General—The Hon. Mr. L. W. Reynolds, C.I.F. & C.S.I.

UDIAHRA

Resident—A. C. Lothian

JAIPUR

Resident—A. C. Lothian

EASTERN RAJPUTANA STATES

Political Agent—(Officiating)—Lt. Col. E. J. D. Colvin

WESTERN RAJPUTANA STATES

Resident—(Officiating)—Lt. Col. R. J. Mansab.

HARAOOT AND TONK

Political Agent—Major L. E. Barton

SOUTHERN RAJPUTANA STATES

Political Agent—A. C. Lothian

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY

Central India Agency is the name given to the country occupied by the Indian States grouped together under the supervision of the Political Officer who is designated the Agent to the Governor-General in Central India with headquarters at Indore. As constituted in 1921—that is, after the separation of the Gwalior Residency—it is an irregularly formed tract lying in two sections, the Eastern comprising Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand Agencies between 23°-35' and 26°-19' North and 78°-10' and 83°-0' East and the Western consisting of the Bhopal and the Southern States and Malwa Agencies between 21°-22' and 24°-47' North and 74°-0' and 78°-50' East. The British districts of Jhansi and Sangor and the Gwalior State divide the Agency into two sections. The total area covered is 51,501.3 square miles and the population (1921) amounts to 59,97,023. The great majority of the people are Hindus. There are 28 Salute States of which the following 10 have direct treaty engagements with the British Government—Indore, Bhopal, Rewa, Orchha, Datia, Dhar, Dewas Senior Branch, Dewas Junior Branch, Samthar and Jaora. All of these are Hindu except Bhopal, Jaora and Rewa which are Muhammadan. Besides these there are 56 Minor States and Guaranteed Estates. Excluding the Indore State and the Jaipur and Lalgarh Estates, they are divided into following groups for administrative purposes—Bhopal Agency, 8 States and Estates (principal State Bhopal); Baghelkhand Agency, 12 States and Estates (principal State Rewa); Bundelkhand Agency, 22 States and Estates (principal State Orchha); Southern States and Malwa Agency, 22 States and Estates (principal States Dhar, Dewas Senior Branch, Dewas Junior Branch, Jaora and Ratlam).

The Agency may roughly be divided into two natural divisions, Central India West comprising the former Plateau division with much hilly land as lies on this side and Central India East comprising the former low lying area and the Eastern hilly tracts. The hilly tracts lie along the ranges of the Vindhya and Satpura. They consist of forest areas and agriculture is little practised there, the inhabitants being mostly members of the wild tribes. The territories of the different States are much intermingled and their political relations with the Government of India and each other are very varied.

The following is the area, population and revenue of the ten treaty States mentioned above—

Name	Area in square miles	Population	Revenue Lakhs Rs.
Indore	9,519	11,51,598	186
Bhopal	9,902	6,92,445	62
Rewa	13,000	14,01,524	60
Orchha	2,079	2,84,945	11
Datia	911	1,48,669	17
Dhar	1,777	2,30,388	17
Dewas Senior Branch	449	77,005	9
Dewas Junior Branch	419	66,998	6
Samthar	180	33,214	3
Jaora	601	85,778	12

Gwalior.—The house of Solanki traces its descent to a family of which one branch held the hereditary post of *petel* in a village near Satara.

the head of the family received a patent of rank from Aurangzeb. The founder of the Gwalior House was Ranoji Scindia who held a military rank under the Peshwa Bajirao in 1726 the Peshwa granted lands to Fuar, Holkar and Scindia empowering them to levy Chukra and Sariengukhi and retain half the amount for payment to their troops. In 1746 Ranaji Scindia accompanied Bajirao to Delhi where he and Malhar Rao Holkar distinguished themselves in military exploits. Ranaji fixed his headquarters at the ancient city of Ujjain which for the time became the Capital of the Scindia dominions. During the time of Mahadji Scindia and Daulat Rao Scindia Gwalior played an important part in shaping the history of India. Despite the partial reverse which Mahadji Scindia's troops suffered at the hands of the British in 1780, reverses which led to the treaty of Salbai (1782) Scindia's power remained unbroken. For the first time he was now recognized by the British as an independent sovereign and not as a vassal of the Peshwa.

In 1780 his power was firmly established in the State. While he was indulging ambitious hopes he fell a prey to fever which ended his remarkable career on 12th February 1794. Himself a military genius Mahadji Scindia's arms reached the zenith of their glory under the disciplined training of the celebrated French adventurer—De Bogue. Mahadji was succeeded by his grand nephew Daulat Rao in whose service Perron a Military Commander of great renown played a leading part. The strength of Scindia's Army was however considerably weakened by the reverses sustained at Ahmednagar, Assaye, Assagarh and Laswari. Daulat Rao Scindia died in 1827. Till his death he remained in undisputed possession of almost all the territory which belonged to him in 1805.

Daulat Rao was succeeded by Jankoji Rao who passed away in the prime of life. On his demise in 1843 intrigue and party spirit were rampant and the Army was in a state of mutiny with the result that it came into collision with the British forces at Malharpore and Panhar.

Jankoji Rao was succeeded by Jaji Rao whose adherence to the British cause during the dark days of Mutiny when his own troops deserted him, was unshakable. In 1861 he was created a Knight Grand Commander of the Most Excellent Order of the Star of India and in 1877 was made a Councillor of the Empress. Subsequently he received other titles and entered into a series of mutual exchanges of territories with the British Government. He died on the 26th June 1886 and was succeeded by his son Lieutenant General H. H. Maharaja Sir Madho Rao Scindia Alijah Bahadur, CVO, CSI, KCB, ADC to the King. He succeeded in 1886 and obtained powers in 1894. In 1901 he went to China during the war he held the rank of honorary Lieutenant General of the British Army and the honorary degree of LL.D., Cambridge and D.C.L. Oxon. He was also a Donor of the Order of St John of Jerusalem in England. He died in June 1925 and was succeeded by his son H. H. Jorwaraj Rao Scindia in September 1925 during whose minority the administration of the State will be carried on by a Council of Regency.

The ruler of the State enjoys a salute of 21 guns. The State is in direct relations with the Government of India.

The northern part of the State is traversed by the G.I.P. Railway and two branches run from Bhopal to Ujjain and from Bina to Baran. The Gwalior Light Railway runs for 250 miles from Gwalior to Etihad, from Gwalior to Khajur and from Gwalior to Shivpuri. The main industries are cotton spinning, which is done all over the State, shoe making made at Chanderi, leather work etc. The State maintains three regiments of Imperial Service Cavalry two battalions of Imperial Service Infantry and a transport corps. Lashkar the capital city is two miles to the south of the ancient city and the fort of Gwalior. Annual income about 2 crores and expenditure about 175 lakhs.

Indore—The founder of the House of the Holkar of Indore was Malhar Rao Holkar, born in 1703. His soldierly qualities brought him to the front under the Peshwa who took him into his service and employed him for his conquests. When the Maratha power was weakened at the battle of Panipat in 1761 Malhar Rao had acquired territories stretching from the Deccan to the Ganges as a reward for his career as a Military Commander. He was succeeded by his grandson. On his death without issue his mother Ahilya Bai became the ruler and her administration is still looked upon with admiration and reverence as that of a model ruler. She was succeeded by Tukoji Holkar who indeed had been associated with her to carry the Military Administration and hid in course of it distinguished himself in various battles. Tukoji was succeeded by Kashirao who was supplanted by Jivant Rao his step brother a person of remarkable daring strategy was exhibited in a number of engagements in which he had taken part. The brilliant success he obtained at the battle of Pona against the combined armies of Peshwa and Bhatia with him a dictator of Prerna for some time and he desired in consequence the independence of Holkar State. During 1804-5 he had a protracted war with the British closed by a Treaty which recognized the independence of Holkar State with practically no diminution of its territories and rights. Jivant Rao showed signs of insubordination from 1806 onwards and succumbed to that malady in 1811 when he was succeeded by his minor son Malhar Rao II. During the Regency which followed the power of the State was weakened by various causes the most important of which was the refractory conduct of the Military Commanders. On the outbreak of the war between the English and the Peshwa in 1817 some of these Commanders, with a part of the army rebelled against the authority of the State and were disposed to defend the Peshwa while the regent mother and her ministers were for friendship with the British. There was a battle between the British Army and this refractory portion of the Holkar Army which culminated in the latter's defeat. Holkar had to come to terms and to cede extensive territories and rights over the Rajput Princes to the British but the internal sovereignty remained unaffected. The Treaty of 1818 which embodied these provisions still regulates the relations between the British Government and the State.

Malhar Rao died a premature death in 1833. There followed the weak administration of Har-

Rao and his son. In 1844 Tukoji Rao II ascended the Throne but as he was a minor the administration was carried on by a Regency which was fortunate in having Sir Robert Hamilton, the Resident as its Adviser. The prosperity of the State revived a great deal during this administration and the progress was maintained after the Maharaja assumed powers in 1852. It was interrupted by the outbreak of Mutiny in 1857 in British India. This wave of disaffection did not leave some of the State troops untouched. The Maharaja with this adherents and the remaining troops remained however staunch to the British and gave every possible assistance to the British authorities at Indore and other places which was recognised by the British Government. The Maharaja died in 1888 after having effected various reforms in the administration and raised the position of the State to a high degree of prosperity and honour. He was succeeded by Shivaji Rao who reigned for 16 years and will be specially remembered for his beneficent measures in matters of education, sanitation, medical relief and abolition of transit duties. Tukoji Rao III succeeded in 1903 while yet a minor. The Regency Administration was continued till 1911 and it effected a number of reforms in all the branches of administration. The policy of the Regency was maintained by the Maharaja. With his assumption of powers the State advanced in education in general including female education, commerce and industrial development, municipal franchise and other representative institutions. This prosperity was specially reflected in the Indore City, the population of which rose by 40 per cent.

During the war of 1914 the State placed all its resources at the disposal of the British Government. Its troops took part in the various theatres of war and the contribution of the State towards the war and charitable funds in money was 41 lakhs and its subscriptions to the War Loans amounted to Rs. 82 lakhs while the contribution from the Indore people amounted to over one crore. This assistance received the recognition of the British Government.

The area of the State is 9,520 square miles with a revenue of about one crore and thirty eight lakhs.

The State now possesses one first grade College teaching up to M. A. and LL.B. 5 High Schools, 1 Sanskrit College and 645 other educational and 78 medical institutions. An Institute of Plant Industry for the improvement of cotton is located at Indore. It has also 9 spinning and weaving mills.

The State Army consists of about over 4,200 Officers and men. The State is traversed by the Holkar State Railway, the principal station of which is Indore. The B & C P Railway and the U B Section of the G & P Railway. Besides the trunk roads there are 600 miles of roads constructed and maintained by the State. The reforms introduced were the establishment of State Savings Banks, a scheme of Life Insurance for State officials, establishment of a Legislative Committee consisting

of seven elected Members out of a total of nine. Members introduction of a Scheme of Compulsory Primary Education in the City of Indore and measures for expansion of education in the rural areas.

His Highness Maharaja Tukoji Rao III abdicated in favour of his son. The present Maharaja, Chhatrapati Rao Holkar was born on 6th September 1906. He received his education in London from 1920-23 and has again proceeded to Oxford for higher education. He married a daughter of the Junior Chief of Kargil (Kohliapur) in February 1924. His educational career at Oxford in England having come to an end he returned to India arriving at Indore on the 12th November 1929 and received administrative training with Mr C. I. Williams C.B. He assumed full Ruling Powers on the 9th May 1930.

The chief imports are cloth, machinery, sugar salt and kerosene oil. The total imports in 1929 amounted to Rs. 2,38,85,476.

The chief exports are cotton cloth, tobacco and rice. The total exports in 1929 amounted to Rs. 1,03,86,631 (exclusive of the export of produce of the spinning and Pressing Mills) which was valued at Rs. 3,06,47,692. Cloth manufactured at the local mills is valued at Rs. 2 two crores and the local trade in which is limited to one crore. Cotton yarn duty at 34 per cent ad valorem has been abolished from 1st May 1926 and an industrial tax is levied on the cotton mills from the same date.

Bhopal—The principal Mohammedan State in Central India ranks next in importance to Hyderabad among the Mohammedan States of India. The ruling family was founded by Sardar Dost Mohammad Khan Durrani, a Pathan who after having served with distinction in the Army of the Emperor Aurangzeb, obtained the grant of Bhopal in 1709. With the disintegration of the Mughal Empire Bhopal State developed into an independent unit. In the early part of the 18th century the Nawab successfully withstood the invasions of the British and Bhopal and by the act of 1811 Bhopal and took to assist the British with a contingent of horse and to co-operate against the Marathi bands.

The present ruler of the State His Highness Sikandar Sulat Nawab Bahadur Yashwantrao Maharaj, succeeded his mother Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahani Begam on her abdication in May 1926. Having ably conducted the administration of the State for nearly ten years as Chief Secretary and after working as Member for Finance and Law and Justice Departments His Highness is personally conversant with each and every detail of the administration.

Prime Minister—Raj Bahadur B. V. Nupoo, B.A., LL.B., C.I.F.

His Highness is the head of the Government and is assisted by an Executive Council consisting of five Members and one Secretary, none of whom are given below.

Ali Marfat Ali, Sir Oswald Vernon Bonquet, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., F.R.S., President of the State Council and Member, Revenue Department.

Ab Maratani Rai Bahadur, Raja Oudh
Minister for Finance
and Justice and Public Works Department

Ab Maratani, Nasrud Mulk Moulvi Syed
Ali, M.A., L.B., Member, Bokhara
Ali

Ab Maratani Rafiq Qadi Faizul Uddin Moulvi
Mohammad Anwarul Haq M.A., M.L.A. Minister
in charge of Public Health and Education
Department

Ab Maratani Major H. De N. T. N. Member
in charge of the Army Department

Secretary, Mr. Dhar, Dulari Raha Ali
Wali Mohammad

The Political Department is under His
Highness direct control the Ministry in charge
of the Department being Ali Qadi Kazi Ali
Husain Ali

The work of legislation with the power of
drawing the budget moving resolutions and
asking questions is entrusted to a representative
legislative Council inaugurated in 1927.
The Ryotwari System in which every tenant
holds his land direct from Government has
lately been introduced. The State is rich
in minerals and valuable and the soil
is fertile which comprises more than two-thirds
of the total consists mostly of rich black cotton
soil producing cotton, wheat, sugar cane,
tobacco and other crops. The State contains
many remains of great archaeological interest
including the famous Bhauji Topes which date
from the end of the 1st century B.C.

Along with other troops, the State maintains
one full strength Infantry Battalion. The
capital, Bhopal City situated on the Northern
bank of an extensive lake is the junction for
the Royal Trunk section of the Great Indian
Peninsular Railway.

Bewa—This state lies in the Bagholband
Agency and falls into two natural divisions separated
by the scarp of the Kaimur range. The
area is 13,000 sq. miles with a population of
14 lakhs. Its Chiefs are Baghel Rajputs descended
from the Solanki clan which ruled over
Gujarat from the tenth to the thirteenth century.
In 1812, a body of Pindaries raided
Narasapur from Bewa territory and the Prince,
who had previously rejected overtures for an
alliance, was called upon to accede to a treaty
acknowledging the protection of the British
Government. During the Mutiny, Bewa
offered troops to the British, and for his services
these various parganas, which had been seized
by the Marathas, were restored to the Bewa
Chief. The present chief is H. H. Bandhawesh
Maharaja Sir Gulab Singhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I.,
who was born in 1908. He was married in 1919
to the sister of His Highness the Maharaja of
Jodhpur. Upon the death of his father
(of H. H. Maharaja Sir Venkat Ramji
Singh Bahadur, on 30th October, 1918, H. H.
Bandhawesh Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur
succeeded to the gadi on 31st October
as a minor. During the period of minority the
State was administered by a Council of Regency
with H. H. Maharaja Sir Rajan Singh Bahadur
Colonel, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C., of Bikaner as

Regent. H. H. Bandhawesh Maharaja Gulab
Singh Bahadur attained majority in 1922
and was invested with full ruling power
on 31st October 1922, by H. H. the
Viceroy and the administration of the
State is now carried on by him with the
aid of four Commissioners. His Highness has
got a son and heir named Maharaja Kumar
Marand Singhji born on 18th March 1928.

His Highness second marriage with the
daughter of H. H. Maharaja of Kishengarh was
performed on the 18th February 1925.

Dhar—This State, under the Agency for
Southern States in Central India, takes its name
from the old city of Dhar, long famous as the
capital of the Panwara Rajputs, who ruled
over Malwa from ninth to the thirteenth
century and from whom the present chiefs of
Dhar—Lower Marathas—claim descent.
In the middle of the 18th century the
Chief of Dhar, Anand Rao was one of the
leading chiefs of Central India sharing with
Holkar and Scindia the rule of Malwa. The
State came into treaty relations with the British
Government in virtue of the treaty of 1819.
Lt. Colonel H. H. the Maharaja Sir Udayi Rao
Puar Sahib Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., K.C.M.,
died on 30th July 1926 and the government of
the State is carried on by a Council with H. H.
the Maharaja Sahib as President. There are 11
feudatories and 9 Bhumas of whom 13 hold a
guarantee from the British Government. The
average expenditure is about 15 lakhs. Rao
Bahadur K. Nankar is Dewan of the State
and Vao Prasad of the Council. The present
Ruler His Highness Maharaja Anand Rao Puar
Sahib Bahadur is a minor.

Jaora State—This State is in the Malwa
Political Agency covering an area of about
601 square miles with a total population of
85,817, and has its headquarters at Jaora
town. The Chiefs of Jaora claim descent
from Abdul Majid Khan, an Afghan of the
Ispak Khel, from Swat, who came to India
to acquire wealth. The first Nawab was
Ghafoori Khan who obtained the State about
the year 1808. The present Chief is Lt.-Col. His
Highness Ikhraun Daulah Nawab Sir Mohammad
Iftikhar Ali Khan Sahib Bahadur Saadat-e-Jang
K.C.I.E., who was born in 1883. His Highness
is an Honorary Lieutenant Colonel in the Indian
Army.

In the administration of the State His Highness
is assisted by a Council constituted as under—
President—His Highness The Nawab Sahib
Vice President—Khan Bahadur Sahibzada
Mohammad Sirras Ali Khan, Chief Secretary
Members—(1) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada
Mohammad Sher Ali Khan, Military Secretary,
(2) Sahibzada Mohammad Saifur Ali Khan,
Private Secretary, (3) Munshi Ram Dayal,
Financial Secretary, (4) Munshi Gulam Ali,
Senior Member, Revenue Board.

A Chief Court with a Chief Justice and two
Puisne Judges and a Revenue Board with two
members have also been established.

The soil of the State is among the richest
in Malwa, being mainly of the best black variety
bearing excellent crops of wheat, cotton and
poppy. The average annual revenue is
Rs. 11,67,000.

Rutlam—Is the premier Rajput State in the Malwa Agency. It covers an area of 871 square miles including that of the Jagir of Khara in the Kuchalgari Chiefship, which pays an annual tribute to the Rutlam Darbar. The State was founded by Raja Ratan Singhji, a great grandson of Raja Udal Singh of Jodhpur, in 1632. The Ruler of Rutlam is the religious head of the Rajputs of Malwa, and important caste questions are referred to him for decision. The State enjoys full and final civil and criminal powers. The present Ruler of Rutlam is Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Rajan Singh, C.O.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.G., to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, who was born in 1880, educated at Daly College, Indore, received military training in Imperial Cadet Corps and invested with full powers in 1908. His Highness served in the war in France and Egypt from 1915 to 1918. He was mentioned in despatches and received the Ciorix d'Officiers de Legion d'Honneur Salute 13 guns local 15 guns.

Deputy—Raj Kumar Sirdar Singh of Shahpura.

Datia State—The rulers of this State, in the Bundelkhand Agency, are Bundela Rajputs of the Orchha house. The territory was granted by the chief of Orchha to his son Bhagwan Rao in 1826, this was extended by conquest and by grants from the Delhi emperors. The present Ruler Major His Highness Mahesha Lokendra Sir Govind Singh Ja Deo Bahadur, K.C.S.I., 1918 who was born in 1886 and succeeded in 1907 married 1902 enjoys a salute of 15 guns. He placed all his resources and his personal services at the disposal of the Imperial Government during the Great War and established a War Hospital at Datia. He is a progressive ruler and has created a Legislative Council and introduced many useful and important reforms in his State. He is a Vice-President of St. John Ambulance Association, a patron of Red Cross Society and has recently offered to the Imperial City of Delhi the life size marble statue of Lord Reading, the late Viceroy. His Highness is a famous big game shot and has shot more than 120 tigers. The late Apparent Raja Bahadur Balbhair Singh born 1907, has married a daughter of the Maharaja Bahadur of Bikaner and is a very promising prince. His Highness has got a second son and a grandson.

Orchha State—The rulers of this State are Bundela Rajputs claiming to be descendants of the Gahawars of Benares. It was founded as an independent State in 1048 A.D. It entered into relations with the British by the treaty made in 1812. His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, C.O.S.I. & C.I.E. died in March 1930 and has been succeeded by his grandson His Highness Sawai Mahendra Maharaja Vir Singh Deo Bahadur the present ruler. The ruler of the State has the hereditary titles of His Highness Sarma and Maharaja Bundelkhand Maharaja Mahendra Sawai Bahadur. The State has a population of about 284,948 and an area of 2,080 square miles. The capital is Tikamgarh, 80 miles from Lucknow Station, on the G. I. P. Railway. Orchha, the old capital, has fallen into decay but is a place of interest on account of its magnificent buildings of which the finest were erected by Maharaja Sir Singh Deo, the most famous ruler of the State (1744-1827).

GWALIOR.

Resident—Officiating—Lieut Col C H Gabriel
O V O

BHOPAL

Political Agent—L G L Evans

BUNDELKHAND

Political Agent—Major G T Fisher

BAGHELKHAND

Political Agent—Major K A C Evans-Gordon

Sikkim

Sikkim is bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet on the south-east by Bhutan, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling and on the west by Nepal. The population consists of Bhutias Lepchas and Nepaleses. It forms the direct route to the Chumbi Valley in Tibet. The main axis of the Himalayas, which runs east and west forms the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet. The Singalila and Chola ranges which run southwards from the main chain separate Sikkim from Nepal on the west and from Tibet and Bhutan on the east. On the Singalila range rise the great snow peaks of Kanchenjunga (28,148 feet), one of the highest mountains in the world. The Chola range which is much loftier than that of Singalila, leaves the main chain at the Doochya La.

Tradition says that the ancestors of the Rajas of Sikkim originally came from eastern Tibet. The State was twice invaded by the Gurikhas at the end of the eighteenth century. On the outbreak of the Nepal War in 1814, the British formed an alliance with the Raja of Sikkim and at the close of the war the Raja was rewarded by a considerable cession of territory. In 1835 the Raja granted the site of Darjeeling to the British and received Rs 12,000 annually in lieu of it. The State was previously under the Government of Bengal, but was brought under the direct supervision of the Government of India in 1866. The State is thinly populated, the area being 2,818 square miles and the population 81,721 chiefly Buddhists and Hindus. The most important crops are maize and rice. There are several trade routes through Sikkim from Darjeeling District into Tibet. In the convention of 1890 provision was made for the opening of a trade mart but the results were disappointing and the failure of the Tibetans to fulfil their obligations resulted in 1904 in the despatch of a mission to Lhasa, where a new convention was signed. Trade with the British has increased in recent years, and is now between 40 and 50 lakhs yearly. A number of good roads have been constructed in recent years. The present ruler, His Highness Maharaja Sir Tashi Namgyal, C.O.S.I. was born in 1893 and succeeded in 1914. His Highness was invested with full ruling powers on the 5th April 1918. The title of a C.I.E. was conferred upon the Maharaja on the 1st January 1918 and K.O.S.I. on 1st January 1923. The average revenue is Rs. 6,73,976.

Political Officer in Sikkim—Lt.-Col J. L. H. Weir.

Bhutan.

Bhutan extends for a distance of approximately 180 miles east and west along the southern slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas adjacent to the northern border of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Its area is 18,000 square miles and its population, consisting of Buddhists and Hindus, has been estimated at 300,000. The country formerly belonged to a tribe called Tsepa but was wrested from them by some Tibetan soldiers about the middle of the seventh century. British relations with Bhutan commenced in 1773 when the Bhutias invaded the principality of Cooch Behar and British aid was invoked by that State. After a number of raids by the Bhutanes into Assam, an envoy (the Hon A. Eden) was sent to Bhutan, who was grossly insulted and compelled to sign a treaty surrendering the Duars to Bhutan. On his return the treaty was disallowed and the Duars annexed. This was followed by the treaty of 1865, by which the State's relations with the Government of India were satisfactorily regulated. The State formerly received an allowance of half a lakh a year from the British Government in consideration of the cession in 1865 of some areas on the southern borders. This allowance was doubled by a new treaty concluded in January 1910 by which the Bhutanes Government bound itself to be guided by the advice of the British Government in regard to its external relations while the British Government undertook to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. On the occasion of the Tibet Mission of 1904 the Bhutias gave strong proof of their friendly attitude. Not only did they consent to the survey of a road through their country to Chumbi but their ruler, the Tenzig Penlop, accompanied the British troops to Lhasa, and assisted in the negotiations with the Tibetan authorities. For these services he was made K.C.I.E. and he has since entertained the British Agent hospitably at his capital. The ruler is now known as H.H. the Maharaja of Bhutan, Sir Ugen Wangchuk K.C.I.E., K.C.I.E. At the head of the Bhutan Government there are nominally two supreme authorities, the Dharma Raja known as Shabdrig Rinpoche, the spiritual head, and the Deb or Depa Raja, the temporal ruler. The Dharma Raja is regarded as a very high incarnation of Buddha, far higher than the ordinary incarnations in Tibet of which there are several hundreds. On the death of a Dharma Raja a year or two is allowed to elapse and his reincarnation then takes place always in the Choje, or royal family of Bhutan.

Cultivation is backward and the chief crop is maize. The military force consists of local levies under the control of the different chiefs. There are no military values.

Nepal.

The kingdom of Nepal is a narrow tract of country extending for about 580 miles along the southern slope of the central axis of the Himalayas. It has an area of about 68,000 square miles, with a population of about 5,580,000 chiefly Hindus. The greater part of the country is mountainous, the lower slopes being culti-

vated. Above these is a rugged broken wall of rock leading up to the chain of snow-clad peaks which culminate in Mount Everest (29,002 feet) and others of slightly less altitude. The country before the Gurkha occupation was split up into several small kingdoms under Newar kings. The Gurkhas under Prithvi Narayan Shah overran and conquered the different kingdoms of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhadgaon and other places during the latter half of the 18th century and since then have been rulers of the whole of Nepal. In 1846 the head of the Rana family Maharaja Jung Bahadur Rana, obtained from the sovereign the perpetual right to the office of Prime Minister of Nepal and the right is still enjoyed by the descendants of the Rana family. In 1850 Jung Bahadur paid a visit to England and was thus the first Hindu Chieftain to leave India and to become acquainted with the power and resources of the British nation. The relations of Nepal with the Government of India are regulated by the treaty of 1816 and subsequent agreements by which a representative of the British Government is received at Kathmandu. By virtue of the same treaty Nepal maintains a Representative at Delhi and her treaty relations with Tibet allow her to keep a Resident at Lhasa of her own. Her relation with China is of a friendly nature. Ever since the conclusion of the treaty of 1816 the friendly relations with the British Government have steadily been maintained. During the rule of the late Prime Minister it has been at its height as is evidenced by the valuable friendly help in men and money which has been given and which was appreciatively mentioned in both the Houses of Parliament and by Mr. Asquith in his Guildhall speech in 1915. The message from His Majesty the King Emperor to the Nepalese Prime Minister sent on the termination of hostilities and published at the time as also the Viceroy's valedictory address to the Nepalese contingent on the eve of their return home after having laudably fulfilled their mission in India eloquently and gratefully acknowledged the valuable help rendered by Nepal during the four and a half years of war. In recognition of this help Nepal receives an annual gift of Rupees ten lakhs from the British Government to be paid in perpetuity. To further strengthen and cement the bonds of friendship that have subsisted so long between the two countries a new Treaty of friendship was concluded between the Governments of Nepal and Great Britain on the 21st December 1923.

From the foregoing account of the history of Nepal it will be seen that the Government of the country has generally been in the hands of the Minister of the day. Since the time of Jung Bahadur this system of government has been clearly laid down and defined. The sovereign, or Maharajadhiraja, as he is called, is but a dignified figure-head, whose position can best be likened to that of the Emperor of Japan during the Shogunate. The present King, His Majesty Maharajadhiraja Tribhuvana Bir Bikram Jung Bahadur Shah Bahadur Shum Shere Jung Deva, ascended the throne on the death of his father in 1911. The real ruler of the country is the Minister who, while enjoying complete monopoly of power couples with his

official rank the exalted title of Maharaja. Next to him comes the Commander in Chief, who ordinarily succeeds to the office of Minister.

The present Minister at the head of affairs of Nepal is Maharaja Bhim, Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana KCSI, KCO, Honorary Major General, British Army, and Hon Colonel 4th Gurkhas, who succeeded the late Maharaja Chandra Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana as Prime Minister and Supreme Commander in Chief in November 1920. A man of proved ability as the Commander in Chief of Nepal, he has already inaugurated several important works of public utility. With consummate skill and political acumen he averted a breach of relations with Tibet and in his public utterances has expressed an earnest desire to uphold and maintain the traditional friendship with the British Government.

Rice, wheat and maize form the chief crops in the lowlands. Mineral wealth is supposed to be great, but, like other sources of revenue has not been developed. Communications in the State

are primitive, but since 1920 the Government has already undertaken the construction of a good and permanent road for vehicular traffic from Amlekhgunj to Bhimphedi—the base of a steep ridge in the main route to the capital of the country from British India—and also has installed a ropeway to connect this base with the capital proper covering a distance of 14 miles. A light railway from Amlekhgunj covering a distance of 25 miles in the route and connecting with the B & N W Ry at Raxaul also has been constructed and opened for traffic since March 1927. It has also put up a telephone over this route connecting the capital with the frontier township of Birgunje near Raxaul. The revenue is about two crores of rupees per annum. The standing army is estimated at 45,000 the highest posts in it being filled by relations of the minister. The State is of considerable archaeological interest and many of the sites connected with scenes of Buddha's life have been identified in it by the remains of inscribed pillars.

British Envoy—Lieut Col C T Daukes, CIE

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER STATES.

The Indian States of the North West Frontier Provinces are Amb Chitral, Dir and Phulera. The total area is about 7,704 square miles and the population mainly Mahomedan, is 1,622,094. The average annual revenue of the first three is about Rs. 4,55,000, that of Phulera is unknown.

Amb.—Is only a village on the western bank of the Indus in Independent Tanawal.

Chitral.—Runs from Dir to the south of the Hindu-Kush range in the north, and has an area of about 4,600 square miles. The ruling dynasty has maintained itself for more than three hundred years, during the greater part of which the State has constantly been at war with its neighbours. It was visited in 1885 by the Lockhart Mission and in 1889 on the establishment of a political agency in Gilgit, the ruler of Chitral received an annual subsidy from the British Government. That subsidy was increased two years later on condition that the ruler, Amam-ul-Mulk, accepted the advice of the British Government in all matters connected with foreign policy and frontier defence. His sudden death in 1902 was followed by a dispute as to the succession. The eldest son Nizam-ul-Mulk was recognised by Government but he was mur-

dered in 1905. A war was declared by Umra Khan of Jandul and Dir against the Infidels and the Agent at Gilgit, who had been sent to Chitral to report on the situation was besieged with his escort and a force had to be despatched (April 1896) to their relief.

The three valleys of which the State consists are extremely fertile and continuously cultivated. The internal administration of the country is conducted by His Highness Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk, KCSI, the Mehtar of Chitral and the foreign policy is regulated by the Political Agent at Malakand.

Dir.—The territories of this State, about 5,000 square miles in area, include the country drained by the Panjkora and its affluents down to the junction of the former river with the Bajaur River. The Nawab of Dir is the overlord of the country, exacting allegiance from the petty chiefs of the clans. Dir is mainly held by Yusufai Pathans, the old non-Pathan inhabitants being now confined to the upper portion of the Panjkora Valley known as the Bashkar.

Political Agent for Dir, Swat and Chitral—J W Thomson CIE

STATES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Madras Presidency includes 5 Indian States covering an area of 10,643 square miles. Of these, the States of Travancore and Cochin represent ancient Hindu dynasties. Pudukottai is the inheritance of the chieftain called the Toddiman Ranganapalle and Sandur two petty States of which the first is ruled by a Nawab, the second by a British district.

Name.	Area sq. miles.	Population.	Estimated Gross Revenue in lakhs of rupees.
Travancore	7,625	4,000,082	238.54
Cochin	1,617	979,019	78.50
Pudukottai	117	428,813	22.61
Ranganapalle	255	36,692	3.58
Sandur	167	11,884	1.42

These States were brought into direct relation with the Government of India on October 1st 1923.

Travancore.—This State, which has an area of 7,624.84 square miles and a population of 4,006,082 with a revenue of Rs. 248.05 lakhs occupies the south-west portion of the Indian Peninsula forming an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Comorin. The early history of Travancore is in great part traditional, but there is little doubt that H. H. the Maharaja is the representative of the Chera dynasty, one of the three great Hindu dynasties which exercised sovereignty at one time in Southern India. The petty chiefs, who had subsequently set up as independent rulers within the State, were all subdued, and the whole country, included within its present boundaries, was consolidated

and brought under one rule, by the Maharaja Hariharada Varma (1728-38). The English first settled at Anjengo, a few miles to the north of Trivandrum, and built a factory there in 1684. In the wars in which the East India Company were engaged in Madras and Tanjore, in the middle of the 18th century, the Travancore State gave assistance to the British authorities. Travancore was reckoned as one of the staunch allies of the British Power and was accordingly included in the Treaty made in 1784 between the East India Company and the Sultan of Mysore. To protect the State from possible invasions by Tippu, an arrangement was come to in 1788 with the East India Company, and in 1795 a formal treaty was concluded by which the Company agreed to protect Travancore from all foreign enemies. In 1805 the annual subsidy to be paid by Travancore was fixed at 8 lakhs of rupees.

H H the Maharaja (6 November 1912) succeeded the deceased in September 1914. During the minority the State is ruled by His Highness Maharaja Setu Lakshmi Bai, C.I., aunt of the Maharaja, as Regent on his behalf. The work of legislation is entrusted to a Council brought into existence in 1884 and as last reconstituted in 1921, has a majority of non-official elected members. The Council is invested with the powers of voting on the budget, moving resolutions and asking questions involving supplementary questions. Women are placed on a footing of complete equality with men in the matter of both franchise and membership. This is the largest measure of constitutional reform introduced in any Indian State. A representative assembly known as the Sri Mulam Popular Assembly meets once a year. Its members who are the elected representatives of the people are given an opportunity to express direct to the Dewan their wants and wishes and their views regarding the administrative measures adopted from time to time. Local Self Government on a small scale exists in the more important towns. The State supports a military force of 1,473 men. Education has advanced considerably in recent years and the State takes a leading place in that respect. In the matter of female education the State has a leading place among Indian States and the British Indian Provinces. The principal food-grain grown is rice, but the main source of agricultural wealth is the cocoanut. Other crops are pepper, areca nut, jack fruit, sugar cane and tobacco. Rubber and tea are among other important products. Cotton weaving and the making of matting from the coir are among the chief industries. The State is well provided with roads and with a natural system of back waters, besides canals and rivers navigable for country crafts. One line of railway about one hundred miles in length cuts across the State from east to west and then runs along the Coast to the Capital. More Railway lines are in contemplation. The capital is Trivandrum.

Agent to the Governor-General—A N J (Sri) CIX 109

Dewan—S Subrahmanya Aiyar, M.A., B.L.

Cochin.—This State on the south west coast of India is bounded by the Malabar District of the Madras Presidency and the State of Travancore.

Very little is known of its early history. According to tradition, the Rajas of Cochin hold the territory in right of descent from Cheraman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as an independent Ruler. In 1502, the Portuguese were allowed to settle in what is now British Cochin and in the following year they built a fort and established commercial relations in the State. In the earlier wars with the Zamorin of Calicut they assisted the Rajas of Cochin. The influence of the Portuguese on the west coast began to decline about the latter part of the sixteenth century, and in 1663 they were ousted from the town of Cochin by the Dutch with whom the Raja entered into friendly relations. About a century later in 1759, when the Dutch power began to decline, the Raja was attacked by the Zamorin of Calicut who was expelled with the assistance of the Raja of Travancore. In 1776 the State was conquered by Hyder Ali to whom it remained tributary and subordinate, and subsequently to his son Tippu Sultan. A treaty was concluded in 1791 between the Raja and the East India Company by which His Highness agreed to become tributary to the British Government for his territories which were then in the possession of Tippu, and to pay a subsidy.

His Highness Raja Sri Sri Rama Varmah, C.O.S.I., C.O.I.E. who was born in 1852 and who succeeded the deceased in 1895 having abdicated in December, 1914 His Highness Sri Sri Rama Varmah C.O.I.E. who was born on 6th October, 1858, succeeded to the throne and was duly installed as Raja on the 21st January 1915. The administration is conducted under the control of the Maharaja whose chief Minister and Executive Officer is the Dewan, Rao Bahadur T. S. Narayana Iyer, M.A., B.L. The forests of Cochin form one of its most valuable assets. They abound in teak, ebony, blackwood, and other valuable trees. Rice forms the staple of cultivation. Cocoanuts are largely raised in the sandy tracts and their products form the chief exports of the State. Communications by road and back waters are good, and the State owns a line of railway from Shoranur to Kanyakulam the capital of the State, and a Forest Steam Tramway used in developing the forests. The State supports a force of 32 officers and 837 men.

Agent to the Governor-General—A N J. Cater CIX, 116

Pudukkottai.—This State is bounded on the north and west by Trichinopoly, on the south by Ramnad and on the east by Tanjore. In early times a part of the State belonged to the Chola Kings and the southern part to the Pandya Kings of Madurai. Relations with the English began during the Carnatic wars. During the siege of Trichinopoly by the French in 1762 the Tondaiman of the time did good service to the Company's cause by sending them provisions, although his own country was on at least one occasion ravaged as a consequence of his fidelity to the English. In 1756 he sent some of his troops to assist Muhammad Yusuf the Company's sepoy commandant, in settling the Madurai and Tanjore.

countries. Subsequently he was of much service in the wars with Haidar Ali. His services were rewarded by a grant of territory subject to the conditions that the district should not be alienated (1806). Apart from that there is no treaty of arrangement with the Raja. His Highness Sri Bahadur Das Raja Rajagopala Tondimad Bahadur, the present ruler, is a minor. He was installed as Raja on 10-11-28. The administration of the State is carried on by a Council of Administration. The various departments are constituted on the British India model. The principal food crop is rice. The forests, which cover about one-seventh of the State, contain only small timber. There are no large industries. The State is well provided with roads, but Pudukkottai is the only municipal town in the State.

Agent to the Governor-General—A. N. L. Cater, Esq. C.I.E., I.C.S.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General—vacant.

Bangalore—This is a small State in two detached portions which in the eighteenth century passed from Hyderabad to Mysore and back again to Hyderabad. The control over it was ceded to the Madras Government by the Nizam in 1800. The present ruler is Nawab Meer Fasih Ali Khan Bahadur. The chief food-grain is cholam. The Nawab pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The revenue of the State is over 4 lakhs. The Nawab enjoys a salute of 9 guns.

Agent to the Governor-General—A. N. L. Cater, Esq. C.I.E., I.C.S.

Assistant Agent to the Governor-General—vacant.

STATES OF WESTERN INDIA

Owing to the large number of States concerned and the interlacing of their territories with neighbouring British districts, the transfer of States under the Bombay Government to direct political relations with the Government of India (which was advocated in the Montagu Chelmsford Report on the Constitutional Reforms) had been delayed. The first stage of that process, however, was carried out in October, 1924, when a new Residency was created in direct relation with the Government of India, comprising the whole of the compact area making up the Kathiawar, Cutch and Palanpur Agencies under the Government of Bombay.

Resident of the First Class and Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India—The Hon. Mr. E. H. Aclay, C.I.E., I.O.S.

Judicial Commissioner in the States of Western India—G. O. Shannon, Esq., I.O.S.

Kathiawar—Kathiawar is the peninsula lying immediately to the north of Gujarat in the Bombay Presidency. Its extreme length is about 220 miles and its greatest breadth about 166 miles, the area being 23,445 square miles. There are nearly 200 separate States in Kathiawar, which for purposes of administrative convenience is sub-divided into subordinate Agen-

Sandur—The State is almost surrounded by the District of Bellary. The State is under the Political Control of the Agent to the Governor-General Madras States. After the destruction of the Empire of Vijayanagar in 1565 the State came to be held by semi-independent chiefs under the nominal sovereignty of the Sultan of Bijapur and in 1728 one of these chiefs, a Poligar of Bodar tribe, was turned out by an ancestor of the present Raja named Siddoji Rao of the Bhosle family of the famous Maharatta Chief Sivaji, they were Senapathies of Sivaji. In Sivaji Rao's time the State came under the Madras Government and his heirs in perpetuity with full powers, Civil and Criminal. In 1876 the title of Raja was conferred on the Chief as a hereditary distinction. The present ruler is Raja Bhairam Sahwan Rao Anna Sahab Ghorpade who was invested with full ruling powers in February 1930.

The Raja pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The most important staple crop is cholam. Teak and sandalwood are found in small quantities in the forests.

The minerals of the State possess unusual interest. The hematite found in it are probably the richest ore in India. An outcrop near the southern boundary forms the crest of a ridge 150 feet in height, which apparently consists entirely of pure steel grey crystalline hematite (specular iron) of intense hardness. Some of the softer ores used to be smelted, but the industry has been killed by the cheaper English iron. Manganese deposits have also been found in three places, and during 1911 to 1914 over 323,000 tons of manganese ore were transported by one company.

Agent to the Governor-General—A. N. L. Cater, Esq., C.I.E., I.C.S.

are known as the Western and Eastern Kathiawar Agencies. The Western Kathiawar Agency comprises the Halar and Sorath Prants, while the Eastern Kathiawar Agency comprises the Prants of Jhalawad and Gohirwad but in whichever of these two Agencies States with Salutes of guns are situated they are in direct political relations with the Hon. Mr. the Agent to the Governor-General. The history of the British connection with Kathiawar commences from Colonel Walker's settlement of 1807. In 1863, the States in Kathiawar were classified into 7 classes and although classes have since been abolished, the various jurisdictions still remained graded, as fixed in 1863.

Cutch—Before the creation in October 1924 of the Western India States Agency the relations of the Cutch Durbar with the Bombay Government were conducted through a Political Agent in charge of the Cutch Agency, with Headquarters at Bhuj. The Cutch Agency and the appointment of the Political Agent have since been abolished and the State of Cutch is in direct relations with the Hon. Mr. the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India.

Benares Kantha Agency—This group of States in Gujarat, comprises of the Third Class States of Tharad, Fourth Class States of Vav, Fifth Class State of Malek Joravar Khanji of

Varahi and a few minor estates and talukas. Before the year 1920 it was known as the Jalandpur Agency, when it also comprised of the First Class States of Palanpur and Rudhanpur. Subsequent upon the transference of these two First Class States of Palanpur and Rudhanpur to the direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Hon. the Agent to the Governor General in the State of Western India the group comprising the remaining 112 minor States, Estates and Talukas, has been named the Bharat Kashi Agency and in June 1921, the British Government has been re-named the Bharat Kashi Agency and in June 1921, the British Government has been re-named the Bharat Kashi Agency and in June 1921, the British Government has been re-named the Bharat Kashi Agency.

Bhavnagar—This State lies at the head and west end of the Gulf of Cambay. The Gohel Rajputs to which tribe the Ruler of Bhavnagar belongs are said to have settled in the country about the year 1380, under Bhajji, from whom three sons—Rajaji, Baraji, and Bhaji—descended respectively the chiefs of Bhavnagar, Rajaji and Palitana. An intimate connexion was formed between the Bombay Government and Bhavnagar in the eighteenth century when the chief of that State took pains to destroy the pirates which infested the neighbouring seas. The State was split up when Gujarat and Kathiawar were divided between the Peshwa and the Gekwar but the various claims over Bhavnagar were consolidated in the hands of the British Government in 1801. The State pays an annual tribute of Rs 128,000 to the British Government. Rs 3581 5-0 as Peskash to Laroda and Rs 22,808 as Zorali to Junagadh. During the minority of His Highness the Minor Maharaja Kishna Kumarsinhji who succeeded to the gadi on the death of his father Maharaja Bhajji Keshri on 17th July 1919 the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration. The Council consists of Mr. Prabhakhar D. Patani, K.C.S.I. as President and Lieut. Colonel A. H. H. Mosse as Vice President. The other members of the Council are Dewan Bahadur T. K. Tirvodi and Khir Bahadur S. A. Goghawala, M.A., L.B. Bar at law. One noteworthy feature in the administration is the complete separation of judicial from executive functions and the decentralisation of authority is another. The authority and powers of all the Heads of Departments have been clearly defined, and each within his own sphere is independent of the others, being directly responsible to the Council.

The chief products of the State are grain, cotton, sugar-cane and salt. The chief manufactures are oil, copra, and brass vessels and cloth. The Bhavnagar State Railway is 294 miles in length. The capital of the State is the town and port of Bhavnagar, which has a good and safe harbour for shipping and carried on an extensive trade as one of the principal markets and harbours of export for cotton in Kathiawar. Bhavnagar supports 270 State Landers and 250 State Infantry.

Population (in 1921) was 426,404 of whom 86 per cent were Hindus and 8 per cent Mahomedans. The average income for the last five years was Rs 10,29,734, and the average expenditure Rs 34,32,739.

Dhrangadhra State is a State of the First Class in Kathiawar with a population of nearly one lakh and an area of 1,187 square miles exclusive of the Dhrangadhra portion of the Rann

of Anich. The ruler of Dhrangadhra is the head of the Jhala family of Rajput, originally called the Makvana. This Rajput clan is of great antiquity having migrated to Kathiawar from the North, establishing itself first at Patli in the Ahmedabad District thence moving to Halvad and finally settling in its present seat being the guardians of the North Western march of Kathiawar they had to suffer repeatedly from the successive invasions of the Mahomedans into that Peninsula but after suffering the various vicissitudes of war they were confirmed in their possession of Halvad its surrounding territories and the salt pans attached thereto by an Imperial Firman issued by Emperor Aurangzeb the States of Sukkur, Lakhdi, Vadhwan, Lakhdi, Sayla and Jhan Lakhdi are offshoots from Dhrangadhra. His Highness Maharaja Shri Bhajji Keshri is the ruler of the State and the titular head of all the Jhalas. The administration is conducted under the Maharaja's directions by the Dewan Rana Shri Mansinhji of Jhala. The soil being eminently fit for cotton cultivation the principal crops are long staple cotton and cereals of various kinds. Lathi and bundu, and ornamental stone is quarried from the hills situated within the State. Vadhwa salt of an excellent quality with Magnesium chloride and other bye products of salt are also manufactured at the State salt works at Kuda which offer practically an inexhaustible supply for their manufacture. The capital town is Dhrangadhra a fortified town 70 miles west of Ahmedabad.

Dhrangadhra State owns the Railway from Vadhwan Junction to Halvad a distance of 30 miles which is worked by the B. & C. I. Railway. An extension of this line to Malgaj is under contemplation. A railway siding has been built from Dhrangadhra to Kuda—a distance of 11 miles—to facilitate the salt traffic.

Gondal State—The Ruling Prince of Gondal is a Rajput of the Jadeja stock with the title of H. H. Maharaja Bhikot Sahib the present Ruler being H. H. Shri Bhagwat Singh K.C.S.I. The early founder of the State, Kumbhaji, had a modest estate of 20 villages. Kumbhaji II, the most powerful chief of the House, widened the territories to almost their present limits by conquest but it was left to the present ruler to develop its resources to the utmost and in the words of Lord Reay Governor of Bombay by its "importance and advanced administration to get it recognised as a First Class State. The State pays a tribute of Rs 10,721. The chief products are cotton and grain and the chief manufactures are cotton and woolen fabrics and gold embroidery. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the growth with which public works have been prosecuted, and was one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in Kathiawar having initiated the Dham Dhori line, it owns the Bhaga Jam Jodhpur section called the Gondal Railway and manages it along with the Jetalpur Rajkot Railway and H. H. Gackwad a subsidiary Dham line, it subsequently built the Jetalpur Rajkot Railway in partnership with other Native States in Kathiawar. There are no export and import dues the people being free from taxes and dues. Comparatively speak-

ing Gondal stands first in Kathiawar in respect of the spread of education. Compulsory female education in the State has been recently ordered by His Highness. Rs 25 lakhs have been spent on irrigation tanks and canals, water supply and electricity to the town of Gondal. The Capital is Gondal, a fortified town on the line between Rajkot and Jethalar.

Junagadh State.—A first class State under the Western India States Agency and lies in the South Western portion of the Kathiawar Peninsula between 24°-44' and 21° 53' North latitude 80° and 72° East longitude with the Halar division of the province as its northern boundary and Goldwad Prant to its east. It is bounded on the south and west by the Arabian sea. The State is divided into 18 Mahals. It has 16 ports of which the principal are Veraval and Mangrol. The principal rivers in the State are the Bhadar, Uben, Oxt, Hiran Baraswat Machhundri, Sin gada, Meghal, Vraji, Hival and Sabli. The principal town of Junagadh which is one of the most picturesque towns in India, is situated on the slope of the Girnar and the Datar Hills, while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upperkot or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honey combed with caves of their remains. There are a number of fine modern buildings in the town. The famous Ashoka inscription of the Buddhist time carved out on a big block of black granite stone is housed at the foot of the Girnar Hill, which is sacred to the Jains the Shivalites the Vaishnavites and other Hindus. To the south-east of the Girnar Hill lies the extensive forest of the Gir comprising 484 square miles, 825 acres and 10 gunthas. It supplies timber and other natural products to the residents of the State and the neighbouring districts and is unique as the sole stronghold of the Indian lion. The area of the State is 3,336.9 square miles and the average revenue amounts to about Rs 78,00,000. The total population according to the census of 1921 was 4,65,493 of which 3,68,003 were Hindus 80,091 Mahomedans 7,216 Jains, 90 Christians, 53 Parsis while 40 were of other castes. Until 1472 when it was conquered by Sultan Mahomed Begra of Ahmedabad Junagadh was a Rajput State ruled by Chiefs of the Chunda Rana tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar it became a dependency of Delhi under the immediate authority of Moghal Viceroy of Gujarat. About 1786 when the representatives of the Moghals had lost his authority in Gujarat, Sherikant Babi, the ancestor of the present Babi Ruler, expelled the Moghal Governor and established his own rule. The ruler of Junagadh first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The principal articles of production in the State are cotton bajri, jawar, sesamum, wheat, rice, sugarcane, cereals, grass, timber, stone, castor seed, fish, country tobacco, groundnuts, coconuts, bamboo, etc., while those of manufacture are ghee, molasses, sugar, candy, copper, and brassware, dyed cloth gold and silver embroidery, pottery, hardware, leather, bamboo furniture, etc. The State pays a tribute of Rs 28,304 annually to the Paramount Power and Peshkashi of Rs 83,210 to His Highness the Gaekwar on the other hand the State of Junagadh receives a tribute styled Zorabai amounting to Rs 92,421 from not less

than 134 States and Talukas, a relic of the day of Mahomedan supremacy. The State maintains Junagadh State Forces and the Mahabat Khanji Infantry, the sanctioned strength of the former being 178 and of the latter 220 inclusive of Bag pipe Band.

The Chief bears the title of Nawab. The present Nawab is His Highness Sir Mahabat Khan III, K.C.S.I., and is the ninth in succession and seventh in descent from His Highness Nahadurkhanji I the founder of the Babi Family of Junagadh in 1735 A.D. His Highness the Nawab Sahib was born on 2nd August 1900 and succeeded to the post in 1911, visited England in 1913. He received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and has been invested with full powers since March 1920. His Highness the Nawab Sahib is the Ruler of the Premier State in Kathiawar ranks first amongst the Chiefs of Kathiawar, exercising plenary powers and enjoys a salute of 15 guns. Personal 18 permanent and 15 local within the territorial limits of the Junagadh State. Languages spoken—Gujarati and Urdu.

Capital—Junagadh.

Ruler—His Highness Sir Mahabat Khanji Rasulkhanji, K.C.S.I.

Heir Apparent—Mahomed Dilawarkhanji, Prince Mahomed Himatkhanji.

Navanagar State, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, has an area of 2,791 square miles. The Maharaja of Navanagar is a Jadeja Rajput by caste, and belongs to the same family as the Ruler of Cutch. The Jadejas originally entered Kathiawar from Cutch, and dispossessed the ancient family of Jethiwar then established at Ghumli. The town of Jamnagar was founded in 1540. The present Jam Sahib is the well-known cricketer, H. H. Jam Sahib Shri Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, who was born in 1872 and succeeded in 1907. The principal products are grain, cotton and oil-seeds, shipped from the ports of the State. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,20,000 per annum jointly to the British Government, the Gaekwar of Baroda and the Nawab of Junagadh. The State maintains two squadrons of Aswanagar State Lancers and 1½ company of the State Infantry. The Capital is Jamnagar a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, situated 5 miles east of the port of Bedi. Population 345,353. Revenue nearly Rs 90 lakhs.

Revenue Secretary—Gokulbhai B. Desai, Bar-at-law.

Political Secretary—Parshuram B. Junnarkar, B.A. LL.B.

General Secretary—Hirabhai M. Mehta, B.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-law.

Hon'ble Personal Assistant and Private Secretary—P. M. Kuranjia, Esq.

Cutch—The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind on the east by the Palanpur Agency, on the south by the Peninsula of Kathiawar and the Gulf of Cutch and the south-west by the Indian Ocean. Its area, exclusive of the great salt marsh called the Kham of Cutch, is 7,616 square miles. The capital is Bhuj, where the ruling Chief (the Maharaja) His Highness Maha Rao Sri Khengarji Saval Bahadur, C.S.I., G.D.I.B., resides from his isolated position, the special characteristic of

its people their peculiar dialect and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the *Sehna* of Cutch has more elements of a distinct nationality than any other of the dependencies of Bombay. The earliest historic notices of the State occur in the Greek writers. Its modern history dates from its conquest by the Sind ruler of Samma Rajputs in the fourteenth century. The section of the Sammas forming the ruling family in Cutch were known as the Jadejas or children of Jada. The British made a treaty with the State in 1815. There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch and wheat, barley and cotton are cultivated. Poth iron and coal are found but are not worked. Cutch is noted for its beautiful embroidery and silverwork and its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance. Trade is chiefly carried by sea. The ruling chief is the supreme authority. A few of the Bhatyas are invested with jurisdictional powers in varying degrees in their own Estates and over their own riot. A notable fact in connection with the administration of the Cutch State is the number and position of the Bhatyas. These are Rajput nobles forming the brotherhood of the Rao. They were granted a share in the territories of the ruling chief as provision for their maintenance and are bound to furnish troops on an emergency. The number of these chiefs is 137, and the total number of the Jadeja tribe in Cutch is about 16,000. The British military force having been withdrawn from Bhuj, the State now pays Rs. 82,257 annually as an Anjar equivalent to the British Government. The military force consists of about 1,000 in addition to which, there are some irregular infantry, and the Bhatyas could furnish on requisition a mixed force of four thousand.

Palanpur—Palanpur is a first class State with an area of 1,708 square miles and a population of 246,212. The gross revenue is about 10½ lakhs.

The State is under the rule of Captain His Highness Zuhdatul Mulk Dewan Mahakshatray Muhammad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E. K.C.V.O. Nawab of Palanpur. His Highness is descended from the Usafiz Loban, an Afghan tribe who appeared in Gujarat in the 14th century. The connection of the British Government with the State dates from 1819 in which year the Ruler was murdered by a body of nobles. Two high roads from Ahmedabad pass through the State and a considerable trade in cloth, grain, sugar and rice is carried on. The State pays tribute of Rs. 88,462 to the Gaekwar of Baroda. The capital is Palanpur situated on the B. N. & C. I. Railway, and is the junction station of the Palanpur Desa Branch of B. N. & C. I. Railway. It is a very old settlement of which mention was made in the 8th century.

Radhanpur is a first class State with an area of 1,150 square miles which is held by a branch of the illustrious Babi family who since the reign of Humayun have always been prominent in the annals of Gujarat. The present chief is H. H. Jalaluddin Khan, the Nawab of Radhanpur. The State maintains a Police force of 200. The principal products are cotton, wheat and grain. The capital is Radhanpur town a considerable trade centre for Northern Gujarat and Cutch. Samitis a cotton press and three spinning factories. There is one spinning factory at Munjpur and one at Lolada. One large spinning factory has been recently constructed at Bunkeshwar which is a great centre of Jain pilgrimages all the year round.

STATES IN THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY

The territories under the rule of Indian Princes and Chiefs in the Bombay Presidency extend over an area of 28,039 square miles. The characteristic feature of the Bombay States is the great number of petty principalities. The recognition of these very numerous jurisdictions is due to the circumstance that the early Bombay administrators were induced to treat the *de facto* exercise of civil and criminal jurisdiction by a landholder as carrying with it a quasi-sovereign status. In no part of India there is a greater variety of principalities. Some of the largest are of modern origin, having been founded by the Marathas in the general scramble for power in the middle of the 18th century but the Rajput houses in the Gujarat Agencies date from earlier times. Interesting traces of ancient history are to be found at Sachin and Jasura, where Chiefs of foreign ancestry, descended from Abyssinian admirals of the Deccan fleets, still remain. A few aboriginal Chiefs—Bhils or Kolis exercise very limited authority in the Dangs and the hilly country that fringes the Mahi and the Narmada rivers.

The variety of the relations which under the terms of the several treaties subsist between the British Government and the rulers of the different States, and the general superintendence exercised by Government as the Paramount Power, necessitate the presence of an Agent or

representative of Government at the Principal Courts. The smaller and less important States are either grouped together under the general supervision of a Political Agent or are looked after by the Collectors of the districts which they adjoin. The position of the Agent varies, roughly speaking with the importance of the State. In some cases he does little more than give advice and exercise a general surveillance. In other cases the Agents are invested with a direct share in the administration, while States the Rulers of which are minor are directly managed by Government Officers or under arrangements approved by Government. Some of the States are subordinate to other States and not in direct relations with the British Government. In these cases the status of the feudatories is usually guaranteed by Government. The powers of the Chiefs are regulated by treaty or custom, and range downwards to a mere right to collect revenue in a share of a village, without criminal or civil jurisdiction as in the case of the petty Chiefs in the Mahi Kantha and Rewa Kantha Agencies.

The number of Indian States in the Bombay Presidency is 151, with an area of 28,039 square miles and population (1931) of 3,479,095. They are divided for administrative purposes into the following Agencies: Belgaum Agency,

Savarnadi, Bijapur Agency, Jath Dharwar Agency, Savanur, Kaira Agency, Cambay Kolaba Agency, Jamira Kolhapur Residency and Southern Maratha Country States Agency, 9 States (Kolhapur with 9 feudatories), Jamkhanda: Kurundwad Senior, Kurundwad Junior, Miraj Senior, Miraj Junior, Mudhol, Ramdurg and Sangli), Mahi Kantha Agency, 51 States (principal States Idar and Danta), Nashik Agency, Borgana, Poona Agency, Dhore, Bawa, Kantha Agency, 62 States (principal States, Balasamor, Baria, Chhota, Udepur, Lunawada, Rajpuri, and Bant), Satara Agency, Aundh and Phaltan, Sholapur Agency, Akalkot, Sukkur Agency, Kharapur, Surat Agency, 3 States (Bansda, Dharanpur and Sachin) and 14 Dang Chikla, Thana Agency, Jawhar. The table below gives details of the area of the more important States—

State	Area in sq miles	Population (in 1921)	Approximate Revenue
Balasamor	189	44,030	Rs 2,51,000
Bansda	216	40,128	7,97,521
Bawa	813	137,291	8,83,194
Bhor	925	130,420	5,79,887
Cambay	350	71,715	9,94,934
Chhota Udepur	890	125,702	12,41,000
Danta	347	19,341	1,74,306
Dharanpur	704	93,171	12,47,821
Idar	1,969	226,365	16,75,689
Jamira	324	87,334	7,43,307
Jawhar	310	49,662	5,57,688
Kharapur	8,060	193,152	25,57,871
Kolhapur	8,217	898,728	14,01,844
Lunawada	888	83,133	7,75,000
Mudhol	868	60,140	4,72,000
Rajpuri	1,517	163,454	17,21,282
Sachin	49	19,977	4,12,000
Sangli	1,126	221,321	11,71,184
Savarnadi	925	206,440	6,92,508
Satara	394	70,957	2,44,509

Bijapur Agency.—This comprises the Satara Jaghir of Jath (980·8 square miles in area). On the annexation of Satara, in 1849, Jath and Daphlapur like other Satara Jaghirs, became feudatories of the British Government. The latter has more than once interfered to adjust the pecuniary affairs of the Jath Jaghir and in consequence of numerous acts of oppression on the part of the then ruler was compelled to assume direct management from 1874 to 1885. The small estate of Daphlapur with an area of 96·8 square miles passed to the Jath Jaghir on the demise of its last ruler, Hambai Sahib Daphle in January 1917. The Chief of Jath who belongs to the Maharashtra caste, ranks as a first class Sardar. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The present Chief, Moharban Vijayashinharao Ramrao alias Babamahesh Daffie succeeded his father who died on August 14, 1923 and was installed on January 12th, 1929. He conducts the adminis-

tration of the Jath State with the advice of the Government Adviser appointed by Government. The gross revenue of the State is about 3 lakhs chiefly derived from land revenue. The Jath State pays to the British Government Rs 6,400 per annum in lieu of horse contingent and Rs. 4,817 on account of Sardeshmukhi rights.

Political Agent.—V. R. Maidhekar, M. A., Collector of Bijapur.

Dharwar Agency.—This comprises only the small State of Savanur. The founder of the reigning family who are Mahomedans of Pathan origin was a Jagadar of Emperor Aurangzeb. At the close of the last Maratha War the Nawab of Savanur, whose conduct had been exceptionally loyal, was confirmed in his possessions by the British Government. The State pays no tribute. The principal crops are jowari and cotton. The area is 76 square miles and population 10,830. The revenue is Rs 2,01,410-6-3. The present chief is Captain Moharban Nawab Abdul Majid Khan Duler Jang Bahadur Nawab of Savanur.

Political Agent. J. F. B. Huthorne, I.C.S.

Kaira Agency.—This includes only the State of Cambay at the head of the Gulf of the same name. Cambay was formerly one of the chief ports of India and of the Aulhiwada Kingdom. At the end of the thirteenth century it is said to have been one of the richest towns in India. At the beginning of the sixteenth century also it formed one of the chief centres of commerce in Western India. Factories were established there by the English and the Dutch. It was established a distinct State about 1780, the founder of the present family of Chiefs being the last but one of the Mahomedan Governors of Gujarat. The present Nawab is His Highness Mirza Hussein Yawar Khan who is a Shahi Mogul of the Najumiansi family of Persia, and was born on the 16th May 1911. His father, the late Nawab Jaffar Ali Khan, died on 21st January 1916, leaving him a minor. The State was under British administration up to December 1930 when the Nawab was installed on the throne. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 21,924 to the British Government. Wheat and cotton are the principal crops. There is a broad gauge line from Cambay via Petlad, connecting with the B. R. & C. I. Railway; at Anand. Cambay is a first class State having full jurisdiction. Revenue is about eight lakhs. The area of the State is 350 square miles, population 71,715.

Political Agent. A. Master, I.C.S.
Administrator. M. S. Moulvi, M.A.

Kolaba Agency.—This Agency includes the State of Jamira in the Konkan, a country covered with spurs and hill ranges and much intersected by creeks and backwaters. The ruling family is said to be descended from an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizam Shahi Kings of Ahmednagar at the end of the fifteenth century. The most noticeable point in its history is the successful resistance that it alone, of all the States of Western India, made against the determined attacks of the Marathas. The British, on succeeding the Marathas as masters of the Konkan, refrained from interfering in the internal administration

of the State. The chief is a Sunni Mahomedan, by race a Sidi or Abyssinian with a title of His Highness the Nawab. He has a sacred guarantee of succession according to Mahomedan law and pays no tribute. Till 1868 the State enjoyed singular independence there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year the maladministration of the chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice became so flagrant that those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands and vested temporarily in a Political Agent. The last ruler, H. H. Nawab Sidi Bur Ahmed Khan, died on 2nd May 1922, and was succeeded by his son Sidi Muhammad Khan born on the 7th March 1914. The area of the State is 377 square miles and the population 98,310. The average revenue is 8 lakhs including that derived from a small dependency named Jafferabad in the south of Kathiawar under the Kathiawar Agency. The State maintains an irregular military force of 241. The capital is Murud on the main land, the name of Janjira being retained by the island fort opposite. The Chief is entitled to a dynastic salute of 11 guns. In recognition of services rendered in connection with the war the last ruler a salute was raised on the 1st January 1916 to 12 guns personal and 18 permanent within the limits of his own State from the 1st January 1921. The State is now under a minority administration with the minor Nawab's mother as Regent, assisted by a Dewan appointed with the approval of Government. The present Dewan is Mr P. R. Kapadia, B.A., a retired Deputy Collector.

Kolhapur Agency.—Kolhapur is a State with an area of 3,317 square miles and population of 833,726. Subordinate to Komapur

are nine feudatories of which the following four are important: Veshalgarh Bawda, Kanai (senior), and Ishalkaranj. The ruler's house traces its descent from a younger son of Shivaji, founder of the Maratha power. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhapur port of Malvan compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kolhapur in 1783 and again in 1792 when the Raja agreed to give compensation for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1783, and to permit the establishment of factories at Malvan and Kolhapur. Internal dissensions and wars with neighbouring States gradually weakened the power of Kolhapur. In 1813 a treaty was concluded with the British Government by which, in return for the cession of certain ports, the Kolhapur Raja was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. The principal articles of production are rice, sugar-cane, and the manufactures are cotton-textile and woollen cloths, pottery and hardware. The State pays no tribute, and supports a military force of 692. The nine feudatory estates are administered by their holders except in the case of four whose holders are minors. Kolhapur proper is divided into seven *petas* or talukas and three *mahals* and is managed by the Maharaja who has full powers of life and death. The Southern Maratha Railway passes through the State and is connected with Kolhapur City by a line which is the property of the State.

Resident and Senior Political Agent for Kolhapur and the Southern Maratha Country.—Major L. E. Lang, C.I.E., M.C.

Southern Maratha Country States.—The Agency consists of the following eight States:—

Name of State	Area in square miles	Population	Tribute to British Government	Average revenue
			Rs	Rs
Sangli	1,136	221,321	1,30,000	13,60,872
Miraj (Senior)	342	82,580	12,558	4,31,204
Miraj (Junior)	196½	84,665	7,869	3,52,332
Kurnadwad (Senior)	182½	88,760	9,619	3,56,250
Kurundwad (Junior)	114	34,288		2,70,928
Jamkhadi	524	101,190	20,516	9,44,310
Mudhol	268	60,140	2,672	4,80,599
Randurg	169	33,907		3,69,483
Total	3,322	606,946	1,87,754	46,66,028

Mahikant—This group of States has a total area of 3,124 square miles and a population of 450,475, including that of Idar, which is 324,351. The revenue is about 14 lakhs. The Agency consists of the first class State of Idar and 51 small States. Idar covers more

than half the territory. It has an area of 1,668 square miles and an average revenue of Rs 16,47,379. The present Ruler of Idar, Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Doria Singhji, K.C.S.I., is a Rajput of the Bahadur clan. He was born in 1878 and ascended the Gadi in

Surat Agency.—This is a small group of three second class States under the Political Agent, Surat

State	Ruling Chiefs	Area in sq miles	Population (1921)
Dharampur	Maharaja Shri Vijayadevi Mohandevji	704	96,171
Bansda	Maharaja Shri Indrasinhji Pratapsinhji	215	40,126
Sachin	His Highness Nawab Sidi Muhamad Halder Mohamed Yakub Khan Maharajad Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur	49	10,977

The joint revenue of these States is Rs. 24,68,000. Tribute is paid to the British Government of Rs. 9,154. There is also attached to this Agency a tract of country known as the Dangas which has an area of 652 square miles and a population of 24,576 and a revenue of Rs. 24,711. The country is divided into 14 Dangas or States of very unequal area, each under the purely nominal rule of a Bhil Chief with the title of Raja, Malik, Eradhan or Pagar. **Thana Agency.**—This includes the State of Jawhar, in the Thana District, on a plateau above the Konkan plain. It has an area of

310 square miles and a population of 49,662 and revenue of 5,21,927. Up to 1294, the period of the first Mahomedan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhar was held by a Varli, not a Koli chief. The first Koli chief obtained his footing in Jawhar by a device similar to that of Dido when he asked for and received as much land as the hide of a bull would cover. The Koli chief cut a hide into strips, and thus enclosed the territory of the State. The present chief is Raja Fudangsha alias Lashwantro Vikramsha, who is a minor and hence the State under British administration.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.

Cooch Behar.—This State, which at one time comprised almost the whole of the Northern Bengal Aram and a part of Bhutan now known as the Duma, is a low lying plain in North Bengal. It has an area of 1,518 square miles, a population of 592,480 and a revenue of over 44 lakhs. By the demise of the late ruler His Highness Maharaja Sir Jitendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur in December 1922 in England his eldest son Jivraj Jagaddipudra Narayan (born on December 15, 1915) succeeded to the gadi at the age of 7 which necessitated a minority administration under the guidance of a Regent. His Highness the Maharaja belongs to the Khatris of the Khatris of the Khatris origin. The present Maharaja has three sisters Maharajkumari Ilia Devi (aetat 16), Aroha Devi (aetat 11) and Menaka Devi (aetat 10) and one brother Maharajkumar Indrajit Narayan (aetat 12). Her Highness the Maharani Sahiba of Cooch Behar was appointed Regent under the wishes of the late Maharaja and administers the State on behalf of her minor son with a Council of Regency, comprising three members at present, of which Her Highness is the President. Cooch Behar once formed part of the famous Kingdom of Kanpur. British connection with it began in 1772 when owing to invasions of the Bhutias, the assistance of the East India Company was invoked. The chief products of the State are rice, jute, mustard seed and tobacco. The capital is Cooch Behar which is reached by the Cooch Behar State Railway, a branch of the Eastern Bengal State Railway System.

Tripura.—This State lies to the east of the district of Tippera and consists largely of hills covered with dense jungles. It has an area of 4,116 square miles and a population of 304,437. The revenue from the State is about 20 lakhs and from the Zemindaries in British India is about 18 lakhs. The present Ruler is Maharaja Manjya

Sir Bikram Kishore Deb Barman Bahadur who is a Khatris by caste and comes of the Tamar race. He was born on 18th August 1908 and he is entitled to a salute of 18 guns. He succeeded the late Maharaja Manjya Dhirendra Kishore Deb Barman Bahadur on 13th August 1923. The Military prestige of Tripura dates back to the fifteenth century and a mythical account of the strength of the State, the history to an even earlier date. Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government the State differs alike from the large Native States of India and from those which are classed as tributary. Besides him, the Ruler of Tripura the Maharaja also holds a large landed property situated in the plains of the Districts of Tippera, Noakhali and Sylhet. This estate covers an area of 600 square miles and is held to form with the State an indivisible Raj. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the gadi producing in times gone by minor wars and domestic wars, and exposing the inhabitants to serious disorders and attacks from the Kukis who were always called in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The principles which govern succession to the State have recently, however, been embodied in a *sanad* which was drawn up in 1904. The chief products of the State are rice, cotton, oil, tea and forest produce of various kinds the traffic being carried chiefly by water. The Maharaja received full administrative powers on 15th August 1927. His Highness married the sixth daughter of the late Maharaja Sir Bhagabati Prasad Singhji Sahab Bahadur KOTA, K.B.M. of Balarampur (Oudh) on the 11th January 1929. The State courts are authorised to inflict capital punishment.

Political Agent.—Magistrate and Collector of Tippera (Ex-officio)

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BIHAR AND ORISSA

Under this Government there are the Chota Nagpur Feudatory States of Kharsawan and Raxauli and the Orissa Feudatory States 24 in number. The total area is 28,666 square miles and the total population 3,959,689. The average revenue is Rs 1,12,72,479. The inhabitants are all men of Kolarian or Dravidian origin and their condition is still very primitive. The Chief of Kharsawan belongs to a junior branch of the Porahat Raja's family. The State first came under the notice of the British in 1793 and in consequence of disturbances on the frontier of the old Jungli Mahals the Phakur of Kharsawan and the Kunwar of Barakela were compelled to enter into certain agreements relating to the treatment of fugitive rebels. The Chief is bound when called upon to render aid to the British Government but he has never had to pay tribute. His present sanad was granted in 1919. He exercises all administrative powers executive and judicial subject to the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner, Orissa Feudatory States. The Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through a part of the State. The adjoining State of Balasore is held by the elder branch of the Porahat Raja's family.

Orissa Feudatory States—This group of 24 dependant territories is situated between the Mahanadi Delta and the Central Provinces and forms the mountainous background of Orissa. The names of the individual States are Athgarh Talcher, Mayurbhanj Nilgiri Keonjhar Pal Lahara Dhenkanal Khumalikh Hindol Narasinghpur Baramba Ligria Khanpara Navagarh Ranpur Daspalla and Band. To these there were added in 1903 the following States Baira, Rairakhol Bompur, Patna and Kalahandi from the Central Provinces and Ganypur and Bonai from the Chota Nagpur States. The total population is 2,907,172 with an average revenue of Rs 34,80,039. The Feudatory States have no connected or authentic history. Comprising the western and hilly portion of the province of Orissa they were never brought under the central government, but from the earliest times consisted of numerous petty principalities which were more or less independent of one another. They were first inhabited by aboriginal races, who were divided into innumerable communal or tribal groups each under its own chief or headman. These carried on incessant warfare with their neighbours on the one hand and with the wild hordes of the forests on the other. In course of time their hill retreats were penetrated by Arya and venturers, who gradually overthrew the tribal chiefs and established themselves in their place. Tradition relates how these daring interlopers, most of whom were Rajputs from the north came to Puri on a pilgrimage and remained behind to found kingdoms and dynasties. It was thus that Jai Singh became ruler of Mayurbhanj over 1,300 years ago, and was succeeded by his eldest son, while his second son placed Keonjhar. The Chiefs of Band and Daspalla are said to be descended from

the same stock and a Rajput origin is also claimed by the Rajas of Khumalikh Narasinghpur, Pal Lahara Talcher and Ligria. Nayagarh it is alleged was founded by a Rajput from Rewah and a son of the same family was the ancestor of the present house of Khandpara. On the other hand the chiefs of a few states, such as Athgarh Baramba and Dhenkanal owe their origin to favourites or distinguished servants of the ruling sovereigns of Orissa. The State of Ranpur is believed to be the most ancient the list of its chiefs covering a period of over 800 years. It is noteworthy that this family is of Khona origin and furnishes the only known instance in which amid many vicissitudes the supremacy of the origin is still retained in tact. The States acknowledged the suzerainty of the paramount power and were under an implied obligation to render assistance in raising invaders but in other respects neither the ancient kings of Orissa nor their successors the Vughals and Marathas ever interfered with their internal administration. All the States have annals of the dynasties that have ruled over them but they are made up of most part of legend and fiction and long genealogical tables of doubtful accuracy and contain very few features of general interest. The British conquest of Orissa from the Marathas which took place in 1803 was immediately followed by the submission of ten of the Tributary States the Chiefs of which were the first to enter into treaty engagements.

The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. They were taken over from the Marathas in 1803 with the rest of Orissa but as they had always been tributary states rather than regular districts of the native governments, they were exempted from the operation of the general regulation system. This was on the ground of expediency only and it was held that there was nothing in the nature of British relations with the proprietors that would preclude their being brought under the ordinary jurisdiction of the British courts if that should ever be found advisable. In 1882 it was held that the States did not form part of British India and thus was afterwards accepted by the Secretary of State.

The staple crop in these States is rice. The forests in them were at one time among the best timber producing tracts in India but until lately forest conservancy was practically unknown. The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. The relations with the British Government are governed by sanads which in the case of Ganypur and Bonai were last revised in 1919 and in the case of the others in 1915. They recite the rights privileges duties and obligations of the Chiefs providing for the settlement of boundary disputes and indicating the nature and extent of the control of the Political Agent and Commissioner.

Political Agent and Commissioner P C Talents C 12

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES

Three States Rampur Tehri and Benares are included under this Government —

State	Area Sq Miles	Population	Revenue in lakhs of Rupees
Rampur	892	4,3,607	54
Tehri (Garhwal)	4500	318,482	14
Benares	875	1,62,735	22

Rampur State—The State of Rampur was founded by Nawab Qasim Ali Mohammad Khan Bahadur in the middle of the 14th century and his dominions included a considerable portion of what is now known as Rohilkhand. The founder belonged to the famous Sayeds of the Bareilly clans in the Muzaffarnagar district and was a statesman of remarkable ability. He rendered invaluable services to the Mughal Emperor who recognised him as Ruler of Rohilkhand.

Upon his death his Kingdom underwent many vicissitudes and was considerably reduced in size during the reign of his son Nawab Sayed Faizulla Khan Bahadur. The Province of Rohilkhand had now passed into the hands of the East India Company. Nawab Asaf-ud-Daula Khan Bahadur was most loyal and true to the British Government to whom he always looked up for help during those unsettled days and he gave tangible proof of his loyalty when during the war against France he offered all his cavalry 2000 strong to the British Government in 1878 and received the following message of thanks from the then Governor General—

That in his own name as well as that of the Board, he returned him the warmest thanks for this instance of his faithful attachment to the Company and the English Nation.

Another opportunity arose for the ruler of Rampur to evince his steadfast loyalty and devotion to the Imperial Cause on the outbreak of the Mutiny of 1857. His Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Yusuf Ali Khan Bahadur occupied the Musam of Rampur in those days. From this very start till peace was re-established in the country he was lavish in his expenditure of men and money on the side of the British Government. He fought their battles, saved the lives of many Europeans whom he provided with money and other means of comfort and had so much established his reputation as a good administrator that he was placed in charge of the Moradabad district. These signal services were recognised by the Government by the grant of an *ilaka* besides other marks of distinction.

The reign of His Late Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Mohammad Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur stood out unique in many ways. Rampur made great strides in trade and commerce and in fact in every walk of life. He took keen interest in Education and did not only contribute handsome donations but made annual grants to the various educational institutions. He was no whit behind his compatriots in his loyalty to the British Government. The

Great War of 1914 found him foremost in offering his personal services and all the resources of the State—men, money and material—to the British Government. The 1st Rampur Infantry was sent to East Africa and returned home after nearly four years' service and won the favourable remarks of high British Officers. Besides the expenditure involved in this His Highness also participated in the Scheme of the Hospitalship. Loyalty and contributed one lakh of rupees towards the cost and upkeep of it. His other contributions to the various funds amounted to over half a lakh of rupees and he also subscribed Rs 700,000 to the two War Loans. At the time of the Afghan War 1919 the 1st Lancers and the Imperial Service Infantry were sent on garrison duty in British India.

The Present Ruler His Highness Nawab Sayed Raza Ali Khan Bahadur succeeded his Father on 20th June 1920. His Highness was born on 17th November 1900 and was educated at the Rukumar College, Rajkot. He is an enlightened ruler and takes very keen interest in the administration of the State.

Since his accession too the Masnad His Highness has introduced reforms in Judicial Police and Army Departments and during the short period that the reins of the State have been in his hands he has overhauled and reorganised the whole administration. His Highness is also greatly interested in education, commerce and industry and has taken practical steps to improve them. The welfare of his subjects and their advancement in every walk of life is the cherished desire of His Highness.

His Highness has one son Sahibzada Sayed Murtaza Ali Khan Bahadur who is the Heir Apparent.

The permanent salute of the State is 15 guns and the annual income over fifty lakhs of rupees.

Tehri State (or Tehri Garhwal)—This State lies entirely in the Himalayas and contains a tangled series of ridges and spurs radiating from a lofty series of peaks on the border of Tibet. The sources of the Ganges and the Jumna are in it. The early history to the State is that of Garhwal District; the two tracts having formerly been ruled by the same dynasty. Pradyumna Shah, the last Raja of the whole territory, was killed in battle fighting against the Gurkhas, but at the close of the Nepalese War in 1815 his son received from the British the present State of Tehri. During the Mutiny the latter rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1859. The present Raja is Captain H H Narendra Shah, C.S.I. The principal products are rice and wheat grown on terraces on the hill sides. The State forests are very valuable and there is considerable export of timber. The Raja has full powers within the State. The strength of the State forces is 330. The capital is Tehri, the summer capital being Pratapnagar, 3,000 feet above the sea-level.

Agent to the Governor-General The Governor of the U P of Agra and Oudh

Benares—The kingdom of Benares under its Hindu Rulers existed from time immemorial and finds mention in Hindu and Buddhist literature. In the 12th century it was conquered by Shahab-ud-din Ghori and formed a separate province of the Mohammadan Empire. In the 18th century when the powers of Moghal Emperors declined after the death of Aurangzeb, Raja Manu Ram an enterprising zamindar of Ganganagar (Benares District) founded the State of Benares and obtained a *sansad* from the Emperor Mohammad Shah of Delhi in the name of his son Raja Balwant Singh in 1738. Raja Manu Ram died in 1740 and his son Balwant Singh became the virtual ruler. During the next 80 years attempts were unsuccessfully made by Saifdar Jung and after him by Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh to destroy the independence of the Raja and the fort of Ramnagar was built on the bank of the Ganges opposite the Benares city. Raja Balwant Singh died in 1770 and was succeeded by his son Chet Singh. He was expelled by Warren Hastings. Balwant Singh's daughter's son Mahip Ram Singh was placed on the seat. The latter proved an imbecile and there was maladministration which led to an Agreement in 1794 by which the lands held by the Raja in his own right which was granted to him by the British Government, were separated from the

rest of the province. The direct control of the latter was assumed by the Government and an annual income of one lakh of rupees was assured to the Raja while the former constituted the Domains. Within the Domains the Raja had revenue powers similar to those of a Collector in a British District. There was thus constituted what for over a century was known as the Family Domains of the Maharaja of Benares. On the 1st of April 1911 the major portion of these Domains became a State consisting of the paraganas of Bhadohi and Chakia (or Kera Mangraur) the town of Ramnagar and its neighbouring villages were ceded by the British Government to the Maharaja in 1913 and became part of the State. The Maharaja's powers are those of a ruling Chief, subject to certain conditions, of which the most important are the maintenance of all rights acquired under laws in force prior to the transfer, the reservation to Government of the control of the postal and telegraph systems, of plenary criminal jurisdiction within the State over servants of the British Government and European British subjects, and of a right of control in certain matters connected with crime. The present ruler is Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Izzat Nizam Singh Bahadur, C.S.I. C.O.I.E., L.D., who was born in 1855 and succeeded to the State in 1880. He is entitled to salute of 16 guns and is a Hon. Lieut. Colonel in the Indian Army. His Her Apparent is Maharaj Kumar Aditya Nizam Singh Bahadur.

PUNJAB STATES

There are 13 States of the Punjab which since 1947 have been in direct political relation with the Government of India through the Hon. U

th Agent to the Governor General, Punjab. The following are details—

Name	Permanent salute in guns	Area (sq. miles)	Population (1921)	Approximate revenue lakh of rupees
Bahawalpur	17	5,932	1,497,390	135.7
Bikaner	17	1,000	2,191	49.8
Bundi	13	1,000	205,183	20.3
Babha*	13	1,000	26,344	27.8
Bajpur*	13	1,000	26,344	27.8
Bahawalpur	11	1,200	185,048	13.4
Bahawalpur (A. B. S.)	11	1,196	110,168	6.0
Bahawalpur (K. B. S.)*	11	148	98,000	3.0
Bahawalpur	11	164	40,122	14.7
Bahawalpur*	11	643	150,661	18.0
Bahawalpur	11	3,216	141,889	8.4
Bahawalpur	11	4,000	51,338	2.3
Bahawalpur	9	223	20,614	1.3

Bahawalpur—A Native State in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor General Punjab States Agency. Bahawalpur is situated between the Punjab and Rajputana, latitude 24° 15' to 28° 22' 15" long 70° 47' to 74° 15' and bounded on the North East by the District of Ferozepur on the East and South by the Rajputana States of Bikaner and Jaisalmer on the South West by Sind on the North West by the Indus and Sukli rivers. Area, 10,000 square miles.

This State is about 300 miles in length and about 50 miles wide, is divided lengthwise into three great strips. Of these the first is a part of the Great Indian Desert, the central track is chiefly desert not capable of cultivation identical with the Bar or Fatauplands of the Western Punjab and the third, a fertile alluvial tract in the river valley is called the hind. The ruling family is descended from the Abbassid Khalifa of Baghdad. The tribe originally came from Sind and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Durran,

empire in the Treaty of Lahore in 1809 Ranjit Singh was confined to the right bank of the Beas.]

The first treaty with Bhawalpur was negotiated in 1853, the year after the treaty with Ranjit Singh for regulating traffic on the Indus. It secured the independence of the Nawab within his own territories and opened up the traffic on the Indus and Sutlej. During the first Afghan War the Nawab rendered assistance to the British and was rewarded by a grant of territory and life pension. On his death the succession was disputed and for a time the administration of the State was in the hands of the British authorities. The present Nawab is Capt. H. H. Roshni Dauli, Nizam-ul-Jang, Bahadur, Mulk, Mukhlis and Daula, Nawab Sir Sidiq Muhammad Khan Bahadur Agha, who was born in 1904 and succeeded in 1907. During his minority the State was managed by a Council of Agency which ceased to exist in March 1924 when His Highness the Nawab was invested with full power. His Highness is now assisted in the administration of his State by a Chief Minister, Izat Mahan, Imad-ul-Mulk, Rajul Wazir, Khan Bahadur Mir Nair, Buksh Muhammad Hussain, a Public Works and Revenue Minister, Mr. C. A. Barron, C.B.I., C.V.O.

The chief crops are wheat, rice and millet. The Lahore-Karachi branch of the North Western State Railway passes through the State. The State supports an Imperial Service combined Infantry in addition to other troops. The capital is Bahawalpur, a walled town built in 1748.

Income from all sources about 50 lakhs. Languages spoken Multani or Western Punjabi (Jatki), Sindhi and Marwari.

Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States—
Mr. J. A. G. Fitzpatrick, B.A., LL.B., C.M.S., I.C.S.

Chamba—This State is enclosed on the west and north by Kashmir on the east and south by the British districts of Kangra and Gurdaspur, and it is shut in on almost every side by lofty hill ranges. The whole country is mountainous and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. It possesses a remarkable series of copper plate inscriptions from which its chronicle have been compiled.

Founded probably in the sixth century by Marut a Surajbansi Rajput, who built Brahmara, the modern Brahmara. Chamba was extended by Meru Varma (580) and the town of Chamba built by Sahil Varma about 920. The State maintained its independence until the Moghul conquest of India.

Under the Moghals it became tributary to the empire, but its internal administration was not interfered with, and it escaped almost unscathed from Sikh aggression. The State first came under British influence in 1640. The part west of the Beas was at first handed over to Kashmir, but subsequently the boundaries of the State were fixed as they now

stand, and it was declared independent of Kashmir. The present chief is H. H. Raja Bani Singh, who was born in 1890, and succeeded in 1919. The principal crops are rice, maize and millets. There are some valuable forests which were partly leased to Government in 1884 for a term of 99 years, but the management of them has now been retroceded to the Chamba Durbar. The mountain ranges are rich in minerals which are little worked. The principal road to Chamba town is from Pathankot, the terminus of the Amritsar Pathankot branch of the North Western Railway. Chamba town, on the right bank of the Beas, contains a number of interesting temples, of which that of Lakshmi Narayan dating possibly from the tenth century is the most famous.

Faridkot—The ruling family of this sandy level tract of land belongs to the Sidhu-Berar clan of the Jats, and is descended from the same stock as the Phulkian houses. Their occupation of Faridkot and Kot Kapura dates from the time of Akbar though quarrels with the surrounding Sikh States and internal dissensions have greatly reduced the patrimony.

The present Ruling Prince Farzand-i-Saadat Nisban Hazrat, Maharaja Yinda Bar Brins Raja Har Indar Singh Bahadur was born in 1915 and succeeded his father in 1919. Under the orders of the Government of India the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration consisting of a President, Sardar Bahadur Sardar Indar Singh, 2 A., and four members. The State has an area of 843 square miles with a population of 150,461 and has an annual income of 18 lakhs. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 11 guns and a visit and return visit from the Viceroy. The State Forces consist of State Sappers and Household Troops (Cavalry and Infantry).

Jind—Jind is one of the three Phulkian States (the other two being Patiala and Nabha). Its area is 1,268 square miles, with a population of 306,183 souls and an income of 25 lakhs.

The history of Jind as a separate State dates from 1763 when Raja Gajpat Singh, the maternal grandfather of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, and great grandson of the famous Phul, established his principality. He was succeeded by Raja Bhag Singh who greatly assisted Lord Lake in 1803. His grandson Raja Sangat Singh was succeeded by the nearest male collateral Raja Sarup Singh in 1837. In the crisis of 1857 Raja Sarup Singh rendered valuable services to the British and was rewarded with a grant of nearly 600 square miles of land, known as Dadri territory. He was succeeded by his son Maharaja Ragbir Singh, who gave help to the British Government on the occasion of Kuka outbreak (1872) and the 2nd Afghan War (1878). The present ruler Maharaja Ranbir Singh was born in 1872, succeeded in 1887, and invested with full powers in 1899. The State rendered exemplary services in the Great European War. It supplied 8,673 men to the Indian Army and Imperial Service Troop and doubled the strength of its Imperial Service Infantry. The total contribution amounted to nearly 7 lakhs, in gifts of cash, materials, animals and troops.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 15 guns. The capital is Sangur, which is connected by a State Railway with the North Western Railway. The principal executive Officer of the State is called Chief Minister.

Ruler—Colonel His Highness Farand I Diband Raskh ul Iktad, Daulat; English: Raja Rajgan Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Rajendra Bahadur G O I R, K C S I etc

Kapurthala—This State consists of three detached pieces of territory in the great plain of the Jullundur Doab. The ancestors of the ruler of Kapurthala at one time held possessions both in the Cis and Trans Sutlej and also in the Bari Doab. In the latter lies the village of Ahlu whence the family springs and from which it takes the name of Ahluwalia. When the Jullundur Doab came under the dominion of the British Government in 1846 the estates north of the Sutlej were maintained in the independent possession of the Kapurthala Ruler conditional on his paying a commutation in cash for military service engagements by which he had previously been bound to Maharaja Ranjit Singh of Lahore. This annual tribute of Rs 1,21,000 a year was remitted by the Government of India in perpetuity in 1924 in recognition of the splendid war record and uniformly efficient administration of the State. The Bari Doab estates are held by the head of the House as a fief in perpetuity, the civil and police jurisdiction remaining in the hands of the British authorities. For good services during the Mutiny the present Maharaja's grandfather was rewarded with a grant of other estates in Oudh which yield a large annual income equal to those of Kapurthala State. The present Ruler's title is Col H. H. Farand I Diband Raskh ul Iktad Daulat; English: Raja Rajgan Maharaja Jagvir Singh Bahadur Maharaja of Kapurthala G O I R (1911) G C I B (1918) G S S (1917) who was born on 24th November 1872 and succeeded his father His Highness the Late Raja Rajgan Kharak Singh of Kapurthala in 1877. He was granted the title of Maharaja as an hereditary distinction in 1911. His salute was raised to 15 guns and he was made Honorary Colonel of the 45th Battalion Sikhs. The Maharaja received the Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur from the French Government in 1924 and possesses also the Grand Cross of the Order of Carlos III of Spain, Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Romania, Grand Cross of the Order of Monsek of Abyssinia, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile of Egypt, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chili, Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order of Cuba represented Indian Princes and Rulers on the League of Nations in 1926, 1927 and 1929 celebrated the Golden Jubilee of his reign in December 1927 with great éclat, when their Excellencies the Viceroy and Lady Irwin the Commander in Chief in India and Lady Birdwood Governor of the Punjab and Lady Haller, Their Highnesses the Maharajas of Jammu and Kashmir, Jikan Lal Bahadur Jangnagar Alwar, Bharatpur Rajputia Mandi, the Nawals of Palampur, Malerkotla, Bahawalpur and the Raja of Kalsia were present, besides a very large and distinguished gathering of European and Indian guests.

The rulers of Kapurthala are Rajput Sikh and claim descent from Rana Kapur a distinguished member of the Rajput House of Jaisalmer. Only a small proportion of the population however are Sikhs, the majority being Mahomedans. The chief crops are wheat, gram, maize, cotton and sugarcane. The town of Baltanpur in this State is famous for hand printed cloths. Phagwara is another important town in the State and is very prosperous on account of its grain markets and factories for manufacture of agricultural implements and metallic utensils of household use. The situation of this town on the main railway line and the consequent facilities of export and import make its importance still greater and thus is the chief commercial town in the State. The main line of the North Western Railway passes through part of the State and the Grand Trunk Road runs parallel to it. A branch railway from Jullundur City to Ferozepur passes through the capital. The Imperial Service and local troops of the State have been reorganised and are now designated as Kapurthala State Forces. The State Troops the strength of which was raised during the Great War to nearly 2,000 served the Empire in that crisis in East Africa, Mesopotamia and on the Afghan Frontier. Primary education is free throughout the State and it spends a large proportion of its revenues on its Education department. The State also possesses a Legislative Assembly which was created by the present Maharaja on the occasion of the Silver Jubilee of his reign in 1916. The capital is Kapurthala which has been embellished by the present Maharaja with a Palace of remarkable beauty and grandeur and with various buildings of public utility. The town boasts modern amenities such as electric light, water works etc.

Political Officer The Honble Agent to the Governor General Punjab State: Lahore

Malerkotla—This State consists of a level sandy plain unbroken by a hill or stream, bounded by the district of Ludhiana on the north by Patiala territory on the east and south and by the Ludhiana District, Patiala and Bahawal territories on the west. The rulers (Nawabs) of Malerkotla are of Khatriscent who came originally from the Province of Sherwan and settled in the town of Sherwan north of Persia and after settling for a time in Afghanistan near Ghazni came to India and settled at Maler the old capital of the State in 1442. Originally they held positions of trust under the Lodhi and Moghal Emperors. As the Moghal Empire began to sink into decay they gradually became independent. They were in constant feud with the newly created adjacent Sikh States. After the victory of Laswari gained by the British over Sindhas in 1803 and the subjugation and flight of Holkar in 1805 when the Nawab of Malerkotla joined the British Army the British Government succeeded to the power of the Malerkotla in the districts between the Sutlej and the Juma. The State entered into political relations with the British Government in 1809. The present Ruler is Lt Col His Highness Nawab Sir Ahmed Ali Khan Bahadur, G O I R, K C I S, who was born in 1881 and succeeded in 1908. His

was created Hony Major in the Indian Army in June 1916 and promoted to the rank of Lt. Col in December 1919

The chief products are cotton, sugar, poppy, muscad, mustard, ajwain, methi, tobacco, garlic, onions and all sorts of grains

The State maintains Bappers, Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery. The capital is Maer Kotla. The population of the town is 30,000. Annual revenue of the State is about 16 lakhs

Mandi is an Indian State in the Punjab Political Agency lying in the upper reaches of Beas River which drains nearly all its area. Its area is 1,200 square miles and it lies between 31°-23' North Lat. and 76°-22' East Long., and is bounded on the east by Kulu, on the south by Suket and on the north and west by Kangra. It has an interesting history of considerable length which finally resulted in its entering into a treaty with the British in 1846 A.D.

The present Ruler, Lieutenant His Highness Raja Joginder Sen Bahadur assumed full powers in February 1925. His Highness was married to the only daughter of His Highness the Maharaja of Kapurthala in February 1923 and was blessed with the birth of an heir-apparent in December 1923.

The Chief Executive Officer of the State is Rai Bahadur Dewan Dina Nath Bar at-Law who has been designated as His Highness' Chief Minister. Construction work of the Kangra Valley Railway has been completed and the line was opened for goods traffic on the 1st December 1926 and for passenger traffic on the 1st April 1927. The Railway line will prove of considerable importance in linking Mandi with the Punjab and will materially develop its trade. The work of the Mandi Hydro-Electric Project is in progress. This project when finished will supply electric power to practically the whole of the Punjab and will materially help in developing local industries.

The principal crops are rice, maize, wheat and millet. About three fifths of the State are occupied by forests and grazing lands. It is rich in minerals. The capital is Mandi founded in 1527 which contains several temples and places of interest and is one of the chief marts for commerce with Ladakh and Yarkand.

Nabha—Nabha which became a separate State in 1763 is one of the 8 Phulkian States—Nabha, Patiala and Jind—and though second in point of population and revenue of the 8 sister States, it claims superiority being descended from the eldest branch. It consists of two distinct parts: the main portion comprising 18 separate pieces of territory scattered among the other Punjab States and Districts forms the City of Nabha and the *Nizamat* of Phul and Amloh; the second portion forms the *Nizamat* of Bawal in the extreme south-east of the Punjab on the border of Rajputana; this *Nizamat* of Bawal was subsequently added to its territory as a reward from the British Government for the loyalty of the Rulers of Nabha. The State now covers an area of about

1,000 square miles and has a population of about 3 lakhs. The State maintains one battalion of Infantry known as the Nabha Akali Infantry under the Indian State Forces Scheme consisting of 450. For the preservation of the peace there is also a Police force consisting of over 400 men.

The State is traversed by the main and 3 branch lines of the N.W. Railway and the B.B. & C.I. crosses the *Nizamat* of Bawal. A portion of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind Canal. The crops of the State are gram, pulses, bajra, sugarcane, cotton, wheat and barley, to facilitate trade the Durbar has opened grain markets and Banks near the principal railway station within the State territory. The chief industries of the State consist of the manufacture of silver and gold ornaments, brass utensils, and cotton carpets, lac and gels, etc. There are some spinning factories and a cotton steam press in the State which are working successfully. In 1923 an inquiry was held into certain matters in dispute between the Patiala and the Nabha Durbars which showed that the Nabha Durbar had fabricated cases against persons connected with the Patiala State with the object of injuring them through the Patiala Durbar. As a result the Maharaja Ripudaman Singh who was born in 1885 and succeeded his father in 1911 entered into an agreement with the Government of India whereby he voluntarily separated himself from the administration and the control of the State was accordingly assumed by the Government of India. In consequence of repeated breaches of the agreement by the Maharaja, he was in February 1928 deprived of the title of Maharaja and of all rights and privileges pertaining thereto, and his eldest son, Partab Singh was recognized as Maharaja in his stead.

Patiala—This is the largest of the Phulkian States, and the premier State in the Punjab. Its territory is scattered and interspersed with small States and even unguo villages belonging to other States and British districts. It also comprises a portion of the Simla Hills and territory on the border of Jaipur and Alwar States. Area 5,932 square miles. Population 1,499,739. Gross income Rs. one crore and thirty-five lakhs. Its history as a separate State begins in 1762. The present Ruler, Major-General His Highness Varan and I Khas Daulat-Istishia Maner ul Zaman Amir-ul-Umma Maharaja Dhiraaj Rajeshwar, Sri Maharaja-I-Rajgan Sir Bhupindra Singh Mohinder Bahadur, G.C.S.I., C.I.F. G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C. was born in 1891, succeeded in 1900, and assumed the reins of government in 1909 on attaining majority. His Highness the Maharaja Dhiraaj enjoys at present personal salute of 19 guns and he and his successors the distinction of exemption from presenting Nasar to the Viceroy in Durbar in perpetuity. The principal crops are grain, barley, wheat, sugar cane, rapeseed, cotton and tobacco. A great part of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind and Western Juma Canal distributaries. It possesses valuable forests. The State is rich in antiquities, especially at Pinjaur, Sunam, Sirhind, Bhaini, Narnaul, etc. One hundred and thirty-eight miles of

broad gauge railway line comprising two sections—from Rajpura to Bhatinda and from Sirhind to Ropar—have been constructed by the State at its own cost. The North-Western Railway, the R I Railway, the B B & O I Railway, and the J B Railway traverse the State. His Highness maintains a contingent of two regiments of cavalry and four battalions of Infantry—one battery of Horse Artillery.

The State maintains a first grade college which imparts free education to all students. Primary education is also free throughout the State. The Durbar sanctioned a scheme of compulsory education in 1923.

Since the State has entered into alliance with the British Government in 1800 it has rendered help to the British Government on all critical occasions such as Gurkha War, Sikh War, Mutiny of 1857, Afghan War of 1878-79, Tirah and N W F campaign of 1897. On the outbreak of the European War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King Emperor and offered his personal services. The entire Imperial Service Contingent was on active service throughout the period of the War and served on various fronts in Egypt, Gallipoli, Mesopotamia and Palestine, winning numerous distinctions. Two mule and one camel corps were raised and placed at the service of the British Government for the period of the War, and in addition to furnishing nearly 28,000 recruits for the British Indian Army and maintaining the State Imperial Service Contingent at full strength, contributed substantially in money and material. Again in 1919 on the outbreak of hostilities with Afghanistan His Highness served personally on the Frontier on the Staff of the General Officer Commanding and the Imperial Service Contingent saw active service towards Kohat and Quetta fronts. For his services on the N W Frontier His Highness was mentioned in despatches.

His Highness was selected by His Excellency the Viceroy to represent the Ruling Princes of India at the Imperial War Conference and Imperial War Cabinet in June 1918 and during his stay in Europe His Highness paid visits to all

the different and principal fronts in Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt (Palestine) and received the following decorations from the allied Sovereigns and Governments:—(a) Grand Cordon of the Order de Leopold, (b) Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, France, and (c) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy and (d) Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, (e) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania, (f) Grand Cross of the Order of St. Saviour of Greece (1926).

His Highness represented the Indian Princes at the League of Nations in 1925. In 1926 he was elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes (Narendra Mandal). He was re-elected Chancellor of the Chamber in 1927, 28, 29, 30. In 1930 His Highness led the Prince's delegation to the Round Table Conference.

Sirmur (Nahan)—This is a hilly State in the Himalaya under the Political control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore. Its history is said to date from the 11th century. In the eighteenth century the State was able to repulse the Gurkha invasion, but the Gurkhas were invited to aid in the suppression of an internal revolt in the State and they in turn had to be evicted by the British. In 1857 the Raja rendered valuable services to the British, and during the second Afghan War he sent a contingent to the North West Frontier. The present Chief is Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Amar Prakash Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1888 and succeeded in 1911. The main agricultural feature of the State is the recent development of the Kiarda Dun, a fertile level plain which produces wheat, gram, rice, maize and other crops. The State forests are valuable and there is an iron foundry at Nahan which was started in 1867 but, being unable to compete with the imported iron, is now used for the manufacture of sugar cane crushing mills. The State supports a Corps of Sappers and Miners which served in the Great War. It was captured with General Townsend's force at Kut-al-Amara but the Corps was reconstituted and sent to service.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA.

The States under this Government comprise the Shan States which are included in British India though they do not form part of Burma proper and are not comprised in the regularly administered area of the Province and the Karen States which are not part of British India and are not subject to any of the laws in force in the Shan States or other parts of Burma.

The Shan States comprise the two isolated States of Hsawngshup and Singaling Hkamti in the Upper Chindwin District under the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaling Division, the eight petty village communities under separate hereditary Chiefs known as Hkamti Long in the Myittha District and the two main divisions of the Shan States known as the Northern and Southern Shan States numbering six and thirty-two States respectively which are under the Commissioner, Federated Shan States.

Hsawngshup with an area of 529 square miles and a population of 7,048 lies between the 24 and 25 parallels of latitude and on the 95 parallel of longitude between the Chindwin river and the State of Manipur.

Singaling Hkamti has an area of 963 square miles and a population of 2,287 and lies on the 26th and 26th parallel of latitude and longitude respectively.

The Hkamti Long States have an area of 200 square miles with a population of 6,520 and lie between the 27th and 28th parallel of latitude on the Upper Waters of the N branch of the Irrawaddy.

The Northern Shan States (area 20,156 square miles and population 592,812) and the Southern Shan States (area 36,167 square miles and population 347,518), form with the unadmini-

stered Wa States (area about 2,000 square miles) and the Karen State, a huge triangle lying roughly between the 19th and 24th parallels of latitude and the 96th and 103rd parallel of longitude with its base on the plains of Burma and its apex on the Mekong river.

The population consists chiefly of Shans who belong to the Shan group of the Tai Chinese family; the remainder belong chiefly to the Wa, Palaung and Mon Khmer groups of races of the Austro-Asiatic branch of the Austro family or to the Karen family which Sir George Grierson now proposes to separate from the Tai Chinese family. There are also a number of Kachins and others of the Tibeto-Burman family. The Shans themselves shade off imperceptibly into a markedly Chinese race on the frontier. Buddhism and Animism are the principal religions.

The climate over so large an area varies greatly. In the narrow lowlying valleys the heat in summer is excessive. Elsewhere the summer shade temperature is usually 80 to 95 Fahr. In winter frost is severe on the paddy plains and open downs but the temperature on the hills is more equable. The rainfall varies from 50 to 100 inches in different localities.

The agricultural products of the States are rice, pulses, maize, buckwheat, cotton, sesame, gum, groundnuts, oranges and pineapples.

Land is held chiefly on communal tenure but unoccupied land is easily obtainable on lease from the Chiefs in accordance with special rules for non-natives of the States. Great spaces of the States are suitable for cattle, pony and mule breeding and in the Northern States Chinese settlers appear to have found the latter a very paying proposition.

The mineral resources of the States are still unexplored. The Burma Corporation have a concession for silver and lead in the Northern States which they claim to be the richest in the world. The Mawson area in the Southern States is also rich in lead. Lignite and iron ore of a low grade are found in many places.

Lashio, the headquarters of the Northern Shan States District, is the terminus of the Myittha Lashio Branch of the Burma Railway (178 miles) and is also connected with Mandalay by a cart road.

The Burma Corporation's narrow gauge private railway track 45 miles long connects their Bawdwin mine with the Burma Railway system at Namgya.

The Southern Shan States are served by the Burma Railway branch line Thazi to Heho (87 miles) which has recently been extended to Tayaw in the Yawngwe plain.

Taunggyi, the headquarters of the Southern Shan States is connected with Thazi by a well graded motor road. The States vary much in size and importance. The largest State is Kengtung with an area of 12,400 square miles and population 208,761. The smallest State is Namkum with an area of 14 square miles and population 830.

Haipaw with an area of 4,400 square miles and population 131,410 is the richest State with a gross revenue of Rs 10,38,712.

The Sawbwas of Kengtung Haipaw and Yawngwe and Mongnai have salutes of nine guns while the Mong Mait Sawbwa has a personal salute of the same number.

Administration

Under the Burma Laws Act, 1908 the Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration of every Shan State is vested in the Chief of the State subject to the restrictions specified in the Sanad of appointment granted to him and under the same Act the law to be administered in each State is the customary law of the State so far as it is in accordance with justice, equity and good conscience and not opposed to the law in force in the rest of British India. The customary law may be modified by the Governor who has also power to appoint officers to take part in the administration of any State and to regulate the powers and proceedings of such officers. The Chiefs are bound by their sanads to follow the advice of the Superintendents appointed but subject to certain modifications which have been made in the customary law relating to criminal and civil justice have more or less maintained the semi-independent status which was found existing at the annexation of Upper Burma.

In 1920, Sir Reginald Craddock, Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, proposed a scheme for the sanction of the Secretary of State under which the Chiefs of the Northern and Southern Shan States have agreed to federalize the departments of Government in which they had been previously largely dependent on contributions from the Provincial Funds. Under this scheme no interference is contemplated in the internal management of the States and the Chiefs continue to collect their taxes and be responsible for law and order, maintain Courts for the disposal of criminal and civil cases, appoint their own officials and control their own subjects under the advice of the Superintendents. But the Federation is responsible for the centralised Departments of Public Works, Medical, Forests, Education, Agriculture and to a small extent Police. In place of the individual tribute formerly paid by them the Chiefs contribute to the Federation a proportion of their revenue which amounts roughly to the expenditure thereto incurred by them on the heads of administration now centralised while the Provincial Government surrenders to the Federation all provincial revenue previously derived from the States and makes an annual contribution to enable it to maintain its services at the same degree of efficiency formerly enjoyed. The Federation on the other hand pays a fixed proportion of its revenue to the Provincial Treasury as tribute in place of the individual contributions of the Chiefs. Under this scheme the Federation is a subsidiary of the Burma Government, is self-contained and responsible for its own progress. The Chiefs express their views on Federal and general matters through a Council of Chiefs consisting of all Chiefs of the rank of Sawbwas.

and four elected representatives of the lesser Chiefs. The Superintendents, Northern Shan States and the Commissioner of the Federated Shan States to whom the supervision of the Federation has been entrusted are ex-officio members of the Council. The scheme was sanctioned and brought into force with effect from October 1922. The first meeting of the Council of Chiefs was formally opened by His Excellency the Governor Sir Spencer Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., C.S., in March 1923.

Karenni

This district which formerly consisted of five States now consists of three as two have been amalgamated with others. It has a total area of 3,550 square miles and a population of 48,780. It lies on the south of the Southern Shan States between Siam and the British district of Toungoo. The largest State is Kantarawadi with an area of 3,000 square miles and a population of 36,021 and a revenue of nearly 1½ lakhs of rupees. More than half of the

inhabitants are Red Karens. An Assistant Political Officer is posted at Lohkaw subject to the supervision of the Superintendent, Southern Shan States, who exercises in practice much the same control over the Chiefs as is exercised in the Shan States though nominally they are more independent than their Shan neighbours. Mineral and forest rights however in Karenni belong to the Chiefs and not to the Government. In the past substantial contributions from Provincial revenues have been made to the Karenni Chief for education and medical service. The Chiefs are at present unwilling to surrender their special rights and join the Shan States Federation though very considerable advantages might accrue from their doing so.

The principal wealth of the country used to be in its teak timber and a large alien population was at one time supported by the timber trade. This has largely declined in the last few years and unless the Chiefs are prepared to deny themselves and lose their forests they will soon disappear.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM

Manipur—The only State of importance, under the Government of Assam is Manipur which has an area of 8,456 square miles and a population of 3,84,016 (1921 Census) of which about 80 per cent are Hindus and 21 per cent animistic hill tribes. Manipur consists of a great tract of mountainous country, and a valley about 50 miles long and 20 miles wide, which is shut in on every side. The State adopted Hinduism in the early eighteenth century, in the reign of Pamheiba or Garib Nawaz, who subsequently made several invasions into Burma. On the Burmese retreating, Manipur negotiated a treaty of alliance with the British in 1763. The Burmese again invaded Manipur during the first Burmese war, and on the conclusion of peace in 1826 Manipur was declared independent. The chief event in its subsequent history was the intervention of the British in 1891 to establish the claim of Kula Chandra Singh as Maharaja followed by the treacherous murder of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quinlan, and the officers with him, and the withdrawal of the escort which accompanied him. From 1891 to 1907 the State was administered by the Political Agent, during the minority of H. H. Chura Chand Singh. The Raja was invested with ruling powers in 1907 and formally installed on the throne in 1908. For his services during the War the hereditary title of Maharaja was

conferred on him. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The administration of the State is now conducted by H. H. the Maharaja assisted by a Durbar, which consists of a President, who is a member of the Indian Civil Service, his services being lent to the State by the Assam Government three ordinary and three additional members, who are all Manipuris. The staple crop of the country is rice. Forests of various kinds cover the great part of the mountain ranges.

Khasi and Jaintia Hills—These petty chiefships, 25 in number, with a total area of about 2,900 square miles and a population of 136,000, are included under the Government of Assam. Most of the States have treaties or engagements with the British Government. The largest of them is Khrim, the smallest is Nongliwal, which has a population of only 246. Most of them are ruled by a Chief or Siem. The Siemship usually remains in one family. The succession was originally controlled by a small electoral body constituted from the heads of certain clans but in recent years there has been a tendency to broaden the elective basis. The constitution of a Khasi State has always been of a very democratic character, a Siem exercising but little control over his people.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

The Central Provinces include fifteen feudatory States subordinate to the Government with an area of 31,080 square miles and a population of 2,067,871. One of the States, Makrai, lies within Hoshangabad District, the remainder are situated in the Chhattisgarh Division, to the different districts of which they were formerly attached. Their relations with Government are controlled by a Political Agent. The States vary greatly in size and importance, Sakhi, the smallest, having an area of 198 square miles and Bastar, the largest, an area of 12,062

square miles. They are administered by hereditary chiefs, who hold on conditions of loyalty and good government set forth in patents and acknowledgments of fealty, but are nominally free from direct interference save in the case of sentences of death, which require His Excellency the Governor's confirmation. But, as a fact, the Government has exercised a very large amount of control, owing mainly to the frequency with which the States have been taken under direct management, because of either the minority or the misconduct of the chiefs.

The States pay a tribute to Government which amounts in the aggregate to about 2½ lakhs.

Statistics relating to the chief States are contained in the following table—

State	Area	Population 1921	Revenue (approximate) in lakhs.	
			Sq Miles	Rs
Bastar	13,062	464,137	9	
Jashpur	1,963	154,156	3	
Kanker	1,429	124,928	4	
Khatnagarh	981	124,008	6	
Kandgaon	871	147,919	6	
Raigarh	1,426	241,634	6	
Surguja	6,055	378,226	5	
Eight other States	5,238	432,363	14	
Total	31,080	2,067,371	53	

Bastar—This State, in the south-east corner of the province, is the most important in the group. In area (13,062 square miles) it is the twelfth largest State in India, but the population in 1921 was only 464,137 and is very scattered and backward. A point of interest is that Bastar is the only State in India of which the Chief is a Hindu lady. She is the last descendant of an ancient family of Lunar Rajputs, which ruled over Warangal until the Mahomedan conquest of the Deccan in the 14th century A. D. when the brother of the last Raja of Warangal fled into Bastar and established a kingdom there. From then till the days of the Marathas the State was virtually independent its inaccessibility securing it from all but occasional raids of Mahomedan freebooters. The Bhonslas of Nagpur imposed a small tribute on Bastar in the 15th century, and at various times for delay in payment deprived it of the Sihawa tract in the Raipur district, and allowed the Raja of Jeypore in the adjacent Visagapatam Agency of Madras to retain possession of the Ktrapad tract, originally pledged to Jeypore by a Bastar Raja for assistance during family dissensions. The dispute between Bastar and Jeypore over this land led to constant border disturbances, and was not finally settled till 1865, when the Government of India, while recognising Bastar's claim, finally made the tract over to Jeypore on the ground of long possession, on condition of payment by Jeypore of Rs. 3,000 tribute, two-thirds of which was remitted from the tribute payable by Bastar. The present tribute paid by Bastar is Rs. 18,000 a year.

On the formation of the Central Provinces, Bastar was recognised as a Feudatory State. Since then the State has made steady, if slow, progress, hampered by the innate conservatism of its aboriginal population, which has from

time to time rebelled. The last rebellion, in 1910, was due to oppression by minor State officials and dislike of the rigorous forest policy then under introduction. After the rebellion the Raja had his powers reduced, and a series of Diwans was appointed by the Central Provinces Administration. The State has since his death continued to be under Government management, owing to the minority of Rani Profulla Kumari Devi, the present Chief. The present Administrator of the State is Mr. W. V. Grigson, I.C.S., of the Central Provinces Commission. He is assisted by two sub-divisional officers, a European Medical Officer, a State Engineer, a Superintendent of Police and a Forest Officer.

Nearly 11,000 square miles are covered by forest, of which about 3,000 square miles are reserved. Cultivation is therefore sparse. Rice and mustard are the chief crops. There is a large export of grain, timber and minor forest produce, particularly myrabolans. Most of the sal forest is leased to Messrs. Gillanders Arbuthnot for sleeper manufacture. The forest revenue in 1920 was about 3½ lakhs. The extension of the Salur branch of the B. N. R. to Jagdalpur and of the Raipur Forest Tramway to Kandgaon are under consideration. There are more than 600 miles of gravel motorable road in the State. The advent of the railway should lead to a great increase in the revenue of the State, and may lead to the exploitation of its great deposits of iron, manganese and tin. The revenue in 1920 was Rs. 9.5 lakhs, expenditure Rs. 10.1 lakhs and free closing balance Rs. 2.9 lakhs.

The capital, Jagdalpur, on the Indrawati River, has a population of 7,999 and is 184 miles by motorable road from Raipur in the Central Provinces and 210 from Visagapatam in Madras Presidency. The famous Chitrakot falls (97 ft. high) of the Indrawati are 23 miles from Jagdalpur.

Surguja—Until 1905 this was included in Chota Nagpur States of Bengal. The most important feature is the Mainpat, a magnificent tableland forming the southern barrier of the State. The early history of Surguja is obscure, but according to a local tradition in Palamu, the present ruling family is said to be descended from an Arkel Raja of Palamu. In 1768 a Maratha army overran the State, and compelled its Chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Bhonsla Raja. At the end of the eighteenth century, in consequence of the Chief having aided a rebellion in Palamu against the British, an expedition entered Surguja, and, though order was temporarily restored, disputes again broke out between the Chief and his relations, necessitating British interference. Until 1818 the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness, but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhoji Bhonsla of Berar, and order was soon established. The principal crops are rice and other cereals. The present Chief of the State is Maharaja Ramannil Saran Singh Deo, C.I.E., who succeeded to the gaddi in 1916 and enjoys full powers of a Ruling Chief.

JAMMU AND KASHMIR STATE.

The territory known generally as the Jammu and Kashmir State lies between 32° and 37° N and 75° and 80° E. It is an almost entirely mountainous region with a strip of level land along the Punjab Border, and its mountain valleys and lakes comprise some of the grandest scenery in the world. The State may be divided physically into three areas: the upper, comprising the area drained by the River Indus and its tributaries; the middle, drained by the Jhelum and Kishanganga Rivers; and the lower area, consisting of the level strip along the southern border, and its adjacent ranges of hills. The dividing lines between the three areas are the snow-bound inner and outer Himalayan ranges known as the Zaskar and the Panchal. The area of the State is 84,208 square miles. Beginning in the south where the great plain of the Punjab ends, it extends northwards to the high Karakoram mountains. "Where three Empires Meet."

Briefly described, the State comprises the valleys of the three great rivers of Northern India, viz., the upper reaches of the Chenab and the Jhelum, and the middle reaches of the Indus. The total population is 3,220,518 souls.

HISTORY—Various historians and poets have left more or less trustworthy records of the history of the Valley of Kashmir and the adjacent regions. In 1586 it was annexed to the Moghul Empire by Akbar, Sonagar, the Capital originally known as Pravarapura, had by then been long established though many of the fine buildings said to have been erected by early Hindu rulers had been destroyed by the Muslim invaders who first penetrated into the Valley in the fourteenth century. In the reign of Sikandar, who was a contemporary of Tamerlane, a large number of Hindus was converted to Islam. Jehangir did much to beautify the Valley but after Aurangzeb there was a period of disorder and decay and by the middle of the eighteenth century the Suba or Governor of Kashmir had become practically independent of Delhi. Thereafter the country experienced the oppression of Afghan rule until it was rescued in 1819 by an army sent by Maharaja Ranjit Singh. The Sikh rule was less oppressive than that of the Afghans. The early history of the State as at present constituted is that of Maharaja Shri Gulab Singh, a son of the old Ruling Family of Jammu who rose to eminence in the service of Maharaja Ranjit Singh of Lahore and was, in recognition of his distinguished services made Raja of Jammu in 1820. He held aloof from the war between the British and the Sikhs only appearing as mediator after the battle of Mubarak (1846) when the British made over to him the valley of Kashmir and certain other areas in return for his services in re-establishing peace. His son His Highness Maharaja Hanraj Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., a model Hindu and one of the staunchest allies of the British Government ruled from 1857 to 1885. He did much to consolidate his possessions and give order in the frontier districts. He was succeeded by his eldest son His Highness Maharaja Sri Pratap Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who died on 23rd December 1925 and was succeeded

by His Highness the present Maharaja, Shri Harsingh Bahadur.

The most notable reform effected in the State during the reign of the late Maharaja was the Land Revenue Settlement originally carried out under Lawrence and revised from time to time.

ADMINISTRATION—For some years after the accession to the *gaddi* of the late Maharaja, the administration of the State was conducted by a Council over which the Maharaja presided. In 1903 this Council was abolished and the administration of the State was thenceforward carried on by His Highness the Maharaja with the help of a Chief Minister and a number of Ministers in charge of different portfolios. This system continued until the 24th January 1922 when an Executive Council was inaugurated. Very recently, certain modifications have been introduced in the Constitution as a result of which the contact of His Highness with the administration of the State has become more direct and intimate.

The British Resident has his headquarters at Srinagar and Sialkot and there is also a Political Agent at Gilgit. A British Officer is stationed at Leh to assist in the supervision of the Central Asian Trade with India which passes through Kashmir.

In the Dogras the State has splendid material for the Army which consists of 7,798 troops. Besides this thousands of Dogras serve in the Indian Army.

FINANCE—The financial position of the State is strong. The total revenue including jagirs, is about Rs. 2,70,00,000, the chief sources being land, forests, customs and excise and Sericulture. There is a big reserve and no debt.

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY—The population is pre-eminently agricultural and pastoral. The principal food crops are rice, maize and wheat. Oilseed is also an important crop. Barley, cotton, saffron, tobacco, beans, walnuts, almonds and hops are also grown. Pears and apples the principal fruits of the Valley, are exported in large quantities. The State forests are extensive and valuable. The principal species of timber trees are deodar, blue pine and fir. The most valuable forests occur in Kishtwar, Karnah and Kamraj Raqs. A survey of the mineral resources of the State is being conducted under an expert. The most noteworthy of the minerals are bauxite, coal, fuller's earth, kaoline, slate, zinc, copper and talc. Gold is found in Bakistan and Gilgit, sapphires in Paddar, aquamarines in Skardu and lead in Uri. The silk industry in Srinagar is the largest of its kind in the world. Manufacture of silk is a very ancient industry in Kashmir. Zain-ul-Abidin who ruled from 1421 to 1478 is said to have imported silk weavers from Khurasan and settled them here. Woolen cloth, shawl, paper, macki and wood carving of the State are world famous. The State participated in the British Empire Exhibition of 1924. The Kashmir Court was styled "The Gem Of The Smaller Courts" and attracted many visitors.

COMMUNICATIONS—Great efforts have been made and are being made towards the improvement of roads for wheeled traffic in the State. The Jhelum Valley road (194 miles) which links the Kashmir Valley with the Punjab and the North Western Frontier Province is considered to be one of the finest motorable mountain roads in the world.

The Banihal Cart Road, 205 miles long, which has recently been completed, joins Kashmir with the North Western Railway system at Jammu-Tawi and is also a fine motorable road.

Roads for pack animals lead from Srinagar, the summer capital of Kashmir, to the frontier districts of Gilgit and Ladakh. Internal village communications have also been much improved.

The Jammu-Suchetgarh Railway, a section of the Wazirabad Sialkot branch line of the North Western Railway system, is the only Railway in the State. The mountainous nature of the country has made the extension of the line into the heart of the State so far impracticable.

PUBLIC WORKS—In 1904 a flood spill channel above Srinagar was constructed to minimise the constant danger of floods in the River Jhelum and it was hoped that the danger would be still further reduced by the carrying out of a scheme for lowering a part of the bed of the River Jhelum by dredging which has been taken in hand. It is interesting to know that dredging operations were once before carried out in the reign of Avantivarman (A.D. 855-863) by his

engineer Suyya near Sopore, with the same object. Good progress has been made with irrigation but the most important scheme of recent years has been the installation of a large Electric Power Station on the Jhelum River at Mahora which was completed in 1907.

EDUCATION—Of the total population of 3,359,527 excluding the frontier tracts where literacy is not recorded, there are 72,328 persons who are able to read and write, of whom 4,007 only are females. In other words, 26 out of every 1,000 persons aged five or more can read and write. Among males 46 in every 1,000 are literate. The number of educational institutions including two Arts Colleges and two technical institutes is 784 and is being steadily increased. In municipal areas education for boys has been made compulsory from 1929. Much progress has also been made in female education and two new girls' schools have been established during the year.

REFORMS—The most important reforms connected with the present Maharaja's reign have been the establishment of an independent High Court of Judicature modelled on British High Courts and the annual summoning of representatives from the provinces as a beginning of popular institutions in the State. Important legislative measures passed by His Highness Government in recent years include the raising of the age of consent to 14 for girls and 18 for boys and the *Agriculturists' Relief Regulation* meant to cope with the problem of rural indebtedness.

THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES

The Naradra Mandal, or Chamber of Princes came into existence with the earnest co-operation of a number of leading Princes themselves as one of the results of the Report on Indian constitutional reform presented to Parliament by Mr. Montagu, Secretary of State for India and H. E. Lord Chelmsford, Viceroy and Governor General of India, in 1919. The proposal was that the Chamber should exist as a permanent consultative body, with the Viceroy as President and the members composing the Chamber consisting mainly of the Princes and Chiefs having salutes, or whose membership might otherwise be considered desirable by the Viceroy. Certain smaller Chiefs were grouped and were given the privilege of nominating a member to represent them from year to year. The Chamber is a recommendatory body, which performs its functions under a constitution approved by the Secretary of State and it deals with questions submitted to it concerning the Princes and their rights and privileges generally and their position in Imperial affairs.

The Chamber was formally inaugurated by H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught on 6th February 1921. It meets regularly once a year and the agenda of subjects for discussion is framed and proposed by the Chancellor of the Chamber who at present is His Highness the Maharajah of Patiala. The Chamber selects by vote its own officers, who are the Chancellor, a pro-Chancellor to act for him in his absence out of India and a Standing Committee of the Chamber. This Committee considers before the annual meetings the subjects to be discussed at them.

Until 1929, the proceedings of the Chamber were considered as confidential and there was no admittance of the general public to its meetings. At the annual session in February 1929, the Princes passed a resolution by which all meetings were ordinarily made open to the public. The Chamber contains very restricted accommodation and admission has to be regulated according to the number of seats available.

Indian States' Tribute.

Many of the States pay tribute, varying in amount according to the circumstances of each case, to the British Government. This tribute is frequently due to exchanges of territory or settlement of claims between the Governments but is chiefly in lieu of former obligations to supply or maintain troops. The actual annual receipts in the form of tribute and contributions from Indian States are summarised in the following table. The relations of the States to one another in respect of tributes are complicated, and it would serve no useful purpose to enter upon the question. It may, however, be mentioned that a large number of the States of Kathiawar and Gujarat pay tribute of some kind to Baroda, and that Gwalior claims tribute from some of the smaller States of Central India —

States paying tribute directly to the Government of India

Tribute from Jaipur		26,667
" " Kotah		15,648
" " Udaipur		12,333
" " Jodhpur		6,538
" " Bundi		8,900
" " Other States		15,170
Contribution of Jodhpur towards cost of Eripura Irregular Force	.	7,667
" of Kotah towards cost of Dechi Irregular Force		12,333
" of Bhopal towards cost of Bhopal Levy		10,763
" of Jaora towards cost of United Malwa Contingent	.	9,149
Contributions towards cost of Malwa Bhil Corps	" "	2,380
<i>Central Provinces and Berar</i>		
Tribute from various States		15,666
<i>Burma</i>		
Tributes from Shan States		28,534
" " other States		1,367
<i>Assam</i>		
Tribute from Manipur		333
" " Kamrai		7
<i>Bengal</i>		
Tribute from Cooch Behar		4,514
<i>United Provinces</i>		
Tribute from Benares		14,600
" " Kapurthala (Bathraich)		8,733
<i>Punjab</i>		
Tribute from Mandi		6,667
" " other States		3,068
<i>Madras</i>		
Tribute from Travancore		53,333
Peshkash and subsidy from Mysore		233,333
" " " " Cochin		13,333
" " " " Travancore		888
<i>Bombay</i>		
Tribute from Kathiawar		31,129
" " various petty States		2,825
Contribution from Baroda States		25,000
" " Jagirdars, Southern Mahratta Country		5,765
Tribute from Cutch		5,486

It was announced at the Coronation Durbar of 1911 that there would in future be no *Nasirana* payments on succession.

The Statutory Commission.

SUMMARY OF THE REPORT

The Indian Statutory Commission was appointed by Royal Warrant on November 26, 1927 its members are—

The Right Hon. Sir John Simon, B. CVO
M.P. (Chairman)

The Viscount Burnham GCMG, CH

The Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal

The Hon. E. C. G. Adgey, C.B., M.P.

The Right Hon. Vernon Harcourt, M.P.

Colonel the Right Hon. G. B. Lane Fox, M.P.

Major C. B. Atter, M.P.

The first part of the Report of the Commission was published on June 10th 1930 as Volume I surveys the existing conditions in India. The terms of reference and the procedure followed by the Commission in its inquiry are first explained. The Commission was appointed under the Government of India Act of 1919 for the purpose of inquiring into the working of the system of government, the growth of education, and the development of representative institutions in British India and matters connected therewith, and of reporting as to whether and to what extent it is desirable to establish the principle of responsible government or to extend, modify or restrict the degree of responsible government existing therein including the question whether the establishment of a second Chamber of the local Legislatures is or is not desirable.

In an Introduction Mr. Montagu's declaration of British policy in the House of Commons in August 1917—the pronouncement which supplies the governing conditions for all schemes for India—is set out. In that declaration the policy of the British Government was laid down as the gradual development of self governing institutions with a view to the progressive realization of responsible Government in India as an integral part of the British Empire.

The rest of Volume I is divided into seven parts as follows—

PART I—THE CONDITIONS OF THE PROBLEM

This Part provides in a compendious form a statement as accurate and impartial as we [the Commissioners] can make of what India is—its vast size and varied population its complication of races and religions its social divisions its economic circumstances and its growing political consciousness. To this statement is added an account of the Indian States and of the Army in India, subjects which cannot so great an influence on the Indian problem as a whole and are so vitally involved in its future treatment."

PART II—THE EXISTING CONSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE

In this section the essentials of the earlier Reforms are described the principles of the Reforms of 1919 are stated and the system set up in that year is explained.

PART III—WORKING OF REFORMED CONSTITUTION

The purpose of this section is explained by its title. It gives an account of the political developments since 1920 with a description of the non-cooperation movement and some notes on the Indian Press.

PART IV—THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND JUDICIAL SYSTEM

This Part includes an account of the functions and organization of the various administrative services as well as of various provincial services. It also includes a description and criticism of local self Government and an account of the minor administrations especially of the North West Frontier Province and Baluchistan.

PART V—THE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC FINANCE

This gives an account of the fiscal system as it is both in the Provinces and at the Centre, with a description of the nature and results of the 'Weston Settlement'.

PART VI—THE GROWTH OF EDUCATION IN BRITISH INDIA

The Commission explains that it is primarily concerned with education and its organization in relation to political and constitutional conditions and potentialities of progress.

PART VII—PUBLIC OPINION IN INDIA

In this Part the Commissioners briefly indicate their view of the extent of political consciousness in India and give an estimate of the forces at work in Indian public life. The volume also contains three maps.

VOL II FINAL RECOMMENDATIONS

In Vol II of the Report published on June 24 1930 the first principle which the Commissioners lay down is that the new constitution should as far as possible, contain within itself provision for its own development.

A consideration of what should be the ultimate goal of British policy in India in pursuance of the declaration of August 20 1917 leads the Commissioners to lay down a second principle. It is that any constitutional changes now recommended for British India must have regard to a future development when India is a whole not merely British India will take her place among the constituent States of the Commonwealth of Nations united under the Crown.

Having declared that a glance at the map of India will show how closely the States and British India are interwoven the Commissioners continue. It is one of the great causes of British rule in India that it has brought a peace and unity hardly ever before known in the peninsula and has substituted for a congeries of warring States a single India united by a common allegiance to the Crown although one part only is directly under British rule.

The Commissioners point out that economic forces are such that the States and British India must stand or fall together, and they call attention to the effect on the States

of the adoption, at the wish of the Central Assembly, of an extended protective tariff.

This body legislating professedly only for British India has in effect imposed indirect taxation on the inhabitants of the States. As the States themselves have their own tariff policies there is a serious possibility that unless provision can be made for the reconciliation of divergent interests, numbers of tariff walls will be perpetuated in an area where fiscal unity is most desirable.

There is the still more fundamental point that there are few subjects which should form the field of activity of a Central Government in India which do not, in fact, interest also the Indian States. An outstanding example is that of defence. Others are communications and important social matters such as the prevention of the spread of epidemics.

The Ideal of Federation.—The Commissioners declare that if the principle they have laid down is valid, it inevitably follows that the ultimate constitution of India must be federal for it is only in a federal constitution that units differing so widely in constitution as the provinces and the States can be brought together while retaining internal autonomy. This, they say, is recognised in the Montagu Chelmsford Report. They also quote the following pronouncement made by the Maharaja of Bikaner to the Legislative Assembly of his State on December 19, 1929—

"I look forward to the day when a United India will be enjoying Dominion Status under the sceptre of the King Emperor and the Princes and States will be in the fullest enjoyment of what is their due—as a solid federal body in a position of absolute equality with the federal provinces of British India. However distant that may be the Commissioners declare, we desire in our proposals to do nothing to hinder but everything to help its arrival for already there are emerging problems that can only be settled satisfactorily by cooperation between British India and the States."

The Report goes on—It might be possible to visualize the future of federation in India as the bringing into relationship of two separate federations, one composed of the elements which make up British India, the other of the Indian States. We do not wish in any way to be dogmatic on a matter which must be decided by those concerned. While we have given much attention to the subject we have not received evidence from the Rulers of the Indian States. We recognize that it is one of the matters which may be discussed when the proposed conference takes place.

Units of Federation.—In considering the constituent elements out of which the federation of British India is to be built, the Commissioners point to an initial difficulty.

"Federation schemes (they say) usually start with a number of clearly defined States each already possessed of individuality and consciousness whereas in India there are only a number of administrative areas which have grown up almost haphazard as the result of conquest, supersession of former rulers, or administrative convenience."

The present provinces cannot be regarded as in any way ideal areas for self government. Therefore, in spite of the difficulties encountered in all attempts to alter boundaries and the administrative and financial complications that arise, the Commissioners make a definite recommendation for "reviewing and if possible resetting, the provincial boundaries of India at as early a date as possible. Meanwhile, the provinces of India exist and form the basis on which a federal structure must be built."

There is however one province, to day an integral part of British India which should, the Commissioners think be definitely excluded from the new policy. That is Burma.

As the Montagu Chelmsford Report pointed out Burma is not India. Its inclusion in India is a historical accident. We think that when an endeavour is being made to lay down the broad lines of advance towards an ultimate goal, the opportunity should be taken to break a union which does not rest on common interests. The reasons for this conclusion are developed in Part VI which also contains some remarks upon the future constitution of Burma.

What is needed, the Commissioners say is a central organ which can at once take up the work of British India so far as this does not devolve on the provinces, but which at the same time is capable of expansion into a body representative of All India in the wider sense.

If the ideal to be aimed at (the Report goes on) is a federation to which the Indian States will one day adhere the process of evolution in British India towards provincial autonomy in matters of Internal Government must be thoroughly carried out. The union of constituents such as the Indian States with the provinces of India the former autocratic and the latter democratic, necessarily involves giving the greatest possible internal freedom to the federal units. It is, we think abundantly clear that it is only on such terms that there could be hope of achieving the unity to threaten India. The Central Government becomes on such a theory, an association of units formed mainly for the purpose of performing certain functions on behalf of all."

Fundamentals of Government.—The last principle which the Commission lays down is the paramount necessity of securing that throughout the period during which India is progressing on the road to complete self government there must be full provision made for the maintenance and efficiency of the fundamentals of Government.

However much we may subscribe to the doctrine that good Government is no substitute for self Government, the Commissioners declare, we must ensure that we do not put forward proposals that will permit of Government being replaced by anarchy. It must be recognized that there are grave dangers in the situation of India that must be provided for.

Whenever there has been wanting in India a Government strong enough to defend itself, invasion through the gateway of the North-West has occurred. It is an "absolute con-

dition' for the development of self Government in India that the gateway should be safely held. The Report says:—

'The Army in India must be strong enough for its task. We hold that for many years the presence of British troops, and British officers serving in Indian regiments will be essential. It would be idle to deny that this fact gravely complicates the problem of the introduction of an increasing measure of responsibility into the Central Government but we believe that the proposals which we put forward for consideration with regard to the status of the Army in India would reconcile the demands of security and of advance.

Internal Order—If the external menace to India's peaceful development is serious, the possibilities of internal disturbances are not less grave.

The Commissioners also state that until the spirit of tolerance is more widespread in India and until there is evidence that minorities are prepared to trust to the sense of justice of the majority, there is indeed need for safeguards for minorities and they consider that the only practical means of protecting the weaker or less numerous elements in the population is by the retention of an impartial power residing in the Governor General and the Governors of provinces to be exercised for this purpose.

The Governors Provinces—In Part II the Commissioners formulate their views on the need for change in the system in the Governor's Provinces and their suggestions, as to the direction which those changes should take.

First, they deal with the size and shape of the provinces. The existing provincial boundaries in more than one case embrace areas and peoples of no natural affinity, and sometimes separate those who might under a different scheme be more naturally united. But it is manifestly impossible to recommend a redrawing of the map of India according to some new pattern. In case of Orissa and Sind are mentioned in particular. Not but not all, of the Orissa speaking people are now included in Orissa, and so close a union as now exists between Orissa and Bihar is a glaring example of the artificial connexion of areas which are not naturally related. As for Sind, the Sindhis are both racially and geographically completely separated from the rest of the Bombay Presidency. These cases however, are only prominent examples of a class of question which arises at many points when provincial boundaries are considered. The Commissioners, therefore propose—and they regard it as a matter of urgent importance that the Government of India should set up a Boundaries Commission with a neutral chairman which would investigate the main cases in which provincial readjustment seems called for.

In the meantime, taking the boundaries as they are, the Commissioners turn to the question of provincial constitutional reform. Practically every witness and every document dealing with the question recommends a change. The Report says:

'Indian political thought, which is much given to general conceptions and is not always very definite on the essentials of constructive method, tends to regard the present constitution of the provinces as a temporary expedient which should now give place to "provincial autonomy"—a phrase which is constantly used not to indicate the throwing off of all central control so much as the ending of dyarchy and the creation of a Ministry responsible to the Provincial Legislature in respect of all provincial subjects.

The division of Governmental functions has led to a blurring of the boundary lines of responsibility, and it is as soon as well as a natural instinct which leads so many of India's public men to call for a further change.

Each of the eight Provincial Governments which responded to the Commission's request for a statement of views suggests a somewhat different solution—but they all agree that something should be done. The suggestions of the Provincial Committees and the Indian Central Committee were similarly varied.

The views of the Commission—in the presence of this multitude of counsel and as the result of our own observation and reflection—are stated as follows:—

The working of the existing system in the different provinces has not led everywhere to the same results and a diversity of advice naturally proceeds from those who are considering the question primarily in respect of their own province. But it is extremely undesirable that the new Statute should make different provisions for different provinces, not only because this will lead to jealousy and heart-burning but because such a mode of treatment makes inevitable a repetition of inquiries at close intervals in order to see whether the situation has again changed and what further modifications are called for. Moreover it would be a very bold assumption to imagine that anyone of any race, could settle now in every detail the way in which provincial Government should work out in the future.

The right method we are convinced is to construct a constitutional framework into which all the provinces can fit but which will leave enough latitude for adjustment to the needs of the individual case, and which will enable the constitutional progress of provincial Government to be secured by the healthy method of growth rather than by artificial statutory jumps. There must be sufficient provision in the statutory outline for the essential constitutional structure to be clearly defined, but this is perfectly possible without finding in the statute itself a code of rigid regulations covering every detail in which one province may need slightly different arrangements from another or in which the same province may need adjustments in detail from time to time.

Nothing is more striking, when one compares the statutory provisions for the provinces of India with, for example, the statutory provisions for the provinces of Canada, than the extent to which in the former case the Act of Parliament and the rules made under it elaborate a detailed scheme, precise in almost every

particular, while the British North America Act of 1867 left so much to be implied and to grow. Analogies are particularly dangerous in the case of India where so many of the governing considerations are unique. We are far from suggesting that the conditions are parallel but the contrast brings out the point we wish to make.

Of the difficulties of dyarchy the Commissioners say—

There has been much useful work done under this system, and the criticism we have felt bound to make where it has failed to produce good results are not at all intended to deny the degree of success which it has sometimes attained. Dyarchy as a training ground has this to its credit, that it has brought home to some who had no previous experience of the task of Government the difficulties of administration and the meaning of responsibility. But it seems to us clear that a system which was designed to develop a sense of responsibility has sometimes tended to encourage a wholly different attitude. As long as dyarchy continues it is inevitable that the elected members of the Legislature should tend to show an exaggerated hostility to the work of the reserved half of the Government which they may criticize but cannot control. If money is wanted for 'nation-building' services, the temptation to blame reserved departments for spending too much is far more attractive than the alternative course of imposing new taxes. And if new taxes are imposed, where is the guarantee that the proceeds would be devoted to the purpose intended?

Relations between Executive Councillors and Ministers are we believe intimate and friendly. But rigid dyarchy is a standing challenge which either ranges Ministers against the reserved half of Government or exposes them to the charge of being the subservient tools of the bureaucracy. And all the time the growth of real responsibility (which was the object of the adoption of the system) is being hindered.

The Commissioners propose therefore, that the 'rigid division into reserved and transferred subjects should disappear.

Powers of Governor—The Report discusses the vital question whether the Governor is to be in the position of a strictly constitutional Governor bound to accept in all circumstances the joint advice of his Ministry or, on the other hand, whether he should have in reserve the theoretically unrestricted powers of overruling them, which he now possesses *vis-à-vis* his Ministers (or the nearly equally unrestricted powers which he possesses of overruling his Executive Council). The Commissioners consider it of great importance that the answer to this question should not be left in doubt. Constitutionally speaking, they declare 'a middle course must be rejected. The Governor should, on the administrative side be given statutory power to direct that action should be taken other wise than in accordance with the advice of his Ministry (though subject always to the superintendence, direction and control of the Governor-General) only for certain purposes.

Two of these are fundamental to the preservation of the peace and good Government of the province.

The Report continues—

"We are not attempting to settle the draft clause but we should be disposed to describe these two as matters in which the Governor's opinion he must give such directions—

(1) In order to preserve the safety and tranquillity of the province or

(2) In order to prevent serious prejudice to one or more sections of the community as compared with other sections.

There are three other purposes for which the Governor should possess overriding powers, namely—

(3) To secure the due fulfilment of any liability of Government in respect of items of expenditure not subject to the vote of the Legislature

(4) To secure the carrying out of any order issued by the Provincial Government from the Government of India or the Secretary of State

(5) To carry out any duties which may be statutorily imposed on the Governor personally such as duties in connection with some service questions and responsibility for backward tracts

Law and Order—In discussing the problem of law and order the Commissioners admit that the proposal that Police should cease to be a reserved subject is a focus of controversy. It would be a great injustice to dismiss as mere bureaucratic prejudice the view of the many experienced administrators who—as well as important bodies of non-official opinion—hesitate to give their support to the proposal. The Commissioners therefore state with fulness and candour 'the reasons which have led so many men with experience of India to advise against the step.

Law and Order is the first interest of every Indian citizen, whether in town or country. The time has come when it ought to be no longer possible to represent, or to misrepresent the agents of authority who are so industriously supplying the first need of civilized existence as the minions of an alien bureaucracy. As things are the police-man in his red *pagri*, the village *thana*, and the whole hierarchy of the Force tend to be regarded as the embodiment of all that the Indian politician criticizes and declaims against. It is not a sufficient answer to say that the declaration is sometimes extravagant and that the criticism is often irresponsible. The real question is what is the future which we contemplate when things have got to this point, if the present arrangements for the Police remain unaltered? A continuation of the present situation leads nowhere. It is for these reasons that we have become convinced that the bolder course is also the wiser course and that, while making available the experience and guidance which will be needed, and preserving the safeguards which common sense dictates, we should provide that the department of Law and Order is to be no exception to the general rule of provincial responsibility.

Larger Councils Proposed—In their description of the changes which they consider desirable in the Provincial Legislatures, the Commissioners say it is of great importance that such changes as are made should be made in such a way as will not require constant revision hereafter and above all will not necessitate the fixing in advance of some future date for a further inquiry. They dissent altogether from the suggestion made in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report that after the Statutory Commission has finished its work further inquiries into the working of the Indian constitution should be fixed to take place at intervals of 12 years. What is now needed, they say is a remodelling of the provincial constitution on lines which will give it a reasonable chance of natural and healthy growth without threatening it in advance by a further inquiry. The Commissioners add—

'It is proposed that in place of the existing maximum term of three years the normal statutory life of Provincial Legislatures should be five years. The Commissioners are definitely of opinion that generally speaking the size of the present Legislative Councils is too small. It is hoped that the result of any redistribution which is decided upon will be to reduce the average size of the Governors' provinces, but meantime the Commission has to deal with things as they are. It is suggested that an immediate increase in the number of members in the case of the more important provinces to a figure of between 200 and 250 might be sufficient for the present.

Of the highly controversial and most important subject of communal representation the Report says—

"On the one hand communal representation—the provision by law that a particular religious community shall be represented in a popular Legislature solely by members of its own body with a guarantee as to how many communal seats there shall be—is an undoubted obstacle in the way of the growth of a sense of common citizenship. It is open to all the objections formulated in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report. On the other hand we are now faced as the authors of the Montagu-Chelmsford Report were faced by the indisputable fact that the Mohammedan community as a whole is not prepared to give up communal representation and would regard its abolition without the assent of that community not only as the withdrawal of a security which it prizes but as a cancelling of assurance upon which it has relied. What ever view may be taken of the Mohammedan objection the fact itself cannot be disputed and it is one of the greatest possible gravity for all who are engaged in considering the constitutional future of British India.

Communal representation is a very thorny question and one as to which there cannot be said to be anything approaching agreement in India to-day. The subject is pre-eminently one which the rival communities should settle among themselves. But in the absence of a new agreement between Hindus and Mohammedans, the Commissioners are unanimous in holding that communal representation for the Mohammedans of a province must be continued and that Mohammedan voters could not be

deprived of this special protection until a substantial majority of Mohammedan representatives in the Provincial Legislature declared themselves in favour of the change. Later the Commissioners say—'But no third party, however friendly and disinterested, can do what the two communities might co-operate in doing for themselves by mutual agreement. In the absence of such agreement we are compelled to assume in reference to this matter a continuance of separate communal electorates. So long as Mohammedans have separate electorates in the provinces it is impossible to deny to the Sikhs of the Punjab similar treatment if this is what they desire.'

The Commissioners consider that there is no need to continue to reserve seats for non-Brahmins in the Madras Presidency and they incline to the opinion that the time has not yet come for the abolition of reserved seats for Mahatras in Bombay.

The question whether the depressed classes should have separate electorates is discussed. The Commission decides against such a method of treatment. A separate electorate would mean a precise definition of all who are covered by the term thus stigmatising each voter in the list and would militate against the rise of those who are depressed to a higher level.

As a solution the Commission proposes that there should be some reservation of seats for the depressed classes. The number of seats to be reserved for depressed class candidates in non-Mohammedan constituencies should be settled on the following principle: the proportion of the number of such reserve seats to the total number of seats in all the Indian general constituencies should be three quarters of the proportion of the depressed class population to the total population of the electoral area of the province.

Suggestions are put forward regarding the representation of other special classes and interests—Europeans, Anglo-Indians, Indian Christians, universities, commerce and planting, labour, etc. European representation the Report says must continue to be secured by means of separate electorates. The Commissioners say they have made careful inquiries with regard to making adequate arrangements for the representation of labour employed in large scale industry in various parts of India but no ready made solution is available. The best suggestion they can make is that in every province the Governor should have the duty of drawing up rules for securing labour representation. The Commission expresses an opinion in favour not only of maintaining but increasing labour representation if suitable members are available.

Women Members—Although in seven provinces out of nine it is possible for women to be members of the Councils and several women have in fact been made members by nomination no woman candidate so far as the Commission knows has ever been elected. The Report discusses various methods of facilitating the inclusion of women in the Provincial Councils. The Commissioners are opposed to the methods of stipulating by Statute or statutory rule that a certain number

of seats in each Council must be held by women. It is equally impracticable and undesirable, in their view to propose that a certain number of seats should be reserved for women. They consider that the proper course is to leave to women candidates a fair field and no favour. The only provision which the Commissioners think should be made to encourage the presence of women in the Provincial Legislatures is to provide by statutory rule or otherwise that the Governor in exercising his powers of nomination should have special regard to the extent to which women have been returned as members from general constituencies with a view to supplementing their number if he thinks this should be done.

The Franchise—About 2.8 per cent of the population of the areas returning members to the Provincial Councils were registered as voters at the last General Election. The present franchise in the view of the Commission is too limited in its scope to provide the material from which to build any adequate scheme of representative Government. Its only justification is that it was a beginning and that in spite of the mandate that a broad franchise should be aimed at illiteracy and the restricted supply of competent persons to conduct the elections compelled the adoption of limits producing this result. The Commission holds that there should now be such extension of the franchise as is reasonably practicable and that provision should not be made with a view to yet greater extension after a further interval.

Second Chambers—After considering the question of second Chambers in the provinces with very special care the Commission has now found it possible to make a unanimous recommendation one way or the other. The Montagu-Chelmsford Report presented the rival sets of argument and decided at that time against bi-cameral institutions for the Provinces but suggested that the question should be further considered by the periodic commission which it proposed. The Commissioners now say that the considerations set forth by the Montagu-Chelmsford Report are those which appeal to them most whichever view they hold.

The North West Frontier Provinces—The Commissioners have come to the conclusion that responsibility for the administration of the five districts which constitute the North West Frontier Province cannot be separated from responsibility for the peace of, and control over the tribal area beyond. Only thus they say, can the security of the North West Frontier be effectively maintained.

With regard to Baluchistan the Report states that the customary law and method of government associated with Jirgas could not be supplanted without gravely disturbing local sentiment and removing an effective and suitable means of consulting local opinion. It is proposed that British Baluchistan should have some representation in the Central Legislature, but the Commissioners are confident that there is no ground for recommending a change at this stage in the government of the province.

The Council—Part IV is divided into chapters which deal with the Central Legislature, the Governor General in Council, the

influence of the Central Legislature on executive action and policy relations between the Central and the provinces, and the authority of Government.

It is proposed that, in place of the present Legislative Assembly there should be constituted a new body, which the Commission would call the Federal Assembly the members of which would not be directly elected by constituencies of voters but would be mainly chosen by the Provincial Councils themselves. The parts of British India which cannot be included within the areas covered by the Provincial Councils would also be represented in the Federal Assembly.

The Commission recommends that the number of members in the Federal Assembly should be between 250 and 280. In the present Assembly there are 145 members. The number now recommended would give approximately one member per million inhabitants.

There are weighty reasons, according to the Commission, for retaining the Council of State as an integral part of the Central Government and it is therefore proposed that the Council should continue with its existing powers as a body of elected and nominated members chosen in the same proportions as at present.

The existing legislative and financial powers of the two Chambers of the Central Legislature will remain as at present, but additional functions will be performed by the Federal Assembly in the sphere of finance. The Commissioners say that as the future constitution of India develops there will they conceive, be a gradual alteration in the range of duties to be performed by the Central Legislature. While the immediate changes are not great, there are future possibilities which may be far reaching.

A Provincial Fund—The Commissioners accept and fully endorse the general principles of the scheme of the Financial Amendment Act in Part VIII—for the division of resources in British India between the Central and Provincial Governments. They are persuaded that the scheme suggested for the constitution of a Provincial Fund offers the most satisfactory means of ensuring adequate resources to the provinces without infringing their autonomy.

The power of initiating measures of taxation for central purposes will, as heretofore be vested exclusively in the Executive, but all such measures must be passed by the Federal Assembly and also by the Council of State. Both bodies have full power to amend or to reject any such measure, but the present provision would continue that where the Governor-General considers that its passing is essential for the safety, tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, he may certify the measure, which thereupon has all the force of law. As regards the voting of the Estimates, the division between votable and non-votable charges will remain as at present. The Assembly has full power to reject or to make "cuts" in the votable items of expenditure, but the Governor-General in Council has power to restore such demands where he considers they are essential to the discharge of his responsibilities. The Commissioners propose no alteration in this regard.

It is proposed that the legislation necessary for the imposition of taxes assigned to the provinces for the purposes of the Provincial Fund should be passed by the Federal Assembly sitting in special session. The Finance Member of the Central Government would formally introduce the necessary measures. The Report continues —

But it is of the essence of this plan that the proposals for raising additional taxes should emanate from the provinces. We therefore suggest that there should be an Inter Provincial Financial Council which would be summoned by the Finance Member and attended by all the Ministers of Finance of those units of federation which would be entitled to draw on the funds.

We propose that the Provincial Fund should be distributed among the units of the Federation, i.e., both provinces and excluded areas, on the basis of population.

The Governor-General.—The Commissioners declare that it is therefore clear that whatever shape the Government of India may hereafter assume, its formation ought to be such as to secure its internal unity. They then turn to the position of the Governor General and they say —

A second conclusion on the subject of the Central Executive which can be asserted with confidence is that the Governor General must continue to be not only the representative of the King Emperor in all formal and ceremonial matters, but the actual and active head of the Government. We have described in our former volume the range and importance of his present functions and it appears to us evident that in the next stage of India's constitutional evolution this range will not be narrowed and its importance will not decrease. Indeed as has already appeared in our chapter on the Provincial Executive, there are cases in which we think responsibility should be placed on his shoulders which is at present constitutionally discharged by the Governor-General in Council. The question of future relations with the Indian States suggests another instance of the same sort. The influence, advice, and direction of the Viceroy for the time being will certainly be needed for many years to come if the constitutional progress of India is to be successfully promoted.

One change which we think should now be made is to place upon the Governor-General himself the responsibility of selecting and appointing the members of his Cabinet. At present, members of the Governor-General's Executive Council are appointed under the advice of the Secretary of State by warrant under the Royal Sign Manual, and the Secretary of State, in making recommendations is of course largely guided by the Governor-General's advice. But there is a real difference between this situation and the constitutional position which we seek to get established. Under the new plan, the Governor-General would of course remain subject to the superintendence and control of the Secretary of State but apart from this the choice of colleagues would rest with him in theory, as it now usually does in fact.

The Executive Council.—The Government of India Act enacts that three at least of the members of the Governor-General's Executive Council must be persons who have been for at least 10 years in the service of the Crown in India. The Commissioners are by no means disposed to suggest that the time has come to dispense with this provision, but they think that it, and any similar directions as to number or qualifications of the Governor-General's Council, should be expressed not, in the Statute itself but in statutory rules made under the Statute. Such rules would, therefore, be subject to alteration without the necessity of passing a new Government of India Act, though any alteration of rules on this subject must have the approval of both Houses of Parliament expressed by resolution.

It does not seem to us possible (the Commissioners declare) to take the view that Parliament can now surrender all responsibility for future modifications in the structure of the Central Government of India. To suggest that it could do so would be to deny the terms of the Preamble to the Government of India Act, and to forget the conditions included in Mr. Montagu's declaration of August 20 1917. But this recognition of continued Parliamentary responsibility is a very different thing from insisting that no modification is possible in the future without the cumbersome procedure on each occasion of passing a new Statute through the British Parliament. We desire to reduce the rigidity of the statutory structure because we are convinced that Indian institutions ought to be given room to grow and develop. While therefore it is impossible in our judgment, to provide at this stage as much latitude for change in the central sphere as in the provincial constitution we propose by the means we have described to provide in the central sphere also opportunities for adjustment while preserving to Parliament the responsibility, which it cannot at present abandon for future decisions.

The Commander-in-Chief.—In practice a Member of the Governor-General's Council and thus necessarily a member of one or other chamber of the Indian Legislature with the right of attending in and addressing the Chamber to which he does not belong. In the view of the Commission the Commander-in-Chief should not be a Member of the Executive Council and should not sit in the Legislature. "His immensely important and onerous duties are better discharged outside it. Questions of defence so far as they come before the Indian Legislature, should be dealt with by a civilian. The Army Secretary would be available but on occasions of the first importance the task would appropriately fall upon a new Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council whom the Commissioners would describe as the "Leader of the Federal Assembly".

The Commissioners think it "very desirable that there should be included in the Governor-General's Council a Member, not overburdened with departmental work, whose primary function should be to lead the House." This duty at present usually falls upon the Home Member. "A heavily burdened permanent official."

Defence and Security.—Part V is entitled *The Constitutional Problem in Relation to the Defence of India.* In the North West India is exposed to a constant and pressing danger of a magnitude which is quite without parallel in any other part of the Empire. The Commissioners say that the evidence they have heard and what they have seen in the course of their Indian tours leave no doubt in their minds that at least for a very long time to come it will be impossible for the Army entrusted with the task of defending India to dispense with a very considerable British element, including in that term British troops of all arms, a considerable proportion of the regimental officers of the Indian Army and the British personnel in the higher command.

The issues involved are too vital and the practical difficulties too great the Commissioners consider, to justify a precipitate embarkation on a wholesale process of substituting Indian for British personnel in the Indian Army. The Army in India is the only effective barrier between India and the dangers without her gates. We regard it as beyond question that having regard to the Indian and Imperial interests involved, to the dangers to be faced and to the composition of the force, Parliament cannot wash its hands of all responsibility for this Army. Nor do we see how in that event, British officers and men could be recruited and called on to serve in India. The Report further declares—

There is, therefore a dilemma. The declaration of August 20, 1917 stands in its full implication, the British people and the British Parliament have not thought of going back on it yet here is the difficulty, which appears almost insurmountable, arising from the continued presence of the British element in the Army in India. It is impossible to relinquish control over an Army containing this element to Ministers responsible to any elected Legislature. Such a transfer could only take place when no part of the Army in India consists of British officers or troops recruited by the Imperial Government. When this will come about we cannot say but we see no prospect of its happening for very many years.

Moreover, to any who are tempted to question this judgment or to regard it as unduly harsh we would point out a second consideration. At the present moment no Indian holding the King's commission is of higher army rank than a captain—there are we believe, 39 captains of whom 25 are in ordinary regimental employ. None of them are of an age which would prevent their attaining much higher rank even if they passed the necessary examination, before retirement. A Higher Command cannot be revived at short notice out of the existing cadres of Indian Officers, all of junior rank and limited experience.

In the sphere of internal security also the necessity for the presence of British troops, who are the neutral guardians of a peace so frequently assailed in recent years by bitter communal feuds and sectional commotions, raises another difficulty. It appears to the Commission that it would be quite impossible

to contemplate the use of British troops to quell civil disturbances at the unrestricted bidding of Ministers popularly elected and answerable to popularly elected Legislatures. Yet another difficulty which cannot be overlooked is that it is impossible for the Crown upon whom the Indian States rely, to lose control of the instrument by the use of which in case of need the obligations of the Crown towards the States could be discharged.

Cost of the Army.—The cost of the Army in India is borne by the Indian taxpayer and paid out of central revenues. It amounts at present to no less than 55 crores of rupees, equal to about £41,000,000 per annum. As the whole Customs revenue of British India amounts to just over 50 crores, it may be said that the receipts from Customs almost pay for the Army. Much discussion arises in India from time to time as to whether it is equitable for India to find so large a sum for its purpose, and this discussion revolves round the question: What is the Army in India really for? The objects for which the Army in India exists, says the Commission are the defence of India against external aggression and the maintenance of internal order. Its strength is not more than is calculated to be necessary for meeting the emergencies of internal disorder and the possibilities of external attack. The Commission subjects the considerations of cost and frontier defence to close analysis and says the result seems to it to be as follows—

India and Britain are so related that Indian defence cannot now or in any future which is within sight be regarded as a matter of purely Indian concern. The control and direction of such an Army must rest in the hands of agents of the Imperial Government. Nor does it necessarily follow from this that further progress towards the realisation of responsible government in British India is barred until the work of defence can be adequately discharged without the help of British officers and British troops? As things are, there is a block on the line of constitutional advance.

The question is whether there is any other mode of treatment open which would provide adequately for the needs of Indian defence and at the same time offer an earlier prospect for some further constitutional advance at the centre. It seems to us that the only possible method would be to recognize that the protection of the frontiers of India, at any rate for a long time to come should not be regarded as a function of an Indian Government in relation with an Indian Legislature but as a matter of supreme concern to the whole Empire which can only be effectively organized and controlled by an Imperial agency.

Conditions of Settlement.—A solution based on this principle would probably have to be brought about by a definite agreement between India and Great Britain acting on behalf of the Empire. Many points would have to be settled, and we can only indicate the general lines that might be found to be practical. Such a scheme assumes that the forces composing the existing Army in India would no longer be under the control of the Government of India, but would be under

an Imperial authority which would naturally be the Viceroy acting in concert with the Commander in Chief. It would involve an undertaking by the Imperial authorities of the obligations of Indian defence in return for the continued provision of definite facilities as to recruitment, areas transport, and other matters. And, of course, it would involve an equitable adjustment of the burden of finance which we attempt to provide, but which would do not perhaps most naturally take the form of an agreement to provide from Indian revenues an annual total sum, subject to revision at intervals, and with the opportunity of sharing in economies. The contribution would be non-votable. So far, we are dealing with ordinary Army expenditure. In the case of extraordinary or war expenditure there is a broad distinction between the cost of expeditions or operations which are the result of tribal activities and must be considered a normal incident of the Wardenship of the Marches and exceptional expenditure rendered necessary by the organised attack of a foreign Power. In the former case the charges should we think fall entirely (as hitherto) on Indian revenues while we feel that the circumstances may be such in the latter instance as to make a case for spreading the financial burden more widely. If such an agreement could be reached the block to constitutional advance in India which this problem of defence now presents would no longer stand in the way.

If the responsibility for the Army in India is to rest with the Imperial Government that Government would continue to be represented in India by the Governor General, and the day by day administration of the Army would be, as now, in the hands of the Commander in Chief. The latter would however cease to be a member of the Indian Legislature and while he remained a colleague of the Governor General he would cease to be the holder of a portfolio in the Government of India. The Central Legislature, as now would not vote supply for the Army appropriations of revenue for this purpose would be authorized by certificate of the Governor General. But we should like to see the constitution of some Committee on Army Affairs on which the Central Legislature—and in time, we hope the Indian States also—would have representatives for the purpose of discussing and keeping in touch with military questions.

The Commission considers that the obligation to go forward steadfastly and sympathetically with the Indianization of the Army should continue to be honoured in the letter and the spirit if the Army of India were to pass, as the Commission suggests, out of the control of the Government of India. The Commissioners appreciate the fact that in the end, a self governing India can only hope to function with reasonable prospect of success if it can command military forces of its own. And our proposal helps to remove an obstacle to the ultimate possession of such forces.

The Future of Burma.—In Part VI the Commissioners discuss the future of Burma and recommend that Burma should be separated from India immediately. Two main grounds for the Commission's belief in the necessity

of Burma's separation from India are the strength which Burman sentiment in its favour has now attained—to the overshadowing of every other Burman demand—and the constitutional difficulty of giving to Burma a satisfactory place in any centralized system designed to advance the realization of responsible Government in British India.

The Commission points to the limited character of Burma's representation in the Central Legislature and to the fact that much of the time of the Assembly is taken up in discussion of questions which have no practical interest for Burma. Moreover, Burma increasingly feels that its own practical interests sometimes conflict with the policy which commands itself to the majority in the Central Legislature. For example, the tariff policy of India includes a substantial Customs duty on imported steel which operates to protect the Indian steel industry. Burma however requires to import cheap steel for the purpose of her oil industry and for her general development. Thus the interests of the two countries in economic policy have already begun to diverge and it is easy to imagine cases where future policy may make the divergence more considerable still. Yet Burma's special interests carry little weight in the Indian Legislature in comparison with the more powerful influence of great business centres in India like Bombay or Calcutta. The Commissioners add—

'Burma's actual experience as an element represented in the Central Legislature has reinforced the argument for separation based on national sentiment. As long as the Government of India was an autocratic Government responsible only to the British Parliament reasons of administrative convenience might justify the inclusion of Burma in the Indian Empire. But the British Government has announced its intention of establishing by progressive stages responsible government in British India and no one in Burma believes that the Burmans would acquiesce permanently in being governed by a self governed India. We come to the definite conclusion therefore, that nothing but the most overwhelming considerations could justify the continued retention of Burma within the Government of India.

The Indian States.—Future relations with the Indian States are discussed at length in Part VII of the Report. The Commissioners say they are glad to learn from many indications that their proposal of a Conference, to be held after their report is published, to which both representatives of British India and representatives of the States would be invited by His Majesty's Government, has been welcomed on the side of the Indian Princes. In what follows in this part of the Report the Commissioners seek to concentrate attention upon and to analyse certain suggestions in the hope that their work may be useful to this Conference. They consider that they are following what has become a generally accepted view when they affirm their own belief that the essential unity of Greater India will one day be expressed in some form of federal association but that the evolution will be slow and cannot be really pressed.

federations (they point out) come about only when the units to be federated are ready for the process, and we are far from supposing that the Federation of Greater India can be artificially hastened, or that, when it comes, it will spring into being at a bound. The practical question is whether at the present stage there are any definite but modest steps which might be taken by way of tentative advance.

The Chamber of Princes has provided a valuable means for joint consultation, but the Chamber is not in itself a federal organ for it is exclusively concerned with Indian problems looked at from the side of the Indian States.

The Report adds —

What is now needed is some organ, however rudimentary which will for some purposes, however limited address itself to the treatment of matters which are of common concern to the whole of Greater India not from the side of the Indian States alone, nor solely from the side of British India, but from both. If the new step is a very small one it would be of profound significance should it satisfy this condition. We hope that it may be found possible to make a beginning and we have three concrete proposals to put forward.

First, we should like to see a serious and business-like effort now made to draw up a list of those matters of common concern which are so often referred to but have seldom been defined.

Secondly, we should like to see included in the Preamble to any new Government of India Act a recital which would put on record the desire to develop that closer association between the Indian States and British India which is the motive force behind all discussions of an eventual Federal Union. It would, of course, be absolutely necessary to make plain in the Preamble (what is at all times acknowledged and understood) that any such association can only come about if and so far as the Indian States desire that it should.

And thirdly we wish to suggest that steps should be taken now to devise the creation and setting up of a standing consultative body containing representatives both from British India and the Indian States, with powers of discussion and of reaching and recording deliberate results on topics falling within the list of matters of common concern. It is clear that the machinery for joint consultation must precede anything in the nature of executive or legislative action on federal lines.

It is suggested that the Preamble to which reference has been made might contain a recital to the effect that it is desirable to make provision whereby such Indian States as so desire may be associated with British India in the consideration of matters of common concern between the Indian States and British India. The operative clause of the Act might provide that it should be lawful for the Crown to create by proclamation a Council for Greater India for the purpose of consulting on matters of common concern to British India and the Indian States. There would be a specific

provision inserted that it was beyond the competence of the Council for Greater India to call in question or to discuss (a) the internal administration of an Indian State or of British India, or of any part of it (b) the existence and exercise by the British Crown of its functions as Paramount Power. Matters of common concern would be listed in a schedule to the Act.

The Council would consist of say 30 members, of which 10 would be representatives of the States. The Council would be presided over by the Viceroy or in his absence by one of a committee of four Vice-Presidents, two from the States side and two out of the contingent from British India. As regards the scheduled list of matters of common concern, the Commissioners think that the best plan would be to mention certain topics specifically and to add at the end of this specific list (so as to provide a power of expansion) the phrase "together with such other subjects of common concern as the Viceroy from time to time certifies as suitable for consideration by the Council." The Council's discussions would in some cases be in the nature of general debates and in some cases would refer to concrete proposals. The Council would provide an opportunity for taking the Indian States into consultation about changes in the tariff. The Commissioners add —

The whole scheme for the Council, as we conceive it, is designed to make a beginning in the process which may one day lead to Indian federation. What we are proposing is merely a throwing across the gap of the first strands which may in time mark the line of a solid and enduring bridge, and we feel convinced that the process must begin in organized consultation between the States and British India both because such consultation is urgently needed in the interests of both and because it will assuredly foster the sense of need for further developments and bring more nearly within the range of realisation other steps which are as yet too distant and too dim to be entered upon and described.

Finance — The whole of Part VIII containing nine Chapters consists of the report of the Commission's Financial Assessor Mr (now Sir) W T Layton. The Commission's recommendations which follow the general principles of this report, but do not touch upon future revenue and expenditure appear earlier in Part IV. The report is based on two general assumptions, namely that it is both possible and desirable to improve the economic and social condition of India by a substantial increase in the expenditure on nation-building services, and, secondly, that it is possible to raise additional revenues for this purpose, provided that the incidence to further taxation is adjusted to the capacity of the taxpayers to pay. If additional taxation is to be raised however it is necessary that the new constitution should ensure —

(a) That sources of revenue appropriate to their requirements are available for those authorities who have urgent and expanding services to administer,

(b) That all parts of India make a not unfair contribution to common purposes, and

(c) That responsibility for imposing additional taxation is definitely laid upon those who will have to incur additional expenditure

It is stated that the existing financial scheme does not adequately fulfil these conditions. In particular the allocation of resources between the Centre and the Provinces respectively has been criticized and with justice on three main grounds—

(a) Although the provinces have rapidly expanding needs the sources of provincial revenue (of which the chief are land revenue, alcoholic excises and stamps) are almost stationary while the revenue of the Centre (the chief sources are Customs and alcoholic excises, income tax, and salt duty) which has to meet comparatively stationary needs has expanded and is capable of further expansion

(b) It has treated the provinces very unequally by giving some of them a much greater proportionate increase of revenue than others

(c) It has given practically no power to the provinces to tax industrial activities and has therefore handicapped the industrial provinces

An analysis of the central budget and of the elements which compose it shows that a surplus is likely to emerge gradually as a result of the growth of revenue the chief contributor to which will be Customs. Any prospective surplus in the central budget however will go a comparatively little way towards meeting the needs of the provinces. It is therefore essential to find new sources of revenue. Additional funds may be found from the following sources—

(a) Increased yield of the income tax by lowering the exemption limits by steepening the graduation in the case of intermediate incomes and by an amendment of law relating to the taxation of income invested abroad. The rate is also low and a moderate increase should be possible.

(b) Abolition of the exemption of agricultural incomes from income tax

(c) National excises on such commodities as cigarettes and matches

(d) Terminal taxes [These are taxes levied at a railway station on all goods imported or exported at the station]

Allocation of Revenues.—Three methods of dealing with this situation are discussed and finally the method put forward as the one most desirable is that of supplementing the sources of revenue assigned to and collected by the provinces by certain national taxes collected by the Centre on behalf of the provinces and distributed to them on some predetermined automatic basis. A complete scheme of allocation should, the Report states, provide for the distribution of centrally collected revenues, in part according to origin and in part on a population basis. Details are given of the scheme proposed but it is pointed out that the central budget cannot at present afford the immediate transfer of all the resources which it will ultimately lose under the scheme. It is therefore proposed that a time table should be drawn up

under which each of the items would be transferred according to a definite schedule that would complete the transfer in ten years. In drawing up the schedule the urgent needs of Bengal and to a less extent of Bombay should be recognized. If all the proposals embodied in the scheme are carried out the effect would be to add nearly 40 crores to the revenues of provinces by 1940 of which 12 would have been transferred from the Central budget. The proposal to assist the provinces by means of a Provincial Fund is described as essentially a federal idea. The Central Legislative Assembly in the form proposed by the Commission is a suitable body to vote the taxes that form part of the scheme, but the initiative in regard to changes in them should be taken officially by the Provincial Governments of whose budgets they will form an integral part. The financial problem in relation to the Indian States is discussed in the Financial Assessor's report and the importance of finding means of harmonising the financial policy of the States and of British India is emphasized.

The High Courts.—Part X deals with the High Courts. It recommends that the charges of all High Courts should be put upon central revenues and that the administrative control of all High Courts should be exercised by the Government of India and not by the Provincial Governments.

At present the position of the High Court at Calcutta differs from that of other High Courts in Bengal (certain important functions involving control over the High Court which have in other provinces been committed to the Governor in Council have been entrusted to the Governor General in Council. In other words the High Court of Calcutta is under the Government of India for some administrative purposes. All the other High Courts are for administrative purposes under their respective Provincial Governments. This disparity of treatment is due to historic causes. There is no reason why the anomaly should not be removed by putting all the other High Courts (including the Chief Court of Oudh and the Courts of the Judicial Commissioners of the Central Provinces and of Sind) under the administrative control of the Central Government.

The Home and Indian Governments.—In Part XI which deals with the relations between the Home and the Indian Government, it is pointed out that the proposals made by the Commission for the extension of the field within which responsibility for the Government of British India rests upon elected Indian Legislatures involve a corresponding restriction of the control of Parliament. As regards the India Office, the Governor General in Council will remain in constitutional theory under the superintendence direction and control of the Secretary of State, and the extent to which this control is relaxed or falls into desuetude will depend upon future practice and cannot be laid down in the Statute. Apart from his authority over the Governor General in Council, the Secretary of State will exercise no control over Provincial Governments save in so far as he does so in connexion with the use of special powers vested in the Governor.

The functions and composition of the Council of India are modified by the Report. It is proposed to reduce its size and to provide that the majority of its members should have the qualification of more recent Indian experience than is required at present. The functions contemplated for the Council would be essentially advisory, but independent powers would continue for (1) the control of Services conditions, and (2) the control of non-votable Indian expenditure.

The Commission says it is not in a position to judge how far its recommendations will affect the personnel of the India Office, but if material reductions in the India Office staff should result from them the Commission thinks that consideration should be given to the question of granting special compensation to Civil servants for whom equivalent employment cannot be provided elsewhere.

VIEWS OF GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

Summary of Dispatch—In a dispatch dated September 20 the Government of India, as a preliminary to the discussions of the Round Table Conference, submit their views on the further progress which might now be made towards the development of responsible Government in India as an integral part of the British Empire.

The dispatch opens with a brief discussion of the political forces at work in India, the constitutional demands that are most commonly put forward and the strength of opinion on which they rest.

No attempt is made to minimize the wide divergence and the significance of national ideas. There is no doubt that a considerable degree of national consciousness has been evolved among the educated classes as a whole. With the economic and educational development of the country have come, naturally and honourably enough, a greater self-respect both individual and national, and a demand for equality of treatment and status with the West. It is pointed out that it was inevitable that this national impetus should come and it would be a grave mistake to underestimate its force or to depreciate its value.

The Nationalist Demand is stated to be for self Government and Dominion status.

It is couched in terms of British thought and British institutions, for it emanates from those who have been profoundly influenced by British ideas. The demand for self government stated in practical terms is that India should be allowed to manage her own affairs, both in the provinces and subject to any temporary safeguards that may be requisite, at the centre. The claim to Dominion status, so far as that can be separated from ideas of self government has perhaps a sentimental, but not on that account any less potent aspect. The demand is not only that India should be enabled actually within necessary limits to settle her own affairs but that she should be publicly recognized before the eyes of the world as competent to settle them. Both these ideas are included by Indian opinion in that Dominion status which the announcement by the Viceroy on October 31, 1929 described as the natural issue of India's constitutional progress.

It is pointed out that the course of the civil disobedience movement in the last few months has exhibited the strength of the nationalist forces and also their limitations. It is clear that they have on their

side a substantial measure of support from educated Hindus of all classes. There is little doubt also that the minority communities to a large extent share in these broad nationalist aspirations but generally speaking they are not without apprehensions of their position in a self governing India, and they are concentrating attention on the protection of their rights and interests. The general conclusion is drawn that the time has passed when it was safe to assume the passive consent of the governed. The new system must be based as far as possible on the willing consent of a people whose political consciousness is steadily being awakened. There is still in the country a fundamental respect for authority. The new legislatures have established for themselves a position which is gradually coming to be understood and accepted by increasing numbers.

The Government of India then proceed to explain their general outlook on the constitutional problems and the principles which guide their conclusions.

Federation—Of the ultimate constitution of India as an all India federation including not only British India but also the Indian States as pictured by the Statutory Commission the dispatch says—

This is an ideal which we fully accept. There is an essential unity embracing the whole of India which we hope will at some future time find expression in certain joint political institutions. But it is clear, as the Statutory Commission have been careful to point out, that this ideal is at present distant, and that the federation of Greater India to which they look forward cannot be artificially hastened. Much may be done to promote a more vivid sense of the unity of interests in many spheres between British India and the various States and to develop the conception that there are matters of common concern which can best be treated in consultation. Nevertheless, we must recognize that the time has not yet come, when the general body of Indian States would be prepared to take a step so far-reaching in its character as to enter into any formal federal relations with British India.

While therefore we are entirely at one with the Statutory Commission in holding that the ideal is a federation of all India and that this ideal should be clearly borne in mind when drawing the main outlines of the constitution of the new India, we must also recognize

that the ideal is not likely to realize itself save in its own due time. There is a certain danger that if we direct our gaze too fixedly to a distant future we may tend to overlook the needs of an urgent present. The main problem which must engage our attention is how British India may be developed in a manner which shall not only be consistent with the wider vision but shall be appropriate to its own immediate requirements.

We have already an administrative unity and our first task is to decentralize with a view to permitting the development in the provinces of that degree of independent activity which should characterize the units of a federation. We are therefore in full agreement with the broad aim of the Commission to give to the provinces the maximum of autonomy consistent with the interest of India as a whole and to make each province as far as possible mistress in its own house. But in following this policy we must be careful not to sacrifice the spirit of national unity which has gradually been developing under the centralized British administration. We require a vigorous central authority capable of sustaining the heavy burdens that necessarily fall upon it.

The Central Authority—The form which the central authority should take is described as the most difficult problem. The Government of India offer in a later passage in the dispatch their own suggestions for the general treatment of this problem which while admittedly not proof against criticism, seem to us on the basis of our own experience, less open to objection than others that we have seen. The conception underlying these suggestions is shown in the following words—

"The conditions of the problem suggest to us the importance of defining as clearly as possible the purposes which Britain must continue to safeguard in India, and making it plain that, where those purposes are not concerned India should be free to manage her own affairs. The British Government must satisfy itself on certain essential points, for instance that the defence of India from external attack, which rests, and for many years must continue to rest largely on British troops is fully assured; that relations with foreign States, with the ultimate possibilities of war which they involve are conducted under its authority; that the conditions of internal security are maintained that financial obligations are provided for and the requisite financial stability and credit of the country adequately secured; that reasonable treatment is accorded to minorities; and that unfair discrimination is not practised against any section of the community. In our opinion the ultimate control of these matters must in present conditions reside in the British Parliament. It would be understood that upon Parliament rests an obligation to secure certain definite purposes, and that for these express purposes it may be necessary for Parliament to intervene at any point in the administration of the central Government.

But says, the dispatch whatever may be the plan adopted, we are convinced that no

scheme of government at the centre can work with success, unless it is recognized that Parliament and the Indian Legislature have each their special contribution to make to the welfare of India which is the joint purpose of both. Our aim should be a partnership in common cause.

The Provinces—Coming to a consideration of the detailed proposals of the Statutory Commission and following the Commission's order the Government of India deal first with the Governors Provinces. With regard to the vexed question of provincial boundaries they suggest the early appointment of two separate committees to investigate the proposals for constituting new Provinces in Sind and Orissa. The important proposal of the Statutory Commission for the abolition of diarchy and the consequent establishment in the Provinces of responsible Governments (with no official share) dealing with the whole provincial field, including law and order is accepted with full recognition of the risks inherent in so great a change. This conclusion is stated to be in agreement with the great mass of opinion in India, both official and non official.

Second Chamber—The Government of India accept the recommendations of the Governments of Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and Assam that there should be no second chamber in those provinces. Similarly they accept the recommendations of the Governments of Bengal the United Provinces and Bihar and Orissa that in those provinces there should be a second chamber and suggest that the manner in which the Upper House should in each instance be composed in those three provinces should be left to further investigation by the Franchise Committee in the light of the suggestions which the three Governments have put forward.

It is later explained that the Government of India agree with the majority of the Provincial Governments that it would be unwise to attempt to turn upon India measures for the enfranchisement of great numbers of women. They suggest therefore that this matter should continue to be left to the decision of the provincial councils. So long however as the principle is set out by the Joint Select Committee of Parliament is maintained they think it to be a proper course that the suggestions of the Commission for the special enfranchisement of women should be further investigated by the Franchise Committee.

The problem of communal representation is discussed at some length, and it is pointed out that on its solution will depend in no small measure the success or failure of the new constitution. The efforts made to reach a settlement between the Hindus and the Moslems are highly reviewed and the need for an agreed solution is recognized. The view is expressed in agreement with the Statutory Commission and with every Provincial Government that separate communal electorates should not be taken away without the consent of the community concerned and that

each consent should require the votes of two thirds of the members in the legislature of the community concerned.

It is also explained that on the more general aspects of this baffling problem we consider that it may be a legitimate grievance to deprive Moslems in the Punjab and in Bengal (where they form a majority of the population) of representation in the Councils in proportion to their population merely because of the weightage allowed to Moslem minorities elsewhere.

The recommendation which was made by the Statutory Commission to discontinue the representation of landholders by means of special constituencies is not approved. The special representation enjoyed by Europeans and other classes is maintained. The problem of the representation of the depressed classes and of labour should it be thought be further examined by a franchise Committee.

With regard to the formation of Provincial Cabinets special attention is given to the suggestion made by the Statutory Commission that the Governor should possess the discretion to appoint official Ministers. The Commission proposed that such Ministers should become ex officio members of the Legislature and it was indicated that they would ordinarily be experienced officials. It is pointed out in the Dispatch that there is a general consensus of opinion in the replies of the Provincial Governments that an official Minister would be difficult to maintain in office against the wishes of his colleagues. The Government of India, however, are reluctant to depart from the recommendation of the Commission that there should be a discretionary power with the Governor to make such appointments should circumstances so require. They think it likely that an official Minister would seldom be appointed, and that, if appointed his appointment would rest on general consent. They agree, however, with the Commission that the Governor should be free to exercise discretion in the matter.

It is agreed that it would be neither practicable nor desirable at once to enact the position that the Governor should be bound on all subjects by the advice of his Ministers, but the use by the Governor of his overriding powers will, it is anticipated, be infrequent and reserved for exceptional occasions when no other course seems appropriate. Not the least of the relevant considerations for giving the Governor overriding powers is stated to be the reliance which the minority communities will repose in the Governor for their protection.

The problem of the North West Frontier Province is discussed separately and reasons are suggested for giving to this Province a form of government somewhat more liberal than was proposed either by the Statutory Commission or by the Indian Central Committee. The realities of the situation make it a matter of the first importance that the scheme adopted should attract a reasonable measure of public support, and, subject to the necessary safeguards, that it should not leave

the way open for invidious comparisons between the form of Government in the North West Frontier Province and that introduced elsewhere. A scheme prepared by the Chief Commissioner of the North West Frontier Province is put forward for consideration comprising a form of executive Government in which the Chief Commissioner would be assisted by one official and one non official Minister. There would as suggested by the Statutory Commission be a Legislature consisting of elected and non elected elements in approximately equal proportions.

With regard to the proposal for the separation of Burma from India the conclusion of the Government of India is stated as follows:—

Assuming that an equitable financial settlement will be made between the two countries, and that their respective economic interests will be safeguarded by arrangements which we hope will be mutually advantageous, we support in principle the proposal that Burma should now be separated. At the same time we feel strongly that it is a matter regarding which Indian opinion should have ample opportunity to declare itself and we would not ask His Majesty's Government to come to any definite decision until there has first been full discussion of the whole question at the Round Table Conference.

The Central Government.—Facing to the Central Government the Government of India consider that the main problem is the nature of the Central Executive and its relations with the Legislature. In their view conditions at the centre involve an inevitable duality or sharing of power between Parliament and the Indian Legislature. In laying down the main conditions of a strong government on the lines which have already been drawn irrevocably for India, they indicate the difficulties at present experienced owing to lack of harmony between an Executive responsible in all matters to the Secretary of State and a Legislature with a substantial majority of elected members. They draw attention to the changes proposed by the Commission in the composition of the Assembly which involve a considerable increase in the total numbers and a reduction in the official element and observe that there is little ground to anticipate that the substitution of indirect for direct election proposed by the Commission would produce a Legislature of which it could be predicted that it would work harmoniously with the Executive contemplated by the Commission.

The Government of India suggest that the proposals of the Commission are hardly likely to produce the strong Central Government which the Commission desire to see. Indeed they carry a stage further a process which we consider has already reached the limits of safety. The policy pursued in the past in developing the constitution has been to make successive advances in the Legislature while maintaining a more conservative treatment in the Executive. That may have been a wise course as a matter of political education, but in other respects it has had consequences not salutary. It has tended to foster irresponsible

officials in the Assembly and placed the Executive in a difficult position. A stage has now been reached when the appropriate course appears to be to endeavour to bring the development in the Legislature and the Executive into closer co-ordination. We should therefore, prefer to pursue a somewhat more cautious policy in regard to the Legislature and to consider whether it is not possible to contemplate some development of the Commission's proposals for the Executive in its relations on the one hand to the Secretary of State and on the other to the Legislature which would afford promise of more favourable conditions than these proposals as they have been generally understood, would appear to contain.

Under the proposals of the Commission we fear the Executive would find itself constantly faced with the dilemma either of conflict with the Legislature under conditions in which it could never expect a majority or of subordination to the views of the Legislature. The answer suggested by the Commission to this line of argument is that in fact Government policy will be profoundly affected by the action of the Legislature, and that the Executive will to an increasing degree be responsive to the will of the members of the Assembly. This doctrine of responsiveness is one to which we ourselves attach great importance, but it must be recognized on the one hand that it cannot be applied when the popular view is in opposition to the policy which Parliament considers it necessary to pursue and on the other hand, that when it is applied consistently it approaches very near to responsibility. Responsiveness to the Legislature is difficult to combine with a strict adherence to the principle of responsibility to Parliament over the whole field. The difficulties inherent in the situation would be greatly enhanced by constituting the Executive and the Legislature on principles which would widen the gap between them.

Defence.—The Commission have been greatly impressed by two incontestable facts. The first is that the defence of India involves interests in which the whole Empire is concerned. The second is that though we look forward to a future in which India will assume responsibility for her own defence, for the present and for many years to come the defence of India must rest on an army which includes a large British element. From these two facts the Commission draw the conclusion, which we fully accept, that Parliament cannot now or in any future which is within sight divest itself of all responsibility for the army in India. The Commission view this conclusion as involving an obstacle in the way of progress to full responsibility. We agree that the problem of defence is the most serious difficulty that stands in the way of India's attainment of fully responsible self-government, and that it is likely to continue longest. But at the moment it is by no means the only difficulty, and we think it is important not to suggest that its removal would at once clear the way to full responsible government over the rest of the central field. It is evident that it is not the view of the Indian Statutory Commission.

A Unitary Government.—The conclusion of the Government of India is that 'it would seem necessary to look to some solution on the lines of a unitary Government' and it is suggested that such a Government, while containing a definite official element and not formally responsible to the Indian Legislature, would yet include an appreciable popular element consisting of elected members of the Legislature, who might command sufficient support in that body to afford in normal circumstances the promise of reasonable harmony between the Executive and the Legislature. The proposal of the Statutory Commission that the members of the Governor General's Council should be appointed not as now, by the Crown but by the Governor-General is welcomed, and considerable constitutional significance is attached to this change.

How the Government would work.—The Dispatch indicates at some length how a Government of the type proposed might be expected to work. The objections to it are not ignored, but stated as follows:—

'It involves a form of dualism within the Government. It will not work harmoniously without goodwill. It can be attacked on the one hand on the ground that, owing to the strong influence of the elected members and the Legislature, the responsibilities which the Government of India owe to Parliament will not be fully discharged. It can be attacked on the other hand for its failure to offer clear cut responsibility on the popular side. Most of these objections are inherent in any attempt to share power. For the success of any such attempt it is necessary to assume a measure of agreement. Without this no constitution will function satisfactorily. It may be that some other method than the one we have adumbrated can be devised. But let the main elements of the problem be remembered. The Executive must own responsibility in certain matters to Parliament. The Legislature must on any supposition have a substantial popular majority. If a completely irresponsible Executive is confronted by a predominantly popular Legislature the result must be intolerable friction.

In discussing the powers of the Governor General the Government of India declares that it is evident that the powers of the Governor-General in relation to the Legislature must remain unimpaired.

Safeguards.—The purposes which, it is suggested, His Majesty's Government must safeguard are briefly summarized as defence, foreign relations, internal security, financial obligations, financial stability, protection of minorities and of the rights of services recruited by the Secretary of State and the prevention of unfair economic and commercial discrimination.

Finally, the Government of India deal with the potentialities of development. 'It must be expected that any scheme of government at the centre will be judged by Indian opinion on the promise it affords of development into full responsibility. We think that the suggested form of unitary government leaves the path open for such development on natural lines, and this is in our view perhaps its main attraction.'

The Lower House.—In dealing with the Lower House the Government of India state—

It may be that the representation of provinces by indirect election might facilitate at a later date the representation of the States in the Federal Assembly, but we would make two comments. The first is that it is far from certain that federation for the whole of India will come about by the inclusion of the States in the Assembly. It may be that some new federal organ will be developed. The second is that even if the States did enter the Assembly it does not appear to us to be necessary that the method of representation of the States and the provinces of British India must be uniform. We should therefore hesitate to put the federal argument of the Commission too high.

Turning to the broad questions of the composition and size of the Assembly, the Government of India declare that they do not think that the time has yet come for the abolition of the nominated portion of the Assembly. We would retain nomination for the two purposes of curing inequalities or defects in representation by election and of obtaining some additional support in the Assembly for an Executive of the form which we contemplate. We would in this way secure an element to represent the unfranchised and articulate as well as spokesmen who would explain and defend the purposes for which Parliament must intervene in the administration of India.

The present Assembly has 145 members. A somewhat larger House is suggested with a minimum of 200 members.

The Upper House.—With regard to the Upper House emphasis is laid on the importance of having a second Chamber so constituted as to be able to give to the Executive reasonable and discriminating support and the view is expressed that the Council of State should remain much as it is at present. It is recognized however that if the Assembly were to continue to be constituted on the basis of direct election there might be some advantage in taking occasion through the Council of State of familiarizing members with the federal idea and the system of indirect election. Subject to the two conditions that the change involved no prejudice to the rights of minorities, and that it commended itself to public opinion, the Government of India would be prepared to accept the proposals of the Statutory Commission for indirect election to the Council of State.

THE ARMY

It is considered preferable, after examining both of the constitutional and of the administrative aspects, that the proposal of the Commission to place the control of the Army in India under an Imperial authority should not be adopted and that the Government of India should retain its control of the administration of defence. The Commission themselves, however, recommend the adoption of their scheme only on the understanding that it meet with acceptance. If Indian opinion were decidedly in its favour we should be prepared to reconsider our views. The proposal hitherto does not appear to have enlisted any public support.

It is suggested in agreement with the Commission, that the Commander in Chief should cease to be a member of the Indian Legislature, and that his place in that respect should be taken by a civilian member for defence, who would become the responsible member of Government and Government spokesman in the Legislature on all matters of defence policy. This would constitute the simplest method of relieving the Commander in Chief of duties which are extraneous to the nature of his profession and appointment. It is proposed, however, that the Commander in Chief should as a matter of rule be present in the Governor General's Council when military affairs are discussed.

With regard to the Indianization of the Army, it is stated to be of paramount importance that we should satisfy Indian public opinion that we are in earnest in our policy and that our measures of Indianization are directed towards a definite goal. It is equally important that our critics on the other hand should recognize that the maintenance of efficiency is an indispensable condition of progress and that this plea is not raised for the purpose of obstructing legitimate demands. The policy of Indianization is reviewed and the arguments for and against establishing an Indian Staff Corps are fully stated. The Government of India not being unanimous on the point.

Central Finance.—With regard to central finance the special difficulties inherent in a transfer of responsibility are fully set out. Emphasis is chiefly laid first on the vital importance to India of the maintenance of credit in the widest sense, and secondly on the magnitude of the interest which has hitherto been safeguarded under the responsibility of the Secretary of State. Reference is also made to the unusual responsibilities now carried by the Government in relation to currency and to the special difficulties created by the immediate financial and economic situation partly as a result of the disturbances and mistrust caused by the recent subversive movements and the task of repudiating debt.

The conclusion is drawn that the occasion for a transfer of financial responsibility cannot be reached apart from the fulfilment of certain conditions such as the restoration of normal economic conditions, the re-establishment of credit and confidence, and the inauguration and successful working for some time of a reserve bank with adequate sterling reserves.

It would be the task of the Government to do all in its power to expedite the fulfilment of such of the conditions as it can influence. But on the other hand we must emphasize that the chances of an advance are dependent on action to be taken on the Indian side, for we consider it essential that Indians should realize that they also have a definite task to fulfil. The manner in which the necessary conditions may be fulfilled is only sketched in outline for it is precisely on the subject of these conditions that free discussion at the Round Table Conference is likely to be helpful.

With regard to commercial policy it is suggested that subject to two necessary limitations, there should be no interference with India's management of her Customs tariff. The first of these limitations is financial. The Govern-

ment of India must look to the tariff as the principal source of their revenues and the tariff, therefore has a financial aspect which must receive full consideration. The second limitation is concerned with external relations. This "is not likely to involve constant interference, but is consistent with the grant of considerable latitude to the Government of India when commercial negotiations have to be undertaken either with foreign countries or with other parts of the British Commonwealth. So far as Great Britain itself is concerned, control might reasonably be exercised to secure for British goods most favoured nation tariff treatment, but it would be for the Indian Government and Legislature of the future to decide all questions of preferential rates of duty.

With regard to commercial and industrial policy generally the brief is expressed that if once agreement could be reached as to the position of British enterprise in India and if by that means the apprehensions of the European business community could be removed, there is no reason why the control of policy should not pass into Indian hands. While we cannot but sympathize with the earnest desire of Indians to see their countrymen taking an increasing share in the commercial and industrial life of the country, we must also take account of the anxiety with which European business men regard the future after the transfer of power has taken place, and in so far as this anxiety may seem to be well founded we are concerned to provide safeguards against injustice. The matter is one which requires full and frank discussion between those principally concerned and we have no doubt it will receive close attention at the Round Table Conference.

With regard to Railways it is said that "if in the future the control of commercial and industrial policy is to rest with the Indian Legislature the general direction of railway policy should be placed in the same hands."

The question of the Services which are still recruited by the Secretary of State on an all India basis is said to be one of great importance for the future administration of the country, and, we think for the successful working of the new Constitution which it is proposed to set up. With regard to the Indian Civil Service and the Indian Police Service the Government of India state, that they have no hesitation in supporting the proposal that recruitment should be continued on an all India basis by the Secretary of State and under the guarantee of his protection. It is however made plain that the continuance of recruitment for these two Services must not be taken as implying an intention that they should be retained indefinitely and it seems to the Government of India inevitable that when the proportions of Indians to Europeans contemplated by the Lee Commission have been attained, the future of each of these two Services must be fully reviewed.

A separate section on relations with the States contains a discussion of the Commission's suggestion that the exercise of paramountcy should no longer be a function of the Government of India. It is agreed that paramountcy should vest in the Crown. The proposal for

the establishment of a Council for Greater India is supported, and emphasis is laid on the need for an early review of the financial and economic relations between the Indian States and British India. It is hoped that the occasion for reaching an agreement on broad principles may be afforded by the Round Table Conference.

After a discussion of the relations between the Government of India and the Secretary of State which would seem to follow from the general scheme suggested by the Government of India the Dispatch concludes —

The recommendations of the Indian Statutory Commission as to the provincial constitutions with which in general we agree represent a generous response to the popular demand for provincial autonomy. They contain within themselves the means of increasing adaptation to local circumstances, and to the wishes of those who will be charged with the task of working the constitution that the Commission have outlined. Our proposals for the centre in amplification of the plan put forward by the Commission, have been designed with a double purpose. On the one hand we have sought to examine the means by which the relations between Executive and Legislature can be established on a basis which offers a reasonable chance of harmony in working. On the other we have endeavoured to point the way to action that may now be taken to place upon the constitution the first but definite impress of Dominion status. If we read history aright it is exactly in this way that each and all of the Dominions have attained to constitutional nationhood.

Accepting the recommendations of the Commission that the members of the Central Cabinet should be appointed by the Governor General, we have drawn what appeared to us the consequential inference that the exercise of the functions for the Government of India which reside in the Crown should be directly devolved upon the Governor General and that therewith should go the power to appropriate the revenues of India. We think it right to state clearly that if this were done the Government of India would no longer merely be the agent of the Secretary of State. For the first time it would possess a distinct individuality. It would be true, be within specific limits under the control of his Majesty's Government, but it is of the essence of our proposals that that control should be of such a nature as to establish partnership in place of subordination.

The Government of India would then be a distinct entity, capable of acting in domestic matters on its own initiative and, within the ambit of its uncontrolled powers free to pursue its own policy. For as the Dominions and foreign countries, it would occupy the new position which growing freedom in the conduct of external affairs would connote. That it would not be an entirely independent Government is due to circumstances, internal and external to India, which are generally familiar and which invest the problem with such peculiar difficulty. But, while we are bound to suggest means by which provision can be made for the period of transition which must elapse before the complete

fulfilment of British purpose, as declared in the announcements made on behalf of His Majesty's Government we would set no artificial or statutory barrier to the natural evolution we desire to see. We believe that the greater part of Indian opinion will be ready to recognize

the special interests of Parliament provided that Great Britain on her side is prepared by action to show that she does not falter in her desire to invest India with the constitutional status that she seeks, and that her political development appears to us to justify

VIEWS OF PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

Following the publication of the Simon Report the Provincial Governments prepared their views, and the subsidiary reports of the Governments of Bombay, Madras, Bengal, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Assam, and Burma are now available. Some of these reports show very general agreement with the recommendations of the now defunct Simon Commission. Most are in favour of a federal basis for the future Government of India. All express anxiety for the security of the Services and opinions are sharply divided on the problem of Indian defence. Almost all approve the continuance of the Council of State. One or two Governments, like Madras, refrained from comment on the Central Government and confined themselves to expansive criticisms of the future of provincial government. A general conclusion would be that provincial needs differ considerably, and these needs must be met by a correspondingly flexible legislature. The almost overwhelming condemnation of the proposal for Second Chambers in the Provinces for instance does not invalidate the claim of a certain section in the United Provinces that it would find one useful.

Appended are a few of the observations made by the Provincial Governments.

Federal Government

Bombay—The proposed reconstitution will not give the Presidency a fair representation. The future Government of India must have a federal basis.

Bengal—If India is to be one of the constituent States of the Commonwealth of Nations united under the Crown the ultimate constitution must be federal.

The Punjab (Official)—Indirect election will emphasize and establish beyond dispute the federal nature of the Indian constitution.

United Provinces—The direct system of election to the Federal Assembly should continue as it has existed hitherto.

The Central Provinces—The Legislative Assembly has voted satisfactorily the national aspirations of the country. Unless those for whom the reforms have been designed are willing to work a Federal Assembly, it is of little use to force its creation.

Bihar and Orissa—On the proposal for a Federal Assembly opinion is divided.

Assam—The proposal is welcomed.

Provincial Government.

Bombay—A Provincial Cabinet should not include Ministers appointed from outside the Council. Existing restrictions against encroachment upon the central sphere are too rigid.

Madras—The Government accepts substantially the recommendations of the Report. Mahomedans must retain separate electorates until they agree to surrender them. The Governor must retain the right to nominate representatives for certain minorities.

Bengal—Dvarkh must go and a unitary Government be established. The transfer of all subjects including Law and Order to Ministers is inadequate. The transfer cannot be made without safeguards. The safeguards provided in the Report are inadequate and illusory.

United Provinces—Conscious of the great dangers involved in responsible government but realising the abolition of dyarchy to be inevitable, the Government proposes important safeguards. Members of the Ministry must accept responsibility for the whole policy of the Government. The Governor may include in his Ministry non-officials other than elected members of the legislature. A provincial statute must fix the salaries of Ministers. Votes of censure may be admissible only when they apply to the Ministry as a whole.

The Governor

Bombay—There must be some ultimate authority empowered to carry on the administration in emergencies. In the province the Governor appears to be the only authority to whom these powers can be entrusted.

Madras—In the exercise of special and emergency powers the Governor should be subject to the control of the Governor General. It is not necessary for the Governor to be the agent of the Governor General.

Bengal—The Governor must be armed with full and ample powers to deal with any emergency that may arise when the ordinary machinery of Government has come to a standstill or when its powers are seriously misdirected. Similar reserve powers must remain with the Governor General in matters affecting the Central Government.

Central Provinces—It is useless to envisage a Governor in constant need of powers against his Ministers. Once mutual confidence has gone, the time for the Governor to part with his Ministers has come.

United Provinces—The Governor must be allowed to overrule his Ministers when this is necessary (1) to protect the safety of the province (2) to prevent serious prejudice to one or more sections of the community (3) to secure the fulfilment of Government liabilities (4) to carry out an order from the Government of India or the Secretary of State and (5) to fulfil duties statutorily imposed upon him personally.

The Punjab—Safeguards are unnecessary other than by the overriding power of the Governor, there is no way of securing them.

Bihar and Orissa—It is impossible under present conditions for the Governor to be merely a constitutional Governor. A limited power of interference should not hamper the growth of a sense of responsibility.

Assam—The Governor's powers of intervention in finance and legislation must be strictly parallel to his powers of interference in the executive field.

Second Chambers

Bombay—A second chamber is too costly and it would be difficult to secure a sufficient number of members for it.

Madras—Though it might perform many useful functions it would dissipate too much the talent now available.

Bengal—These bodies are legislative not executive. They are not in session for more than a small part of the year. They therefore provide no safeguard in the matter of daily administration.

United Provinces—There is no general agreement. Some members believe that a second chamber will obviate the use of the Governor's special powers and will have the anxieties provoked by a wide extension of the franchise. In the United Provinces there are classes from which such a chamber can suitably be constituted.

The Punjab (Officials)—The balance of argument is against having a second chamber in the Province.

The Army

Bombay—The pace of Indianization must be accelerated. The Commission's recommendations are not acceptable. They would make the attainment of Dominion Status an impossibility. Indian sentiment would prefer a Dominion army built up under the orders of the Commander in Chief.

Madras—Indianization of the Army should proceed far more rapidly than at present.

Bengal—The reasons advanced for the changes proposed by the Simon Report are insufficient. It is most desirable that the existing arrangements should not be altered at present.

Central Provinces—Indian sentiment is not in favour of an army divorced from the control of the Government. No army can function *in vacuo*. Indians would not barter their duty to defend themselves for an Imperial subsidy. The risk be taken of reducing some what the present crushing military expenditure so as to set free funds for nation building purposes.

United Provinces—The Army must be adequate for defence and for many years to come British troops and British officers with Indian troops will be necessary.

The Punjab (Officials)—The menace is a reality. For many years to come the Army must contain British troops and British officers serving with British units.

PROVING OF WILLS

In British India if a person has been appointed executor of the will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the will as early as possible. If the will is in a vernacular it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. The value of immovable properties are usually assessed at 1½ years purchase on the net Municipal assessment. For estate under Rs. 10,000 the probate duty payable is 2%, between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000 the duty payable is 2½%. Over 50,000 rupees the duty payable is 3%. In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purpose of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted:—

1. Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances.

2. The amount of funeral expenses.

3. Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

The particulars of all these items have to be stated in a separate schedule. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue authorities and if the properties particularly immovable properties have not been properly valued the Revenue department require the petition to be amended accordingly. In certain cases the Court then requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within 14 days after the publication or service of citation and if the will is shown to have been properly executed and the petitioner entitled to probate, probate is ordered to be granted.

Foreign Possessions in India.

Portugal and France both hold small territorial possessions in the Indian Peninsula.

The Portuguese possessions in India all of which are situated within the limits of Bombay Presidency consist of the Province of Goa on the Arabian Sea Coast, the territory of Daman with the small territory called Pragana-Nagar

Avely on the Gujarat Coast, at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, and the little island of Diu with two places called Gogla and Simbor, on the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula. All these three territories constitute what is called the State of India.

GOA

Goa forms a compact block of territory surrounded by British districts. Savantwadi State lies to the north of it, the Arabian Sea on the west and North Kanara on the south and the eastern boundary is the range of the Western Ghats which separates it from the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara. The extreme length from north to south is 62 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles. The territory has a total area of 1,301 square miles and consists of the *Velhas Conquistas*, or Old Conquests comprising the island of Goa acquired by the Portuguese in 1510, and the neighbouring municipalities of Salsette, Bardes and Mormugao acquired in 1543, and of the *Novas Conquistas*, or New Conquests, comprising the municipalities of Pernem, Sanquelim, Ponda, Quepem, Canacona, Satali and Sangnem acquired in the latter half of the 18th century. The small island of Anjediva situated opposite the port of Karwar, in the British district of North Kanara, forms administratively a portion of the Canacona municipality. This was acquired in 1805. The whole country is hilly, especially the eastern portion, the predominating physical feature being the Western Ghats, which besides bounding the country along the north-east and south-east, just off westward and spread across the country in a succession of spurs and ridges. There are several conspicuous isolated peaks of which the highest, Bomsegar, is 3,827 feet high.

The country is intersected by numerous rivers running westward from the Ghats and the principal eight, which are all navigable are in size of some importance. Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bardes and Salsette. Half way between these extremities lies the *cabo* or cape, which forms the extremity of the island of Goa. This divides the whole bay into two anchorages, known as Aguada and Mormugao. Both are capable of accommodating the largest shipping from September to May, but Aguada is virtually closed during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea and to the formation of sand bars across the estuary of the Mandovi river, which opens into Aguada. Mormugao is accessible at all times and is therefore the harbour of commercial importance. It is the terminus of the railway running to the coast from the inland British system of lines. A breakwater and port have been built there and the trade is considerable being chiefly transit trade from British territory. The international transit of Mormugao port was in 1926 about Rs 440 lakhs.

The People

The total population of Goa was 531,952 at the census of 1921. This gives a density of 408 persons to the square mile and the population showed an increase of 9 per cent since the

census ten years previously. In the Velhas Conquistas the majority of the population is Christian. In the Novas Conquistas Hindus are more numerous than Christians. The Moslems in the territory are numbered in a few thousands. The Christians still very largely adhere to caste distinctions claiming to be Brahmins, Chaudos and low castes, which do not intermarry. The Hindus who form about one half of the total population are largely Maratha and do not differ from those of the adjacent, Konkani districts of Bombay. All classes of the people with the exception of Europeans, use the Konkani dialect of Marathi with some admixture of Portuguese words. The official language is Portuguese which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns as well as by all educated people. Nearly all the Christians profess the Roman Catholic religion and are spiritually subject to an archbishop who has the titles of Primate of the East and Patriarch of the East Indies and exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction also over a portion of British India, and the provinces of Macau (China) and Timor (Oceania), with missions in foreign countries and Mozambique (Portuguese East Africa). The Christians of Daman and Diu are subject under a new treaty signed in 1928 between Portugal and the Holy See to the Archbishop of Goa. There are numerous churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The churches are in charge of secular priests. Hindus and Mahomedans now enjoy perfect freedom in religious matters and have their own places of worship. In the early days of Portuguese rule the worship of Hindu gods in public and the observance of Hindu usages were strictly forbidden and rigorously suppressed.

The Country

A little over one third of the entire territory of Goa is stated to be under cultivation. The fertility of the soil varies considerably according to quality situation and water-supply. The Velhas Conquistas are as a rule better and more intensively cultivated than the Novas Conquistas. In both these divisions a holding of fifteen or sixteen acres would be considered a good sized farm but the majority of holdings are of much smaller extent varying from half an acre to five or six acres. The staple produce of the country is rice, of which there are two good harvests but the quantity produced is barely sufficient to meet the needs of the population for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of coconut palms is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. Hilly places and inferior soils are set apart for the cultivation of cereals and several kinds of fruits and vegetables are

cultivated to an important extent. The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has improved during recent years owing to the general rise in the prices of all classes of agricultural produce and partly to the current of emigration to British territory. There is a great shortage of agricultural labour in the Velhas Conquistas, and the cultivation of rice fields is now practically controlled by the Hindu population. In the summer months bands of artisans and field labourers from the adjoining British territory make their way into Bardes where the demand for labour is always keen. Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. They cover an area of 116 square miles and are under conservation and yield some profit to the administration. Iron is found in parts of the territory, but has not been seriously worked. Manganese also exists and some mines are being worked at present, the ore being exported to the Continent.

Commerce.

In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepot of commerce between East and West and was specially famous for its trade in horses with the Persian Gulf. It lost its commercial importance with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire and its trade is now insignificant.

The present trade of Goa is not very large. Its imports amount to about Rs 180 lakhs and exports to about Rs 40 lakhs. The discrepancy is met from the money sent to Goa by the many emigrants who are to be found all over the world. Few manufacturing industries of any moment exist and most manufactured articles in use are imported. Exports chiefly consist of coconuts, betel nuts, mangoes and other fruits and raw produce.

A line of railway connects Mormugao with the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Its length from Mormugao to Castle Rock above the Ghats where it joins the British system is 61 miles of which 49 are in Portuguese territory. The railway is under the management of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway administration and the bulk of the trade of Mormugao port is what it brings down from and takes to the interior. The telegraphs in Portuguese territories are worked as a separate system from the British. The latter however had an office at Nova-Goa maintained jointly by the two Governments but since 1925 the Nova-Goa office has been handed over to the Portuguese Government which now maintains and works all the telegraphs in its territories.

Taxes and Tariffs

The country was in a state of chronic financial equilibrium for nearly sixty years with occasional exceptions. The last war enhanced the deficits to alarming proportions and these were met by fresh taxes and new loans. Most of the new taxes were the result of the initiative of the Governor General Jaime de MORAIS, who is popularly known as the Governor of Taxes. Only in 1927 the country experienced the joys of a balanced budget and the public servants whose salaries had always remained in arrears are now being paid regularly. There is an estimated surplus of about a lakh and a half which has been earmarked for promoting the industrial progress of the country. If municipal

and national taxes be added together, the country presents a very high incidence of taxation, even higher than that of British India, the average coming to about Rs 8-3 per capita. There is no income-tax, except for government servants, but there is a special ten per cent tax on all incomes derived in the shape of interest on loans. This tax is a powerful contributory cause to the flight of capital from Portuguese India. The chief sources of revenue are the land tax, Excise and the customs. There is a special tax on emigrants which yields to the State about Rs 80,000. The country being economically backward the taxes give very little indication of its productive capacity or of its annual wealth. The national wealth is a matter of pure conjecture for lack of statistics.

The tariff schedule is based on the three-fold principle fiscal, protective and preferential. There is a limited free list on which books and paper figure prominently. The fiscal tariff ranges from 10 to 30 per cent, according to the nature of the commodities, but the duties in several cases are specific, not *ad valorem*. This causes considerable hardship to trade, and specially to the poorer classes of consumers. The preferential tariff applies to goods coming from Lisbon and the Portuguese Colonies. Very recently the principle of protection has been extended to the export of canned fruit which are entitled to a bounty of 10 per cent on their basic price.

The Capital.

Kova-Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjim and Ribandar. Old Goa is some six miles distant from the new city. Panjim occupies a narrow strip of land leading up to the Cabo, the cape dividing the Aguada bay from that of Mormugao and mainly slopes down to the edge of the Aguada. It was selected as the residence of the Portuguese Viceroy in 1768, and in 1843 it was raised to its present rank as the capital of Portuguese India. The appearance of the city with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences as seen from the water is very picturesque and this impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads, bordered by decent, tidy houses. The most imposing public structures are the barracks, an immense quadrangular building the eastern wing of which accommodates the Primary School, the Public Library and the Government Press. Other noticeable buildings are the Cathedral and various churches, the viceregal palace, the High Court and so on. The square in the lower part of the town is adorned with a life-sized statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy.

History

Goa was captured for the Portuguese by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510. Albuquerque promptly fortified the place and established Portuguese rule on a firm basis. From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance and became the metropolis of Portuguese power in the East. There was constant fighting with the armies of the Bijapur kingdom, but the Portuguese held their own and gained the surrounding territory now known as the Velhas Conquistas.

The subsequent history of the town is one of ostentation and decay. Goa reached its summit of prosperity at the end of the sixteenth century. The accounts of travellers show that the Goa of those days presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the British capitals of India. Portugal however with its three millions of population was too small to defend itself against Spain and maintain at the same time its immense Empire in the four Continents. Albuquerque tried to consolidate Portuguese rule in India by his policy of attracting the conquered Indians and granting them civil and religious liberties. His contemporaries however could not understand his far-seeing statesmanship and after his death they undid all his work being their dominion on conquest by the sword and military force and they laboured to consolidate it by a proselytising organisation which throws all the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. Old Goa, as the ruins of the old capital are called to-day, had a hundred churches, many of them of magnificent proportions and the Inquisition which was a power in the land. The sixty years subjection to Spain in the 17th century completed the ruin of the Portuguese Empire in the East and though the Marquis of Pombal in the 18th century tried to stave off its decadence his subordinates in far off India either could not understand or would not carry out his orders and even his strong hand was unable to stop the decline. It was in the 19th century that the colonials began to enjoy full Portuguese citizenship and sent their representatives to the Parliament in Lisbon.

Modern Times.

There was frequently recurring fighting and in 1741 the Marathas invaded the neighbourhood of Goa and threatened the city itself. An army of 12,000 men arrived from Portugal at the critical moment. The invaders were beaten off and the Novas Conquistas were added to the Portuguese possessions. In 1844 the shelter given by Goa to fugitives from justice in British territory threatened to bring about a rupture with the British Government at Bombay. In 1852 the Ranes of Satal in the Novas Conquistas revolted. In 1871 the native army in Goa mutinied and the King's own brother came from Lisbon to deal with the trouble and having done so disbanded the native army, which has never been reconstituted. But another outbreak among the troops took place in 1895 and the Ranes joining them the trouble was again not quieted until the arrival of another special expedition from Lisbon. The Ranes again broke out in 1901 and again in 1912 troops being again imported to deal with the last outbreak, which was only reported concluded in the summer of 1913. There has been no outbreak after that date.

The people on the whole appear to be quite satisfied with the Portuguese connection. There is no agitation for further reforms as in British India and not a sign of disaffection against Portuguese rule. This is chiefly due to the fact that under the present regime the natives of Goa enjoy complete equality with the natives of Por-

tugal, many of the sons of Goa occupying high and responsible positions in Portugal. Thus Elvino de Brito who was Minister of Public Works towards the end of the last century was a native of Goa as was the father of Dr. Bettan court Rodrigues, Minister for Foreign Affairs in General Carmonas dictatorial Government. Natives of Goa are also Dr. Almeida Aze, the President of the Supreme Court in Lisbon, Dr. Caetano Gonsalves, Judge of the same Court and Mr. Alberto Xavier, Secretary General of the Ministry of Finance.

Administration.

The Lisbon Government by Decree No 3266, dated 27th July 1917, enacted new rules regarding the administration of Portuguese India under an Organic Charter (Carta Organica) in force since 1st July 1919. This Charter, regarding civil and financial administration of the colony, was modified by rules Nos 1005 and 1022 dated 7th and 26th August 1920 and decrees Nos 008 and 7030 dated 9th and 18th October. A new Organic Charter modifying in certain parts the earlier one was granted by Decree No 12,499 of 4th October 1926 and is now in force.

The territory of Portuguese India is ruled by one Governor-General, residing in the Capital of the State at Panjim alias Nova-Goa, and is divided into three districts, Goa, Daman and Diu. The last two are each under a Lieutenant-Governor. The district of Goa is under the direct superintendency of the Governor General.

Subordinate to the Governor General the following Secretariats are working: Home and Political, Finance, Customs, Education, Military, Naval, Agriculture, Health and Public Works. There are also three special and autonomous Departments, which do not constitute exclusive Secretariats, one of them being the Department of Posts and Telegraphs, the second that of Survey and the third that of the Fiscal of the W I P Railway.

As the principal organ of administration next to the Governor General and in collaboration with him works a Governor's Council (*Conselho do Governo*) with Legislative and advisory powers. The Council is constituted in addition to the Governor-General, *ex officio* President of four officials (Attorney General, the Director of Finance, the Director of Civil Administration and the Director of Public Works) five elected members (three representing *Velhas Conquistas* one the *Novas Conquistas* and one the Districts of Daman and Diu) and five members nominated by the Governor-General to represent the municipalities, agricultural, commercial and other interests and the press.

In each province of Goa, Daman and Diu, there is a District Council to supervise the Municipalities and other local institutions. The District Council of Goa is composed of the Director of Civil Administration, President, the Government Prosecutor of the Nova-Goa Civil Court, the Deputy Chief Health Officer, the Engineer next to the Director of Public Works, the Deputy Director of Finance, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation of the Islands, one member elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations of the district, one member elected by the 60 highest tax payers of Goa, one member elected by the Associations of Lapid-

owners and Farmers of the District, and one member advocates elected by the Legislative Council among the legally qualified.

At Damam and Diu the corresponding body is composed of the local Governor, President, the Government Prosecutor, the Chief of the Public Works Department, the Health Officer, the Financial Director of the district, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation, two members elected by 40 highest tax payers of the District and one member elected by the Merchants, Industrialists and Farmers of the district.

Under the provisions of the above quoted Decree is also officiating in the capital of Portuguese India a administrative court tribunal to take cognizance and decide all litigious administrative matters, fiscal questions and accounts. It is named *Tribunal Administrativo Fiscal e de Contas* and is composed of the Chief Justice as President, four High Court judges, one superior Government officer who must be a Bachelor of Laws, nominated by the Government and a citizen, who is not an official elected by the Governor-General's Council. When matters regarding finances and accounts

come up for decision and discussion the Director of Finance also sits on the Tribunal.

Under the presidency of the Governor-General the following bodies are also working —

Technical Council of Public Works.—Its members are all engineers on permanent duty in the head office a military officer of highest rank in the army or navy, the Director of Finance, the Attorney-General, the Chief Health Officer and a Secretary being a clerk of the Public Works Department appointed by the Director of Public Works.

Council of Public Instruction.—This Council presided over by the Governor-General is composed of five officials, the Director of Civil Administration, the Director of the Medical College, the Director of the Lyceum, the Director of the Normal School and the Inspector of Primary Schools, and four nominated members.

There is one High Court in the State of India with five Judges and one Attorney-General, and Courts of Justice at Panjim, Margao, Mapuch, Bicholim, Quepem e Damão, and Municipal Courts of Justice at Mormugão (Vasco da Gama), Pondá Diu and Nagar-Aveli.

PORT OF MORMUGÃO

Mormugão is situated towards the south of Aguada Bar on the left Bar, on the left bank of Zeary River in Lat 15° 25' N and Long 73° 47' E, about 225 miles south of Bombay and 61 miles south of Panjim, the Capital of Portuguese India. The Port of Mormugão is the natural outlet to the sea for the whole area served by the M & S M. Ry. (metre-gauge), and offers the shortest route both passenger and goods traffic. The distance from Aden to Mormugão is about the same as from Aden to Bombay. The Port is provided with light-houses, buoys and all necessary marks and it is easily accessible all the year round and at any hour of the day or night even without the assistance of a Pilot. Pilotage is not compulsory, but when usual pilot flag is hoisted, a qualified officer will board the vessel and render such assistance.

Mormugão Harbour is the terminal station of the West of India Portuguese Railway which is controlled by the Madras and Southern Maharashtra Railway Company with headquarters at Madras. Goods are shipped direct from Mormugão to any Continental Ports every facility being afforded for such direct shipments. Cargo can be unloaded from or loaded direct into Railway wagons, which run alongside steamers, thus reducing handling. Warehouses are built on the quay and have railway sidings alongside. Steamers of over 5,000 tons net register, from any Continental Ports can be discharged or loaded rapidly and in complete safety, in a working day of 10 hours 650 tons from work or 800 tons bale or bag cargo can easily be loaded or discharged. The port is provided with steam cranes and all other appliances for quick loading and discharging of vessels, one of the cranes being of 30 tons capacity for discharging heavy lifts. The tonnage, quay dues and all other charges are very low, special concessions being granted for steamers arriving from European or American Ports touching Lisbon. Fresh water can be obtained at a low cost.

The Bombay Steam Navigation Company's (Shepherd) steamers between Bombay and Mangalore call at Mormugão twice a week. The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers between Bombay and Africa call at Mormugão at least once a month. The Elderman Steam Line maintains a regular service from Liverpool to Mormugão calling occasionally at Lisbon. This service offers every facility for shipment from the United Kingdom to stations on the M & S M. Railway under the "Combined Sea and Rail Through Bills of Lading." There are several stevedoring firms, the maximum rate for discharging or loading coal and general cargo being fixed by Government at 6 annas per ton, deadweight. Goods for British India pass through Goa without any charge being collected by Portuguese Government. British Customs duty payable at Castle-Rock can be paid by the Railway Company and collected at destination. Goods from stations on the M & S M. Ry. System to Mormugão or vice-versa are railied without transhipment, thus avoiding a second handling. Steam tugs, barges, etc., for unloading in the stream can be had at a very low charge.

With a view to promoting the economical, commercial and industrial development of Mormugão, a special Department under the designation of the "Mormugão Improvement Trust" with its head office at Vasco da Gama, 2 miles from Mormugão Harbour, has been created and the Local Government have introduced various regulations granting every facility to those intending to raise buildings for residential and industrial purposes in the whole area, comprising about 800 acres, near the Harbour. There are over 2,000 plots, each measuring between 1,000 and 2,000 square metres (each square yard = 0.8361 square metre), available for residential quarters, granted on permanent lease on each payment of 2 annas to Rs 1-8 per square metre, according to their situation, in addition to an annual payment of 4 ptes per square metre as lease-hold rent.

Within about 60 days from the date of application for a plot, the same is made over to the applicant or to the highest bidder, should there be more than one applicant for one and the same plot. The plan of buildings is in all cases subject to the approval of the Chairman of the Improvement Trust, such plan being required to be submitted within 60 days from the date the plot is made over to the lessee, and the period within which building is to be completed is 2 years. Importation of building materials is allowed free of Custom duties. In addition to the above, there is an extensive area available and reserved only for Industrial and Commercial Establishments, this area being known as "Free Zone." Within this "Free Zone," in addition to plots, which are leased at a very low rate for building factories, bonded warehouses or for establishment of any kind of Industrial or commercial concerns, in accordance with rules and regulations lately issued by the local Government, special concessions and privileges are granted, such as

(I) *For Establishment of Factories or Industrial Concerns*—All machinery, building materials, tools, raw materials, etc., required for construction, maintenance and regular working

of the Factories are permitted free of import duty, likewise export of the goods manufactured within the "Free Zone."

(II) *For Establishment of Depots of Manufactured or Unmanufactured Goods, Bonded Warehouses, etc., etc.*—All goods imported by the Concessionaire for the purpose of such depot are allowed to be exported to any Foreign territory, after being improved and repacked, if necessary, without payment of either import or export duty.

(III) *Exemption of Government Taxes.*—In addition to the above privileges, all Factories, Commercial Establishments, buildings, etc., within the "Free Zone" are exempt from all Government taxes for a period of 20 years from May 1923. Applications for any of the above concessions have to be addressed to H.E. the Governor General of Portuguese India and presented at the office of the Mormugão Improvement Trust at Vasco da Gama, giving therein full particulars of the area and plot, etc., required. Such applications are disposed of within as little time as possible. Full information can be obtained from the Mormugão Improvement Trust, Vasco da Gama.

DAMAN

The settlement of Damam lies at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, about 100 miles north of Bombay. It is composed of two portions, namely, Damam proper, lying on the coast, and the detached pargana of Nagar Aveli separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory and bisected by the B. E. & C. I. Railway. Damam proper contains an area of 22 square miles and 26 villages and has a population (1921) of 17,566 of whom 1,480 are Christians. The number of houses is according to the same census 4,095. Nagar Aveli has an area of 60 square miles and a population (1921) of 31,043 of whom only 271 are Christians. The number of houses is 6,069. The town of Damam was sacked by the Portuguese in 1581, rebuilt by the natives and retaken by the Portuguese in 1583, when they made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church and have since built eight other places of worship. The native Christians adopt the European costume, some of the women dressing themselves after the present European fashion, and others following the old style of petticoat and mantle once prevalent in Spain and Portugal.

The soil of the settlement is moist and fertile, especially in Nagar Aveli, but despite the

ease of cultivation only one-twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. The principal crops are rice, wheat, the inferior cereals of Gujarat and tobacco. The settlement contains no minerals. There are stately forests in Nagar Aveli and about two-thirds of them consist of teak, but the forests are not conserved and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not been determined. Before the decline of Portuguese power in the East, Damam carried on an extensive Commerce especially with the east coast of Africa. In those days it was noted for its dyeing and weaving.

The territory forms for administrative purposes a single district and has a Municipal Chamber and Corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is administered by a Judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General and two clerks. In Nagar Aveli the greater part of the soil is the property of the Government, from whom the cultivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax, forests, excise and customs duties.

DIU

Diu is an island lying off the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp. It is composed of three portions, namely, Diu proper (island), the village of Gogia, on the Peninsula, separated by the channel and the fortress of Simbor about 8 miles west of the island. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in two fathoms of water and owing to the great advantages which its position offers for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired at an early period with a desire to obtain possession

of it. This they gained, first by treaty with the Sultan of Gujarat and then by force of arms. Diu became opulent and famous for its commerce. It has now dwindled into insignificance. The extreme length of the island is about seven miles and its breadth from north to south, two miles. The area is 80 square miles. The population of the town of Diu, from which the island takes its name, is said to have been 50,000 in the days of its commercial prosperity. The total population of the island, according to the census of 1921, is 12,844, of whom 324 were Christians.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

The French possessions in India comprise five Settlements with certain dependent lodges, or plots. They aggregate 808 square miles, and had a total population in the first January 1930 of 288,546. The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to open up commercial relations, was attempted in 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants at Bona, but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu found ed the first Campagne d'Orient, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664 granting exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having twice attempted without success to establish itself in Madagascar Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India and its President Caron, founded in 1668 the Compagnie or agency at Surate. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment he seized the harbour of Trincomalee in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomalee, and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast in 1673, seized St. Thome, a Portuguese town adjoining Madras, which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He was, however, compelled to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending when one of its agents the celebrated Francois Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen saved out of the wreck of the settlements at Trincomalee and St. Thome he took up his abode at Pondicherry, then a small village which he purchased in 1683 from the Raja of Gingee. He built fortifications and a trade began to spring up, but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch who wrested it from him in 1693 and held it until it was restored to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697. Pondicherry became in this year and has ever since remained the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was contemporaneous with that of Calcutta. Like Calcutta its site was purchased by a European Company from a native prince, and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta Francois Martin proved to be Pondicherry. On its restitution to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697 Martin was appointed Governor, and under his able management Pondicherry became an entrepot of trade.

Chandernagore, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1686 by grant from the Delhi Emperor. Mahé, on the Malabar Coast was obtained in 1725, under the government of M. Lenoir, Karikal, on the Coromandel Coast, under that of M. Dumas, in 1739. Yanam, on the coast of the Northern Circars, was taken possession of in 1750, and formally ceded to the French two years later.

Administration

The military command and administration in chief of the French possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherry. The office is at present held by Monsieur Yvanou (François Adrien). He is assisted by a

Chief Justice and by several 'Chefs de Service' in the different administrative departments. In 1879 local councils and a council-general were established, the members being chosen by a sort of universal suffrage within the French territories. Seventeen Municipalities, or Communal Boards, were erected in 1907, namely Pondicherry, Ariancoppan, Modallarepeth, Oulgarot, Villenour, Throubouvane Bahour and Netapeam for the establishment of Pondicherry, Karikal, Néravy, Nedouneadour, Trunalar Grande Aïdée Ootahéry for the establishment of Karikal and also Chandernagore, Mahé and Yanam. On municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery. The army and establishments connected with the Governor and his staff at Pondicherry and those of administrators at Chandernagore, Yanam, Mahé and Karikal, together with other headquarters charges necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government with four dependent ones, have to be maintained. This is effected by rigid economy and the prestige of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherry is also the scene of considerable religious pomp and missionary activity. It forms the seat of an Archbishop, with a body of priests for all French India and of the Missions Étrangères the successors of the Mission du Carmel founded by the Jesuits in 1716. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements, a large proportion of its Christians are British subjects and many of the churches are in British territory. The British rupee is the ordinary tender within French territories. A line of railway running via Villenour, from Pondicherry to Villupuram on the South Indian Railway, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India and Karikal is linked to the same railway by the branch from Peralam. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of fifteen members, nine of them Europeans or persons of European descent was reorganised by a decree of 7th March, 1914. The capital Pondicherry, is a very handsome town and presents especially from the sea, a striking appearance of French civilisation.

People and Trade.

The Settlements are represented in Parliament at Paris by one senator and one deputy. The Senator is Mons. Lemoigne. The Deputy is Mons. Coponat. There were in 1929 69 primary schools and 3 colleges all maintained by the Government, with 508 teachers and 10,922 pupils. Local revenue and expenditure (Budget of 1930) Rs. 2,311,525. The principal crops are paddy, groundnut, and ragi. There are at Pondicherry 3 cotton mills, and at Chandernagore 1 jute mill. The cotton mills have in all 1,691 looms and 71,744 spindles employing 7,490 persons. There are also at work one oil factory and a few oil presses for groundnuts, and one ice factory,

The chief exports from Pondicherry are all seeds. At the ports of Pondicherry, Karikal, and Mahé in 1929 the imports amounted to Rs 8,743 048 and the exports to Rs 80,110 047. At these three ports in 1929 305 vessels entered and cleared, tonnage 129,115T.

visited by French steamers, sailing monthly between Colombo and Ceylon in connection with the Messageries Maritimes. The figures contained in this paragraph are the latest available and are corrected up to December 1929.

PONDICHERY

Pondicherry is the chief of the French Settlements in India and its capital is the headquarters of their Governor. It is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 105 miles from Madras by road and 122 by the Villupuram Pondicherry branch of the South Indian Railway. The area of the Settlement is 11½ square miles and its population in the first January 1930 was 47,678. It consists of the eight communes of Pondicherry. The Settlement was founded in 1674 under François Martin. In 1693, it was captured by the Dutch but was restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege under Admiral Boscawen in 1748 was unsuccessful. The second, under Eyre Coote in 1781 resulted in the capture of the place, which was restored in 1760. It was again besieged and captured in 1778 by Sir Hector Munro, and the fortifications were demolished in 1779. The place was again restored in 1785 under the Treaty of Versailles of 1783. It was captured a fourth time by Colonel Braithwaite in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.

The Settlement comprises a number of isolated pieces of territory which are cut off from the main part and surrounded by the British District of South Arcot, except where they border on the sea. The Collector of

South Arcot is empowered to deal with ordinary correspondence with the French authorities on these and kindred matters, and in this capacity is styled the Special Agent. At Pondicherry itself is a British Consular Agent accredited to the French Government, who is usually an officer of the Indian Army. The town is compact, neat and clean, and is divided by a canal into two parts, the *Ville blanche* and the *Ville noire*. The *Ville blanche* has a European appearance, the streets being laid at right angles to one another with trees along their margins reminding the visitor of continental boulevards, and the houses being constructed with courtyards and embellished with green verandahs. All the cross streets lead down to the shore, where a wide promenade facing the sea is again different from anything of its kind in British India. In the middle is a screw pile pier, which serves, when ships touch at the port, as a point for the landing of cargo, and on holidays as a general promenade for the population. There is no real harbour at Pondicherry; ships lie at a distance of about a mile from the shore, and communication with them is conducted by the usual *mascala* boats of this coast. Facing the shore end of the pier is a statue of the great Dupleix, to whom the place and the French name owe so much.

CHANDERNAGORE

Chandernagore is situated on the bank of the Hooghly, a short distance below Calcutta. Population (in the first January 1930) 26,897. The town was permanently occupied by the French in 1688, though previously it had been temporarily occupied by them at a date given as 1672 or 1676. It did not, however, rise to any importance till the time of Dupleix. It changed hands between British and French various times during the Napoleonic wars and was finally restored to the French in 1816.

The former grandeur of Chandernagore has

disappeared, and at present it is little more than a quiet suburban town with little external trade. The railway station on the East Indian Railway is just outside French territory 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah). The chief administrative officer is the Administrator who is subordinate to the Governor of the French Possessions. The chief public institution is the College Dupleix, formerly called St. Mary's Institution, founded in 1688 and under the direct control of the French Government.

KARIKAL

Karikal lies on the Coromandel Coast between the Tanjore District of Madras and the Bay of Bengal. The settlement is divided into six communes, containing 110 villages in all, and covering an area of 58 square miles. It is governed by an Administrator subordinate to the Governor at Pondicherry. The population has in recent years rapidly decreased. In 1898 it was 93,055. In 1901 76,526, in 1901, 54,008, in 1923 57,023, in 1924, 56,922, in 1925, 479,663 and in 1930 59,800, but the density is still very high, being 1,063 persons per square mile. Kumbakonam is the only town in Tanjore District which has a higher density. Each of the six communes—namely, Karikal, La Grande Allee, Nedungadu, Ootcheri, Néravy and Tirunelveli—possesses a mayor and council. The members are all elected by

universal suffrage but in the municipality Karikal the number of seats are reserved for Europeans or their descendants. The country is very fertile, being irrigated by seven branches of the Cauvery, besides many smaller channels.

The capital of the settlement is situated on the north bank of the river Arasalar, about 1½ miles from its mouth. It has a brisk trade in rice with Oeylon, and to a less extent with the Straits Settlements. It has no commerce with France, and very little with other French colonies. The port is merely an open roadstead, provided with a light-house 142 feet high, the light in which has a range of from 8 to 10 miles. In 1899 Karikal was connected with Paralem on the Tanjore District Board Railway. Karikal finally came into French possession on the settlement after 1815.

The Frontiers.

By those who take a long view of politics in the wide sense of the term it will be seen that the Indian Frontier problem, which has loomed so large in the discussion of Indian questions has always borne a two fold character—the local issue and the international issue. For almost a century the international issue was the greater of the two, and the most serious question which the Indian Government, both directly and as the exponents of British Imperial policy had to face. But the tendency of later times was for the international aspect to recede and for the local aspect to grow in importance until it might be said, with as much truth as characterises all generalisations, that the local issue dominated, if it did not absorb the situation.

The Local Problem—The local problem, in its broadest outlines, may be briefly indicated before proceeding to discuss it in detail. From the Arabian Sea on the West to the confines of Nepal is a wild and troublous sea of some of the highest mountains in the world. The thin valleys in these immense ranges are poorly populated by hardy, brave, militant mountaineers, rendered the fiercer and the more difficult by professing the martial Moslem faith accentuated by the most bitter fanaticism. But apart as the population is, it is in excess of the supporting power of the country. These mountaineers in all parts of the world, these brave and fearless men have sought to eke out their exigent agriculture by raiding the rich plains of Hindustan. We may find a fairly close parallel to the situation in the position of the Highlands of Scotland until after the rebellion of 1745 the English Government of the day sought a permanent remedy by opening for the warlike Highlanders a military career in the famous Highland regiments and in rendering military operations easier by the construction of Wade's road. The Highland problem has disappeared so long from English politics that its pregnant lessons are little realised, but if the curious student will read again that brilliant novel by Neil Munro, "The New Road," he will appreciate what Wade's work meant for the Highlands of Scotland, and what lessons it teaches those who are called upon to face in its local aspect, the Indian frontier problem. So far as the area with which we are dealing was concerned, two policies were tried. In Baluchistan, the genius of Sir Robert Sandeman devised the method of entering into military occupation of the principal points, and thence controlling the country.

At the same time close engagements were entered into with the principal chiefs, through whom the tribesmen were kept in order. That policy was so successful that whilst the administration was expensive the Baluchistan frontier did not seriously embarrass the Government of India from the time when Sandeman set his mark on the land. Not that the country was entirely peaceful. Occasional tribal raids or risings necessitated occasional military operations, and the Gomal Pass was involved in the general tribal disturbances which followed the wanton declaration of war by Afghanistan in 1919. But speaking broadly, Sandeman brought peace to Baluchistan, and to the large frontier area which is embraced in that generic term. So far as this section of the frontier is

concerned it may be said that no frontier problem exists, save the need for an economical and constructive policy.

Towards Afghanistan—Far otherwise is it with the section of the frontier which stretches from Baluchistan to the confines of Nepal. That has, for three quarters of a century, been the scene of almost ceaseless military operations, which have constituted a devastating drain on the Indian exchequer. For years one sought for a definite policy guiding the actions of the Government of India. One explanation of these inconsistencies was found in the existence of two schools of thought. Once the frontier with Afghanistan had been delimited the soldiers naturally pressed for the armed occupation of the whole country right up to the confines of Afghanistan or at any rate, for military posts, linked with good communications, which would dominate the country. But those who looked at policy not only from the military standpoint, were fearful of two considerations. They felt that occupation up to the Afghan frontier would only shift the frontier problem farther North. Instead of the differing tribes we should they argued, have to meet the Afghan on our border line. If Afghanistan were a strong, homogeneous State that would be a matter of little account. But even under the iron rule of Abdurhaman Khan the Amir's writ ran but slightly in the southern confines of his kingdom. Under his successor, Habibullah Khan, whose policy was generally wise and successful, it ran still less firmly. The Amir was unable to control the organisation of the tribal gatherings which involved us in the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions during the Indian secretarship; of that arch pacifist, Lord Morley. Nor did it enable Habibullah to deal effectively with a rising against his own Governor in Khost. The Afghan forces melted away under transport difficulties when they were moved against the rebellious Khostwalle, and the Amir had to make peace with his troublesome vassals. Therefore, it was said, occupation up to what is called the Durand Line because it is the line demarcated by the Frontier Commission in which Sir Mortimer Durand was the British Plenipotentiary, would simply mean that in time of trouble we should have to deal with Afghanistan instead of a tribe or two, and with the the intractable tribesmen along our difficult line of communications. There was the further consideration that financiers were of the fixed belief that even if the Forward was adopted. Policy was wise from the military standpoint it would involve charges over an indefinite period greater than the Indian finances would bear. Moreover on this section of the frontier, the position was complicated by the expansion of Russia in Central Asia. The eastern passes, and the passes down which for centuries from the time of Alexander the Great invaders have swept from Persia and Central Asia to loot the fat plains of Hindustan traverse this region. Therefore it was deemed essential to control, if not to occupy them, in the interests of the Imperial situation. In this zone therefore policy ebbed and flowed between the Forward

School which would have occupied, or dominated, the whole Frontier up to the Durand Line that is to say up to the Afghan frontier and the Close Border School, which would have us remain out of the difficult mountains some and meet the tribesmen on the plains if they sailed forth. The extreme advocates of this school would even have us return to the line of the Indus.

The Two Policies.—The result of this conflict of opinion was a series of wavering compromises, which like all compromises was profoundly unsatisfactory. We pushed forward posts here and there which irritated the Tribesmen and made them fearful of their prized independence without controlling them. These advanced posts were in many cases inadequately held and rarely were they linked with their supporting posts by adequate means of communication. We preserved between our administrative frontier and the Durand Line which demarcated our frontier with Afghanistan an irregular belt of land called 'The Independent Territory', in which neither was nor the Afghan Government exercised jurisdiction. This was left entirely under the control of the tribes who peopled it. Now it was often asked why we did not follow the precedent of Baluchistan and Sindhanesha the Independent Territory. That was one of the perennial topics of Frontier discussions. But stress was laid upon the essential differences between this zone and Baluchistan. Sir Robert Sandeman found a strong tribal system existing in Baluchistan and he was able to enter into direct engagements with the tribal Chiefs. There is no such tribal organisation in the Independent Territory. The tribal Chiefs or maliks, exercise a very precarious authority and the instrument for the collective expression of the tribal will is not the chief but the Jirga, or tribal council, of the most democratic character where the voice of the young men of the tribe often has the same influence, in time of excitement perhaps more influence, than the voice of the wiser greybeards. The bitter fruit of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897 when following a minor outbreak in the Tochi Valley the general uneasiness flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North West Frontier from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force owing to the immense difficulties of transportation was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through, in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. This area so separated was constituted into a separate administrative zone under the direct authority of the Government of India, exercised through a Chief Commissioner. Then Lord Curzon withdrew the advanced military posts and concentrated the Regular troops in bases better linked with the main

military centres of India by roads and railways. The advanced posts, and especially important Passes like the Tochi, the Kurram and the Khyber, were entrusted to the defence of local militia, recruited from the tribesmen themselves, and officered by British officers drawn from the ranks of the Indian Army. Later it was supplemented by a new development policy. The construction of the Upper Swat Canal afterwards developed into the Swat Canal (or Irrigation) led to such an increase in cultivation that the tribesmen were given a means of livelihood and were invested with the magic charm of valuable property. The irrigated part of the Frontier has since been one of the most peaceful in the whole border line.

Lord Curzon's Success.—Judged by every reasonable standard the Curzon policy was successful. It did not give us complete peace. There were occasional punitive expeditions demanded, such as for instance the Zaka Khel and Mohmand expeditions and the Waziris and in particular the truculent Mahsud Waziris never ceased raiding. But in comparison with what had gone before it gave relative peace. It endured throughout the Great War, though the Waziris built up a heavy bill of offences, which awaited settlement when Government were free from the immense preoccupations of the war. It broke down under the strain of the wanton invasion of India by the Afghans in the hot weather of 1919. On February 20th the Amir Habibullah Khan was assassinated in his sleep near Jelalabad. Although he does not figure so prominently in frontier history as his son father Abdurrahman Khan, he nevertheless has high claims on the favourable verdict of history. None anticipated that any successor to Abdurrahman Khan could hold in the leash of a single State the fractious, fanatical tribes who make up the population of the Afghan kingdom. Yet this Habibullah did. On occasions his attitude seemed to be equivocal, as when armed gatherings of the tribes called lashkars were permitted to assemble in Afghan territory and to invade the Independent Territory causing the Zaka Khel and Mohmand expeditions. But we must not judge a State like Afghanistan by European standards, the Amir had often to bow before the fanatical elements amongst his own people until they had burnt their fingers by contact with the British troops. At the outset of the Great War he warned the Government that he might often have to do things which seemed unfriendly, but they must trust him. In truth the position of the Amir when Turkey entered on the war, and called Moslems everywhere to arms on the side of Germany was extraordinarily difficult. He received Turkish, German and Austrian missions in Kabul from which British representatives were still excluded. But he kept Afghanistan out of the war, and with the complete defeat of the Central Powers and their satellites, his policy was justified up to the hilt. Indeed, his success was the cause of his assassination. The irreconcilable elements in the Kingdom saw that the day of reckoning had come and strove to avert the settlement of their account by the murder. When he was done to death, his brother, Nasrullah Khan, was proclaimed Amir by the assassins. But the conscience of Afghanistan revolted against the idea of Nasrullah, the arch-fanatic of the ruling House of Kabul, ascending

the throne over the blood-stained corpse of his brother. A military movement in Kabul itself brought him aside and installed the son of Habibullah, Amanullah Khan, on the throne. But Amanullah Khan soon found it was a thorny bed on which he lay, and encouraged by the disorders in India which followed the passing of stringent measures to deal with anarchical crime set his troops in motion on April 25 1919, and proclaiming a jihad promised his soldiers the traditional loot of Hindustan. The Indian Army was at once set in motion, and as has always been the case the regular Afghan Army was easily beaten. Dacca was seized, Jalalabad and Kabul were frequently bombed from the air, and there was nothing to prevent our occupation of Kabul save the knowledge gleaned from the bitter heritage of the wars of 1838 and 1878 that it is one thing to overact a government in Afghanistan but it is quite another to set up a stable government in its stead. The Government of India wisely held their hand and the Afghans having sued for peace a treaty was signed on the 8th August 1919.

But an untoward effect of this wanton war was to set the frontier from the Gomal to the Khyber ablaze. With one or two exceptions, the Tribal Militia could not stand the strain of an appeal from their fellow tribesmen, and either melted away or joined the rising. This has often been described as the failure of the Curzon policy, which was based on the tribal militia. But there is another aspect to this issue which was set out in a series of brilliant articles which Mr. Arthur Moore, its special correspondent, contributed to *The Times*. He pointed out that the militia was meant to be a military police force. The lapse of time, and forgetfulness of its real purpose, had overruled the militia into an imitation of the regular army. The militia was meant to be a police. When the war broke out the units were treated as a covering force behind which the Regular Army mobilised. This is a role which it was never intended they should serve, exposed to a strain which they should never have been called upon to bear they crumpled under it. If on the outward of trouble troops had promptly hurried to their support all might have been well. Left to look after themselves with no sign of support, they found themselves too weak to hold their positions and militarily their only course was to retire from the midst of their own kinsmen as the soul of revolt surged towards them. They would not take it.

Russia and the Frontier—The Curzon policy was up to the time of its collapse greatly assisted by extraneous events. The greatest external force in moulding Indian frontier policy was the long struggle with Russia. For nearly three quarters of a century a veiled warfare for predominance in Asia was waged between Great Britain and Russia. There are few pages in British foreign policy less attractive to the student of Imperial affairs. Russia was confronted in Central Asia with precisely the same conditions as those which faced England in India when the course of events converted the old East India Company from a trading corpora-

tion into a governing body. The decaying khanates of Central Asia were impossible neighbours. Confronted with an inferior civilisation, and with neighbours who would not let her alone, Russia had to advance. True, the adventurous spirits in her armies, and some of the great administrators in the Tsar's capital were not adverse to paying off on the Indian Borderland the score against Great Britain for the Crimean War, and for what the Russians thought was depriving them of the fruits of their costly victory over Turkey in 1877-78. The result was a long and unsatisfactory guerrilla enterprise between the hardiest spirits on both sides accompanied by periodic panics in the British Press each time the Russians moved forward which induced the ceding, after the Russian occupation of Merv, of the generic term 'Mervousness'. This external force involved the Government of India in the humiliations of the Afghan War of 1838, with the tragic destruction of the retiring Indian force between Kabul and Jalalabad, slightly relieved by the heroic defence of Jalalabad and the firmness of General Pollock in refusing to withdraw the punitive army until he had set his mark on Kabul by the razing of the famous Dula Bazar fortress. It involved us in the second Afghan War of 1878, which left the baffling problem of no stable government in Afghanistan. There was a gleam of light when Abdurrahman Khan whom we set up at Kabul to relieve us of our perplexities proved himself a strong and capable ruler, if one ruthless in his methods. But in the early eighties the two States were on the verge of war over a squabble for the possession of Fendeh and then men began to think a little more clearly. There began a series of boundary delimitations and agreements which clarified the situation without however finally settling it. The old controversy broke out in another form when intrigues with a Buddhist monk, Dorjief, during Lord Curzon's viceroyalty, gave rise to the grave suspicion that the scene had only shifted to Tibet. An expedition to Lhasa rent the veil which had so long concealed the mysterious city and dispersed the miasma of this intrigue. But it was not until the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 that the two countries arrived at a stage long sought by those who looked beyond their noses. The actual authors of the Agreement were Lord Grey, the Foreign Secretary and Lord Hardinge, formerly British Ambassador in Petrograd, but it had been desired by their predecessors, whose efforts were rendered nugatory by the intransigent attitude of the dominant forces in Petrograd. It was not until Russia was chastened on the battlefields of Manchuria by Japan and disappeared as a sea power in the decisive battle of Tsushima, that an atmosphere was created favourable to the conclusion of an Agreement. This embraced the whole frontier zone. There were many unsatisfactory features in the Agreement, especially in regard to Persia for which we had to pay a considerable price in the attitude of Persians in the War. But again taking long views, the Agreement fully justified itself in a broad definition of the interest of the two countries, which put an end to the period of excursions and alarms up to the outbreak of the War. Russia then ceased to be a material factor in

the Indian Frontier Problem With the establishment of the Soviet Oligarchy in Moscow uneasiness has returned for the geographical and allied circumstances which influenced the policy of the Tsarist regime exert precisely the same pressure upon its successor and the Soviet have a troublesome motive which the Tsars had not their aim to produce world revolution is avowed and Britain and the Constitutionalism for which she stands are the greatest obstacles in their path

German Influence—As nature abhors a vacuum so in the case of States bordered by higher civilisations no sooner does one strong influence recede than some other takes its place. Long before the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement the shadow of the German menace had begun to appear on the horizon imitative, not creative, in this as in most other activities, the Germans adapted their methods from the penetration by railway which was so marked a feature of Russian expansion in Manchuria, brought to an end by the disastrous issue of the war with Japan. The seeds of the German effort were sown when the Kaiser, extending the hand of Christian fellowship to the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul Hamid, at a time when that sovereign was ostracised by Europe for his direct complicity in the massacre of Armenians, or rather one of the massacres of Armenians, made German influence supreme at Constantinople. His theatrical tour through Palestine which was generally treated in Europe as an exhibition of opera bouffe, soon bore fruit in the acquisition by German interests of the principal railways in Anatolia. Later it fructified more effectively in the Baghdad Railway concession, under which German interests secured the right of extending the Anatolian line from the port of Haider Pasha, opposite Constantinople, to a port in the Persian Gulf. Now successive British Statesmen of both parties had declared that the acquisition of a territorial foot hold in the Persian Gulf by any power—Russia and the port of Bandar Abbas being then in view—would be regarded as an unfriendly act. There followed a replica of the period of alarms and excursions which had disfigured our relations with Russia. Undaunted, even when their endeavour to secure British co-operation in the enterprise failed and when the Revolution in Turkey which set the Committee of Union and Progress in power entailed a temporary interruption of their influence at Constantinople, the Germans pressed forward with their enterprise. They pushed the Anatolian railways as far east as Boursulu, and constructed a line northwards from Baghdad to Samarra. They sent a mission to explore the potentialities of the port of Koweit in the Persian Gulf, and set the Turks in motion to subordinate the Sheikh of Koweit to direct Turkish sovereignty, with a nominal view to extending the Baghdad railway from Basra to Koweit, or the vicinity of Koweit at the deep water inlet behind Bubian Island. They commenced the most difficult part of the work in piercing the Amanus and Taurus ranges by a series of tunnels, and laid the rails on the other side of the mountains across the Euphrates to Ras-al Ain. Behind this railway activity stood a grandiose policy, which is indicated in what became known in Germany as "B.B.B"—Berlin, Byzantium, Baghdad

Throughout the progress of these schemes, which did not stop short of Baghdad, but were directed through a port in the Persian Gulf at India, the Germans were anxious to secure the co-operation of Great Britain, if they could do so on their own terms, that is to say without affecting the enterprise as a dominant German adventure. Shortly before the commencement of the war the protracted negotiations with London which had this end in view ended in a definite agreement between the two Powers. Under this agreement the Gulf section of the line was to have been British and the other portion German. But this agreement which had not been signed became waste paper with the outbreak of the war and the German plans vanished in thin air with the complete defeat of Turkey and Germany. Nevertheless the railway did not stand still during the war. Germany made immense efforts to complete the difficult tunnel sections and the work was substantially finished when the Armistice was signed.

The Significance of the Baghdad Railway—The real significance of the Baghdad Railway was little appreciated in Great Britain. It was constantly pictured as a great trunk line, which would short circuit the traditional British dominance by sea and absorb the passenger and goods traffic from the East. This idea could only be nourished by those completely ignorant of the conditions of the Indian passenger service and the essentials of a competitive route for the carriage of merchandise. The rush of passenger traffic from India is from April to June in order to escape the hot weather in India and the return traffic is spread over the period of from October to January. From April to June the heat in Mesopotamia is appalling. To imagine that the passenger traffic from India would turn from the easy and comfortable as well as fairly expeditious sea route from Bombay to Marseilles and thence by the easiest railway travelling outside the British Isles to Calais and London for such a land route was an amazing chimera. The Baghdad route would have involved a sea voyage from Bombay or Karachi to Koweit or Basra then a journey across the burning plains of Mesopotamia and Asia Minor to Haider Pasha, then across the Straits to Constantinople and finally right across Europe to a North Sea port. This would in any circumstances have been a costly freak journey in comparison with the sea route. Then as for the commercial aspect of the line, the natural port of the Middle East is Basra. The sea freight from England or Germany to Basra, is about one pound sterling a ton before the war it was often down to fifteen shillings. The freight from Basra to Baghdad was from thirty shillings to two pounds a ton. To imagine again that merchandise would desert this route for a land and sea route which would have involved a double break of bulk at Constantinople and Haider Pasha, is again a chimera. The freight charges could not have been less than fifteen to twenty pounds a ton.

As a through route the primary purpose of the Baghdad Railway was strategic. It was designed to make the Power seated at Constantinople—and that Power the Germans—were resolved should be Germany—complete master of Asia Minor and The Middle East and the route selected, often criticised, was the best for the rapid

movement of troops to the strategic centres. As a commercial line, the Railway, if completed, would have served three zones. The western area of Turkey in Asia at Haider Pasha. The rich lands of Anatolia at Alexandria. The eastern zone at Basra. The Germans, it is understood, attached immense importance to the subsequent engagements with Turkey which placed them in maritime command at Alexandria. They began to inaugurate a commercial position in the Persian Gulf through the establishment of a subsidised line of steamers run by the great Hamburg America corporation. They strove to obtain an actual footing in the Gulf through the German house of Woukhaus. We doubt if the Germans were ever serious in their alleged designs on Koweit, which could never have borne a more definite relation to the commerce of the Gulf than Flushing to Antwerp or Cuxhaven to Hamburg, that was one of the red herrings they drew across their trail to divert attention from their real objective Basra which is destined by virtue of an unchallengeable geographical and natural position to be the great port of The Middle East. These considerations have no more than an academic value now. Germany was defeated. The Turks when they emerged from an isolated military Isolationism based on Angora, were confronted with the immense problem of rebuilding their bankrupt State. deprived of the most intelligent section of the old population—the Greeks and the Armenians by massacre and expulsion—were a very different factor. The completion of the through line was indefinitely postponed. But as the advantages of the route, for the purposes we have indicated are many and great, the ultimate construction of the through line is only a matter of time so we have placed these authoritative characteristics on record for the guidance of opinion when the project of the through route is revived, as it must be.

Turkey and the Frontier—The position of Turkey on the Indian frontier was never of any considerable importance in itself, and never assumed any significance, save as the *crucial* *courier* of Germany when she passed under the tutelage of that Power and for a limited period during the war. Although so long established in Mesopotamia, Turkey was not very firmly seated in that country, the Arabs tolerated rather than accepted Turkish rule so long as they were substantially left alone and the administration, it is understood, never paid its way. For a brief period Midhat Pasha raised the status of Mesopotamia, and after the Revolution that fine soldier Nasim Pasha became a power in the land. But speaking broadly Turkey remained in Mesopotamia because it was no-one's interest, even that of the Arab, to turn her out. When however Germany developed her 'B B B' policy, Turkey was used as a stalking horse. She moved a small force to the Peninsula of Al Kadr in order to frighten the Sheikh of Bahrain, and tried to convert the nominal suzerainty exercised, or rather claimed, over the Sheikh of Koweit into a *de facto* suzerainty, exercised by military force. These efforts faded before the vigorous action of the British Government which concluded a binding arrangement with the Sheikh of

Koweit, and the position of the Turks at Al Kadr was always very precarious. On the outbreak of the war however the situation profoundly changed. When the sound and carefully executed expedition to Basra and its strategic hinterland was developed into the insane enterprise to capture Baghdad by *coup de main*, with very inadequate forces, and still more inadequate transport we found ourselves involved in military operations of the most extensive and unprofitable character. These were completely successful with General Maude's occupation of Baghdad. After the Russian *debacle* we found ourselves involved in a new front, which stretched from the Euphrates to the wildest part of Central Asia, producing military exploits of an almost epic character but exercising little influence on the war. They were brought to an end by pressure not on extensive wings, but at the heart of Turkish Power in Palestine, where Lord Allenby scattered the Turks like chaff. But the aftermath of the war left us in an indefinite position in Mesopotamia with indefinite frontiers. This enabled the Turks, if they were so disposed to be troublesome through guerilla warfare in the Mosul zone, and by stirring up the Kurds who are the Ishmaelites of Asia Minor. The conclusion of the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923 brought temporary relief, but it did not settle the main issue, the frontier between Turkey and Iraq. Under the Treaty it was provided that if the two parties could not agree to a boundary line delimitation should be left to The League of Nations. Negotiations were promptly opened at Constantinople but it was immediately found that there could be no mutual agreement. The Turks demanded the whole of the Mosul vilayet, and the British delegates declared that Mosul and its hinterland were necessary to the existence of Iraq. The issue therefore went to the League of Nations. That body despatched a neutral commission to study the position on the spot. This commission reported that the best settlement would be for the Mosul vilayet to be incorporated in Iraq, if the British Government were prepared to prolong its mandate over that State for a period of twenty five years. When the report of this commission came before the League in 1925 Britain gave the necessary guarantee and the Council of the League unanimously allotted the Mosul vilayet to Iraq. The Turkish delegates, who at first recognised the decisive authority of the League then declared that they would not be bound by its decisions. So the matter rested at the end of the year, with Iraq in occupation of the disputed up to the temporary frontier, which is known as The Brussels Line. After at first breathing nothing but armed resistance to acceptance of the award the Turks afterwards assumed a more conciliatory note and alarmed, it may be, by the threat of Italian aggression accepted the frontier line demarcated by the League.

France and the Frontier—If we touch for a few sentences on the position of France on the frontier of India, it is not because they have any present day significance, but in order to complete this brief survey of the waxing and waning of external influences on Indian frontier policy. It is difficult to find any sound policy behind the efforts of France to obtain a coaling station at Maskat, in the Persian Gulf, and her

long opposition to the steps necessary to extinguish the slave trade and hold in check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping all the tribesmen on our North West Frontier with rifles of precision and a large supply of ammunition. We can find no more definite purpose in it than a general pin-pricking policy, a desire to play the part of *Buena*, and perhaps a source of annoyance to Great Britain, which would form a useful lever for the extraction of considerable concessions in West Africa, particularly in the neighbourhood of Gambia, as the price of abatement. These embarrassments were slowly removed one by one after the conclusion of the Anglo-French Entente. Far otherwise was it in the East. The consolidation of French authority in French Indo-China was the prelude to designs for the expansion of this authority at the expense of Siam and to find compensation there for the reduced British protectorate of Egypt. There had earlier been mutterings in Burma. We were established in Lower Burma in the thirties and in the eighties the foolish and tyrannical King Theebaw in Upper Burma became an impossible neighbour and ambitious Frenchmen were not averse to fanning his opposition to the British. However, if any hopes were entertained of extending the Asiatic possessions of France in this direction they were dissipated by the Second Burmese War and the firm establishment of British rule. Far otherwise was it on the confines of Siam. It was the fixed purpose of British policy to preserve Siam as a buffer state between Burma then a regular Province of the Indian Empire and French Indo-China. This policy was definitely challenged by French encroachments on Siam. Matters approached a crisis in 1894, and we were within measurable distance of a situation which might have ended in open war between the two States. But as in the case of Persia and later when Major Marchand marched across Africa to Fashoda, the influence of goodwill made statesmen on both sides ask themselves what they might be going to fight about. They found there was nothing essential and an agreement was negotiated between the two Powers, which secured the independence and integrity of Siam. That agreement has been consolidated by wise and progressive rule in Siam itself under its own independent sovereign, who is imbued with a strong friendship for Great Britain whilst at the same time maintaining good relations with French neighbours.

The New Frontier Problem.—The whole purpose of this brief sketch has been to show that for three generations—most assuredly since the events leading to the Afghan War of 1839—the Indian frontier problem has never been a local problem. It has been dominated by external influences—in the main the long struggle between Great Britain and Russia, for a brief period the German ambition to build up a dominant position in the East through the revival of the land route and to a much lesser extent by the ambitions of France and Turkey. The circumstances affecting the Frontier from centre beyond it have greatly changed. Old dangers have disappeared. And generally, conditions have become more like those normal to critical land frontiers anywhere in the world in this present time of swift

communications, serial operations and easy propaganda. Consequently a great deal of new attention is necessarily being directed to local aspects of the general problem. The tribesman was always an opponent to be respected. Brave, hardy, fanatical, he has always been a first class fighting man. Knowing every inch of the inhospitable country to which punitive operations must of necessity take place, he has hung on our rearwards and given them an infinite of trouble. Even when armed with a fowl and when every cartridge had to be husbanded with jealous care the tribesman was a respectable antagonist. Now the tribesman are everywhere armed with magazine rifles, either imported through the Persian Gulf when gunrunning was a thriving occupation stolen from British magazines or secured from Russian and Afghan sources. They have an abundant supply of ammunition. Considerable numbers of the fighting men have been trained in the ranks of the Indian, my either as Regulars in the Pathan regiments or else in the tribal militias. We found this to our cost in the events following the Afghan War of 1919. The Afghan regular army was of little account. The tribesmen who rose at the call of the Jihad, especially in Waziristan, were of great account. They gave our troops the hardest fighting they have ever had on the Frontier, their marksmanship and fire discipline were described by experienced soldiers as admirable. The tribal militia the keystone of the Curzon system, had for all practical purposes disappeared, what was to take its place?

Immediately following the Afghan War, the frontier positions were garrisoned by regular troops, but this was only a temporary measure. It may be said that the crux of the situation was in Waziristan. This sector of the Frontier has always been the most difficult of the whole, because of the intractable character of the people, and of their inveterate raiding activities. Besides possessing a bolt hole into Afghanistan they had in the past evaded effective punishment. In view of the complete disappearance of the external menace and the consequent lapsing of any necessity to preserve open lines of communication which would enable us to go to the support of Afghanistan, now formally recognised in the Treaty of 1921 as a completely independent State, there were many who urged the desirability of complete withdrawal, even to the line of the Indus. This extreme school gained little support. Our position in Quetta on the one side and Peshawar on the other is fully consolidated and no good case could be made out for withdrawing from it. On the other hand, there was a strong case made out for leaving the tribesmen severely alone from the Gomal to the Kurram, and dealing with them if they emerged from their fastnesses. The military standpoint was that the Waziris are absolutely intractable, that it was unfair to impose on troops the frequent necessity of punitive operations in most arduous conditions and that the only solution of the question was the occupation of dominant points in Waziristan, as far north as Laddha, and linking these posts with our military bases and particularly with the termini of the Indian frontier railways, by good motor roads.

This controversy lasted long. It has resulted in a typically British compromise which specially arose from the changed conditions in which we found ourselves in 1922 when our troops were in occupation of Waziristan as a result of the operations forced upon us for the suppression of the tribal outbreak which the Afghans stirred up in support of their invasion of India in 1919. The present policy has been aptly described as the half forward policy. There has been no withdrawal in the ordinary sense of the term, but the limit of the North Waziristan occupation has been fixed at Hamrak not at Ladlha. A network of consoling roads has been pushed forward. Its

elaboration continues. In South Waziristan Wana has been re-occupied, partly in response to a pressing invitation from the Wana Wazirs because they wanted to share the benefits which they saw British occupation to be bringing to their cousins northward of them. The work of control and of civilisation is rapidly progressing in the whole territory. But of this particulars are given on 272 and following pages.

The main Indian rail head, which for many years terminated at Jamrud at the easterly entrance to the Khyber Pass, was in the autumn of 1925 extended to Landi at the opposite end of the Pass and within a mile of the frontier between India and Afghanistan.

I—THE PERSIAN GULF.

From what has gone before it will be seen that the keynote of this discussion of Indian frontier policy is that the external menace has largely disappeared. No part of the frontier is more powerfully influenced by this consideration than the Persian Gulf. Our first appearance in the Gulf was in connection with the long struggle for supremacy with the Portuguese, the French and the Dutch who had established trading stations there. With the capture and destruction of the great entrepot which the Portuguese had established at Ormuz, the supercession of the land by the sea route and the appearance of anarchy in the interior the importance of the Gulf declined. The Indian Government remained there primarily to preserve the peace. This work it quietly and efficiently performed. Piracy was stamped out, the Trucial Chiefs who occupy the Pirate Coast were gradually brought into close relations with the Government, the vessels of the Royal Navy kept watch and ward, and our consuls regulated the external affairs of the Arab rulers on the Arab coast. In return for these services Great Britain claimed no selfish advantages. The waters of the Gulf were kept free to the navigation of the ships of all nations, and though Great Britain could have made any territorial acquisitions she pleased she retained possession of only the tiny station of Basidu. Left to herself Great Britain desired no other policy, but for a quarter of a century the Gulf was involved in European affairs. France sought to acquire a coaling station at Jass, near Maskat, and obstructed the efforts of the British Government to stamp out the slave trade and to check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping the tribes on our land frontier with weapons of precision and quantities of ammunition. All causes of difference were gradually removed by agreements following the Anglo-French Entente. Russia sent "one of her finest cruisers to show the flag" in the Gulf, and established consular posts where there were no interests of protection. She was credited with the intention of occupying a warm water port, and in particular with casting nervous eyes on the most dreadful spot in the Gulf, Bandar Abbas. This menace declined

after the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement and disappeared with the collapse of Russian power following the Revolution. Then Turkey, either acting for herself, or as the *agent courier* of Germany under whose domination she had passed began to stir. She threatened the Shakh of Bahrain by the armed occupation of the peninsula of Al Kahr and moved troops to enforce her suzerainty over Kuwait, the best port in the Persian Gulf and a possible terminus of the Baghdad Railway. Further to consolidate her interests, or to stake out a claim, Germany sent the heavily subsidised ships of the Hamburg-America line to the Gulf, where they comported themselves as the instruments of Imperial policy rather than as inoffensive merchantmen. She also strove, through the agency of the firm of Winkhaus, to acquire a territorial footing on the island of Sharjah. These events stirred the British Government to an unusual activity in the waters of the Gulf.

Counter Measures

The first effective steps to counter these influences were taken during the vigorous vice-royalty of Lord Curzon, who visited the Gulf during his early travels and incorporated a masterly survey of its features in his monumental work on Persia. He appointed the ablest men he could find to the head of affairs, established several new consulates, and was instrumental in improving the sea communications with the Gulf ports. The British Government also took alarm. They were fortified in their stand against foreign intrigue by the opinion of a writer of unchallenged authority. The American Naval writer, the late Admiral Mahan, placed on record his view that Concession in the Persian Gulf, whether by formal arrangement (with other Powers) or by neglect of the local commercial interests which now underlie political and military control will imperil Great Britain's naval position in the Farther East, her political position in India, her commercial interests in both, and the Imperial tie between herself and Australasia. The Imperial standpoint, endorsed by both Parties in the State, was set out by Lord Lansdowne in

words of great import—“We (i.e., His Majesty's Government) should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, which we should certainly resist with all the means at our disposal. The negative measures following these declarations were followed by a constructive policy when the oil fields in the Bakhtiari country, with a great refinery, were developed by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company in which the British Government has a large financial stake. But with the disappearance of these external forces on Gulf policy as set out in the introduction to this section, the politics of the Persian Gulf recoded in importance until they are now more than they were before these external influences developed, a local question, mainly a question of police. They are therefore set out more briefly and those who desire a complete narrative are referred to the Indian Year Book for 1928, pp. 178-138.

Maskat

Maskat, which is reached in about forty eight hours from Karachi, is outside the Persian Gulf proper. It lies three hundred miles south of Cape Musandim which is the real entrance to the Gulf, but its natural strength and his torical prestige combine to make it inseparable from the politics of the Gulf, with which it has always been intimately associated.

Formerly Maskat was part of a domain which embraced Zanzibar, and the islands of Kish and Larak, with Bander Abbas on the Persian shore. Zanzibar was separated from it by agreement, and the Persians succeeded in establishing their authority over the possessions on the eastern shore.

The relations between Britain and Maskat have been intimate for a century and more. It was under British auspices that the separation between Zanzibar and Maskat was effected, the Sheikh accepted a British subsidy in return for the suppression of the slave trade and in 1892 sealed his dependence upon us by concluding a treaty pledging himself not to cede any part of his territory without our consent.

The Pirate Coast.

Turning Cape Musandim and entering the Gulf Proper, we pass the Pirate Coast controlled by the six Trucial Chiefs. The ill name of this territory has now ceased to have any meaning but in the early days it had a very real relation to the actual conditions. The pirates were the boldest of their kind, and they did not hesitate to attack on occasion, and not always without success, the Company's ships of war. Large expeditions were fitted out to break their power, with such success that since 1820 no considerable punitive measures have been necessary. The Trucial Chiefs are bound to Great Britain by a series of engagements, beginning with 1806 and ending with the perpetual treaty of 1853 by which they bound themselves to avoid all hostilities at sea, and the subsequent treaty of 1873 by which they undertook to prohibit altogether the traffic in slaves. The relations

of the Trucial Chiefs are controlled by the British Resident at Bushire, who visits the Pirate Coast every year on a tour of inspection.

The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing through the rise of Debal. Formerly Lingah was the entrepot for this trade, but the exactions of the Belgian Customs officials in the employ of Persia drove this traffic from Lingah to Debal. The Trucial Chiefs are—Debal, Abu Thabeeb, Shargah, Ajman, Um-al-Gawain and Ras-el-Khaysma.

Bahrain.

North of the Pirate Coast lies the little Archipelago which forms the chiefship of the Sheikh of Bahrain. Of this group of islands only those of Bahrain and Maharak are of any size, but their importance is out of all proportion to their extent. This is the great centre of the Gulf pearl fishery which, in a good year, may be worth half a million pounds sterling. The anchorage is wretched, and at certain states of the tide ships have to lie four miles from the shore, which is not even approachable by boats, and passengers, mails and cargo have to be landed on the donkeys for which Bahrain is famous. But this notwithstanding the trade of the port is valued at over a million and a quarter sterling, and the customs revenue, which amounts to some eighty thousand pounds makes the Sheikh the richest ruler in the Gulf.

In the neighbourhood of Bahrain is the vast burying ground which has hitherto baffled archaeologists. The generally accepted theory is that it is a relic of the Phoenicians, who are known to have traded in these waters.

Political Agent Captain C G Prior

Koweit

In the north west corner of the Gulf lies the port which has made more stir than any place of similar size in the world. The importance of Koweit lies solely in the fact that it is a possible Gulf terminus of the Baghdad Railway. This is no new discovery, for when the Euphrates Valley Railway was under discussion, General Chenevix selected it under the alternative name of the Grane—so called from the resemblance of the formation of the Bay to a pair of horns—at the sea terminus of the line. Nowhere else would Koweit be called a good or a promising port. The Bay is 20 miles deep and 5 miles broad, but so shallow that heavy expense would have to be incurred to render it suitable for modern ocean going steamers. It is sheltered from all but the westerly winds, and the clean thriving town is peopled by some 20,000 inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the sea for the mariners of Koweit are noted for their boldness and hardihood.

Political Agent Lt-Col H R P Dixon, CIE

Muhammarah.

On the opposite side of the entrance to the Shatt-el Arab lie the territories of Sheikh Khazal of Muhammarah. The town, favourably situated near the mouth of the Karun River, has grown in importance since the opening of the Karun River route to trade through the enterprise of Memar, Lynch

Brothers. This route provides the shortest passage to Isfahan and the central tableland, and already competes with the older route by way of Bushire and Shiraz. This importance has grown since the Anglo-Persian Oil Company established refineries at Muhammarah for the oil which they win in the rich fields which they have tapped near Ahwas. Its importance will be still further accentuated by the opening of the railway to Khorramabad by way of Dizful which is now under construction.

Vice Consul at Ahwas Mr H. R. D. Gibbon—
Monyenny

Basra

In a sense Basra and Turkish Arabistan can hardly be said to come within the scope of the frontiers of India, yet they are so indissolubly associated with the politics of the Gulf that they must be considered in relation thereto. Basra is the present sea terminus of the Baghdad Railway. It stands on the Shatt-el Arab, sixty miles from its mouth, favourably situated to receive the whole waterborne trade of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The local traffic is valuable for the richness of the date groves on either side of the Shatt-el Arab is indescribable, there is a considerable entrepot traffic, whilst Basra is the port of entry for Baghdad and for the trade with Persia, which follows the caravan route via Kerman shah and Hamadan.

The political destinies of Basra are at present wrapped up with the destinies of the new Arab State which we have set up in Mesopotamia under King Faisal. When the war was over we found ourselves committed to immense, undefined and burdensome responsibilities in that land. The sound concepts which dictated the original expedition were dislocated in the foolish advance to Baghdad, then the great military enterprises necessitated by the fall of Kut-al Amara carried our frontier north to Mosul and the mountains of Kurdistan, east to the Persian boundary and west to the confines of Trans-Jordan. Amongst ardent Imperialists there was undoubtedly the hope that this immense area would be in one way or another an integral part of the British Empire. The cold fit followed when the cost was measured, and the Arabs rose in a revolt which showed that any such domination could only be maintained by force of arms and that the cost would be prodigious. Under these circumstances King Faisal was imported from the Hedjaz and installed on the throne under the aegis of Great Britain. Still we were committed to the support of the new kingdom, and that most dangerous condition arose—responsibility without any real power unless King Faisal was to be a mere puppet. Immense expenditure and indefinite military commitments. In these circumstances there was an insistent demand for withdrawal from the land. British policy moved slowly towards that end, but a definite step was taken in 1923. The Secretary of State for the Colonies announced this policy in a statement which is reproduced textually for the purpose of reference. Addressing the House of Lords on May 3rd he said—

Your Lordships will remember that the Cabinet have been discussing this matter for some time and decisions have now been taken

Sir Percy Cox has accordingly been authorized by His Majesty's Government to make an announcement at Baghdad the terms of which I propose to read out to Your Lordships. This announcement was drawn up in consultation with King Faisal and his Government, and has their cordial assent. It is being published at Baghdad to-day.

The announcement is as follows—

It will be remembered that in the autumn of last year, after a lengthy exchange of views, it was decided between the Governments of His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty King Faisal that a Treaty of Alliance should be entered into between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. This Treaty which was signed on the 10th October, 1922, and the term of which was to be twenty years (subject to periodical revision at the desire of either party) provided for the establishment of an independent Constitutional Government in Iraq enjoying a certain measure of advice and assistance from Great Britain of the nature and extent indicated in the text of the Treaty itself and of subsidiary Agreements which were to be made thereunder.

Since then the Iraq Government has made great strides along the path of independent, and stable existence and has been able successfully to assume administrative responsibility, and both parties being equally anxious that the commitments and responsibilities of His Majesty's Government in respect of Iraq should be terminated as soon as possible, it is considered that the period of the Treaty in its present form can conveniently be shortened. In order to obviate the inconvenience of introducing amendments into the body of a Treaty already signed it has been decided to bring about the necessary modifications by means of a protocol which like the Treaty itself, will be subject to ratification by the Constituent Assembly.

Accordingly a protocol has now been signed by the parties in the following terms—

It is understood between the High Contracting Parties that, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 18 the present Treaty is to terminate upon Iraq becoming member of the League of Nations and in any case not later than four years from the ratification of peace with Turkey. Nothing in this protocol shall prevent a fresh agreement from being concluded with a view to regulate the subsequent relations between the High Contracting Parties, and negotiations for that object shall be entered into between them before the expiration of the above period.

It will be noticed that under this protocol the Treaty in its present form is to terminate on the entry of Iraq into the League of Nations or in four years, whichever may be earlier.

The position of Iraq as regards the League is that when the Treaty has been ratified His Britannic Majesty will be bound under Article 6 to use his good offices to secure the admission of Iraq to membership of the League of Nations as soon as possible. His Majesty's Government will be in a position to take this step on the fulfilment of the two following essential conditions, namely, the delimitation of the frontiers of Iraq, and the establishment of a stable government in accordance with the Organic Law

Under the Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and the Powers which was signed in 1923, it was agreed that the frontier between King Faisal's State and Turkey, the important frontier because the future of Mosul was in dispute should be settled by the League of Nations, should Great Britain and Turkey be unable to come to agreement by direct negotiation. These direct negotiations were opened at Constantinople, but no agreement was reached so the question was opened before the Council of the League in September 1924. Whilst the matter was under discussion complaint was made by Great Britain that Turkey had violated the provisional frontier drawn in the Treaty of Lausanne and certain irregular hostilities were carried on in the disputed zone. This matter too was remitted to the League and a further provisional boundary was drawn, which was accepted by both parties.

Here the matter remained until the autumn of 1925. In order to secure the material for a decision the League of Nations despatched a neutral commission to Mosul to investigate the situation. This commission produced a long and involved report, but one which led by devious paths to a common sense recommendation. It was that the first essential in the Mosul vilayet is stable government. The desires of the people were for incorporation in the State of Iraq. If therefore the British Government was willing to extend its mandate over Iraq for a further period of twenty-five years—a guarantee of stable government—then Mosul should be incorporated in Iraq. If Britain was not willing then Mosul should return to Turkey. When the matter came before the Council of the League Great Britain gave the necessary guarantee. The Turks thereupon challenged the whole competence of the Council to give an award under the terms of the Treaty of Lausanne. The issue was remitted to the Court of International Justice at The Hague which decided in favour of the competence of the Council. About this time there was published the report of a distinguished Ethiopian General, General Leindoner, who had been despatched by the League to investigate allegations of brutality by the Turks in deporting Christians from their own zone, and this report was of the most damning character. Great Britain having given the necessary assurance that she was prepared to extend her mandate over Iraq for a further twenty-five years, thereupon the Council of the League allocated the whole of the area in dispute, right up to the temporary frontier—commonly called The Brussels Line—to Iraq. The Turks refused to accept the award and withdrew from Geneva threatening force. Later wiser counsels and in 1926 Turkey accepted a frontier substantially as drawn by the League. A formal treaty was concluded between Great Britain and Iraq extending the mandate for a further twenty-five years. The British Government express the hope that a shorter period will be sufficient to see Iraq on its feet as an independent and stable State, and the present policy of H. M. Government is to establish this independence at the earliest possible date.

A New Treaty.—A new Treaty regulating the relations of Iraq with Great Britain, the Man-

datory Power was negotiated in 1927 and signed towards the end of the year. The full text is not available but a semi official announcement on December 24th may be regarded as substantially authentic.

The Treaty declares that there shall be peace and friendship between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. It states that Provided the present rate of progress in Iraq is maintained and all goes well in the interval, His Britannic Majesty will support the candidature of Iraq for admission to the League of Nations in 1932. It stipulates that separate agreements superseding those of March 25 1924, shall regulate the financial and military relations.

The King of Iraq undertakes to secure the execution of all international obligations which His Britannic Majesty has undertaken to see carried out in respect of Iraq. He also undertakes not to modify the existing provisions of Iraqi organic law so as adversely to affect the rights and interests of foreigners, and to constitute any difference in the rights before the law among Iraqis on the grounds of differences of race religion or language.

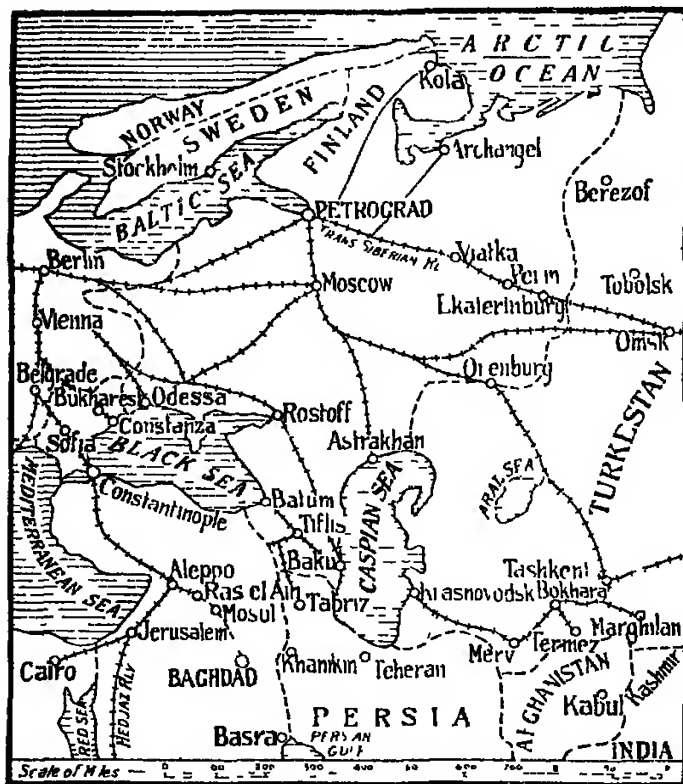
There shall be full and frank consultation between the high contracting parties in all matters of foreign policy which may affect their common interests. The King of Iraq undertakes, so soon as local conditions permit, to accede to all general international agreements already existing, or which may be concluded hereafter, with the approval of the League of Nations in respect of the slave trade, the traffic in drugs, arms and munitions, the traffic in women and children, transit, navigation, aviation, and communications, and also to execute the provisions of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Treaty of Lausanne, the Anglo-French Boundary Convention, and the San Remo Oil Agreement in so far as they apply to Iraq.

There shall be no discrimination in matters concerning taxation commerce, or navigation against nationals or companies of any State which is a member of the League of Nations, or of any State to which the King of Iraq has agreed by Treaty that the same rights should be ensured as if it were a member of the League.

Any difference that may arise between the high contracting parties shall be referred to the Permanent Court of International Justice provided for by Article Fourteen of the Covenant of the League. The Treaty shall be subjected to revision with the object of making all the modifications required by the circumstances when Iraq enters the League of Nations.

It is important to remember that there is a considerable difference between the vilayet of Bagra and the other portions of King Faisal's State. Bagra has for long been in the closest commercial contact with India, and in many respects a commercial appendage of Bombay. Its people have not much in common with those of the North. They took no part in the Arab rising which followed the war, and they ask nothing better than to remain in close touch with India and through India with the British Government, if we are correct in the

Railway Position in the Middle East.



supposition that Basra is destined to be the great port of the Middle East, then its future under an Arab State, with no experience of administration in such conditions is one of the greatest interest which can hardly be regarded as settled by the policy underlying the declaration which is set out above.

The Persian Shore

The Persian shore presents fewer points of permanent interest. The importance of Bushire is administrative rather than commercial. It is the headquarters of Persian authority, the residence of the British Resident, and the centre of many foreign consuls. It is also the main entrepot for the trade of Shiraz, and competes for that of Lohann. But the anchorage is wretched and dangerous, the road to Shiraz passes over the notorious kists which preclude the idea of rail connection, and if ever a railway to the central tableland is opened the commercial value of Bushire will dwindle to insignificance. Further south lies Lingah, reputed to be the prettiest port on the Persian coast, but its trade is being diverted to Debel on the Firsat Coast. In the narrow channel which forms the entrance to the Gulf from the Arabian Sea is Bunder Abbas. Here we are at the very of the Gulf. Bunder Abbas is of some importance as the outlet for the trade of Kerman

and Yezd. It is of still more importance as a possible naval base. To the west of the town between the Island of Kishm and the mainland, lie the Clarence Straits which narrow until they are less than three miles in width, and yet contain abundance of water. Here, according to sound naval opinion, there is the possibility of creating a naval base which would command the Gulf. The great obstacle is the climate, which is one of the worst in the world. On the opposite shore under the shadow of Cape Musandim, lies another sheltered deep-water anchorage, Bikhmstone's Inlet, where the climate conditions are equally vile. But between these two points there is the possibility of controlling the Gulf just as Gibraltar controls the Mediterranean. For many years Bunder Abbas loomed large in public discussions as the possible warm water port for which Russia was seeking. On the Makran coast there is the cable station of Jask, and the possible port of Chahbar.

Political Resident in the Persian Gulf—The Hon. Lt.-Col. Hugh Vincent Dileco

Residency Surgeon at Bushire—Maj. H. J. H. Symonds, M.C.

Vice Consul at Bunder Abbas and Assistant to the Resident—G. A. Richardson, O.B.E.

II—SEISTAN

The concentration of public attention on the Persian Gulf was allowed to obscure the frontier importance of Seistan. Yet it was for many years a serious preoccupation with the Government of India. Seistan lies midway north and south between the point where the frontiers of Russia, Persia and Afghanistan meet at Zulfikar, and that where the frontiers of Persia and of our Indian Empire meet on the open sea at Gwattar. It marches on its eastern border with Afghanistan and with Baluchistan, it commands the valley of the Helmand, and with it the road from Herat to Kandahar, and its immense resources as a wheat-producing region have been only partly developed under Persian misrule. It offers to an aggressive rival, an admirable strategic base for future military operations, it is also midway athwart the track of the shortest line which could be built to connect the Trans-Caspian Railway with the Indian Ocean, and if and when the line from Ashkabad to Meshed were built, the temptation to extend it through Seistan would be strong. Whilst the gaze of the British was concentrated on the North West Frontier, and to possible lines of advance through Kandahar to Quetta, and through Kabul to Peshawar, there can be little doubt that Russian attention was directed to a more leisurely movement through Seistan, if the day came when she moved her armies against India.

Whether with this purpose or not, Russian

intrigue was particularly active in Seistan in the early years of the century. Having Russianised Khorassan her agents moved into Seistan and through the agency of the Belgian Customs officials, scientific missions and an irritating plague cordon, sought to establish influence and to stifle the British trade which was gradually being built up by way of Nushki. These efforts died down before the presence of the McMahon mission, which in pursuance of Treaty rights, was demarcating the boundary between Persia and Afghanistan, with special reference to the distribution of the waters of the Helmand. They finally ceased with the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement. Since then the international importance of Seistan has waned.

The natural conditions which give to Seistan this strategic importance persist. Meantime British influence is being consolidated through the Seistan trade route. The distance from Quetta to the Seistan border at Killa Robot is 465 miles, most of it dead level, and it has now been provided with fortified posts, dak bungalows, wells, and all facilities for caravan traffic. The railway was pushed out from Spersand, on the Bolan Railway to Nushki, so as to provide a better starting point for the caravans than Quetta. This line was extended to the Persian Frontier, during the war as a military measure, but the traffic supports only two trains a week.



III—PERSIA.

From causes which only need to be very briefly set out, the Persian question as affecting Indian frontier policy has receded until it is of no account. Reference is made in the introduction to this section to the fact that the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement left us a bitter legacy in Persia. That Agreement divided Persia into two zones of influence, and the Persians bitterly resented this apparent division of their kingdom between the two Powers, though no such end was in view. German agents working cleverly on this feeling, established an influence which was not suspected, and when the war broke out they were able to raise the tribes in opposition to Great Britain in the South, and after the fall of Kut-al Amara when a Turkish Division penetrated Western Persia they exercised a strong influence in Teheran. With the defeat of Turkey and the Central Powers this influence disappeared but at that time there was no authority in Persia besides that of the British Government, which had strong forces in the North West and controlled the southern provinces through a force organised under British officers and called The South Persian Rifles. It was one of the first tasks of the British Government to regularise this position, and for this purpose an agreement was reached with the then Persian Government, the main features of which were—

To respect Persian integrity

To supply experts for Persian administration

To supply officers and equipment for a Persian force for the maintenance of order

To provide a loan for these purposes

To co-operate with the Persian Government in railway construction and other forms of transport.

Both Governments agreed to the appointment of a joint committee to examine and revise the Customs tariff

The second agreement defined the terms and conditions on which the loan was to be made to Persia. The loan was for £2,000,000 at 7 per cent. redeemable in 20 years. It was secured on the revenues and Customs' receipts assigned for the repayment of the 1911 loan and should these be insufficient the Persian Government was to make good the necessary sums from other sources.

The Present Position.—We have given the main points in the Anglo-Persian agreement, because few documents have been more misunderstood. Those who desire to study it in greater detail will find it set out in the Indian Year Book for 1921, page 138 *et seq*. It has been explained that most Persians construed it into a guarantee of protection against all external enemies. When the British troops in the north-west retired before the Bolsheviks,

the Persians had no use for the Agreement and it soon became a dead instrument. It was finally rejected and the advisers who were to have assisted Persia under it withdrew.

A remark frequently heard amongst soldiers and politicians in India after the War was that Great Britain must take an active hand in Persia because she could not be a passive witness to chaos in that country. The view always taken in the Indian Year Book was that the internal affairs of Persia were her own concern, if she preferred chaos to order that was her own look out, but left alone she would hammer out some form of Government. That position has been justified. The Sirdar Sipah or commander in chief, a rough but energetic soldier, gradually took charge of Persian affairs and established a thinly veiled military dictatorship which made the Government feared and respected throughout the country for the first time since the assassination of Shah Nasr-ed din. A body of capable Americans under Dr. Millspaugh restored order to the chaotic finances. These two forces operating in unison gave Persia the best government she had known for a generation. But the Sirdar Sipah chafed under the irregularities of his position, with a Shah spending his time in Europe and wasting the resources of the country. He moved to have his position regularised by the deposition of the absentee Shah and his own ascent of the throne. At first he was defeated by the opposition of the Mollahs, but in 1925 prevailed, when the Shah was formally deposed and the Sirdar Sipah chosen monarch in his place. The change was made without disturbance and Persia entered on a period of peace and consolidation which has removed it from the disturbing forces in the post-war world. Since then considerable progress has been made with the reform of the administration, and many projects are afoot for the improvement of communications, which is the greatest need of the land, such as an air service to Teheran and railway construction. The least reassuring episode was the departure of the American financial mission, which had done admirable work in the restoration of the finances. When their contract expired Dr. Millspaugh and his colleagues were offered a renewal of it on terms which they did not regard as satisfactory, especially in regard to the powers they were to exercise. They therefore withdrew from the country and have been replaced by other foreign advisers.

Sir Percy Lorraine assumed office as British Minister at Teheran in December 1921. He proceeded on leave that year and Sir R. Olive was appointed to officiate.

H B M's Consul-General and Agent of the Government of India in Khurasan—Lt.-Col O C J Barrett, O.B.E., C.I.E.

H B M's Consul in Selatan and Kain—Major O K Daly, C.I.E.,

IV—THE PRESENT FRONTIER PROBLEM

There yet remains a small part of British India where the King's writ does not run. Under what is called the Durand Agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan, the boundary between India and Afghanistan was settled, and it was delimited in 1893 except for a small section which was delimited after the Afghan War in 1919. But the Government of India have never occupied up to the border. Between the administered territory and the Durand line there lies a belt of territory of varying width extending from the Gomal Pass in the south to Kashmir in the north, this is generically known as the Tribal Territory. Its future is the keynote of the interminable discussions of frontier policy for nearly half a century.

This is a country of deep valleys and secluded glens, which nature has fenced in with almost inaccessible mountains. It is peopled with wild tribes of mysterious origin in whom Afghan, Tartar, Turkoman, Persian Indian, Arab and Jewish intermingle. They had lived their own lives for centuries, with little intercourse even amongst themselves, and as Sir Valentine Chitral truly said "the only bond that ever could unite them in common action was the bond of Islam." It is impossible to understand the Frontier problem unless two facts are steadily borne in mind. The strongest sentiment amongst these strange people is the desire to be left alone. They value their independence much more than their lives. The other factor is that the country does not suffice even in good years to maintain the population. They must find the means of subsistence outside, either in trade by service in the Indian Army or in the Khassadars, or else in the outset which till-men all the world over have utilised from time immemorial, the raiding of the wealthier and more peaceful population of the Plains.

Frontier Policy

The policy of the Government of India toward the Independent Territory has ebbed and flowed in a remarkable degree. It has fluctuated between the Forward School, which would occupy the frontier up to the confines of Afghanistan, and the school of Masterly Inactivity, which would leave the tribesmen entirely to their own resources, punishing them only when they raided British territory. Behind both the policies lay the menace of a Russian invasion, and that coloured our frontier policy until the Anglo-Russian Agreement. This induced what was called Hit and Retire tactics. In the half century which ended in 1897 there were nearly a score of punitive expeditions, each one of which left behind a legacy of distrust, and which brought no permanent improvement in its train. The fruit of this unpopularity thus engendered was seen in 1897. Then the whole Frontier, from the Malakand to the Gomal, was ablaze. The extent of this rising and the magnitude of the military measures which were taken to meet it compelled a consideration of the whole position. The broad outlines of the new policy were laid down in a despatch from the Secre-

tary of State for India, which prescribed for the Government the "limitation of your interference with the tribes, so as to avoid the extension of administrative control over tribal territory." It fell to Lord Curzon to give effect to this policy. The main foundations of his action were to exarise over the tribes the political influence requisite to secure our imperial interests to pay them subsidies for the performance of specific duties, but to respect their tribal independence and leave them, as far as possible, free to govern themselves according to their own traditions and to follow their own inherited habits of life without let or hindrance.

New Province

As a first step Lord Curzon took the control of the tribes under the direct supervision of the Government of India. Up to this point they had been in charge of the Government of the Punjab a province whose head is busied with many other concerns. Lord Curzon created in 1901, the North West Frontier Province, and placed it in charge of a Chief Commissioner with an intimate frontier experience, directly subordinate to the Government of India. This was a revival of a scheme prepared by Lord Lytton in 1877, and often considered afterwards, but which had slipped for lack of driving power. Next, Lord Curzon withdrew the regular troops so far as possible from the advanced posts, and placed these fortresses in charge of tribal levies, officered by a handful of British officers. The most successful of these was the Khyber Rifles, which steadfastly kept the peace of that historic Pass until 1919. At the same time the regular troops were cantoned in places whence they could quickly move to any danger point, and these bases were connected with the Indian railway system. In pursuance of this policy frontier railways were run out to Dargai, and a narrow gauge line, since converted to the broad-gauge, was constructed from Kamalgarh to Kohat at the entrance of the Kohat Pass, and to Thal in the midst of the Kurram Valley. These railways were completed by Lines to Tonk and Bannu. By this means the striking power of the regular forces was greatly increased. Nor was the policy of economic development neglected. The railways gave a powerful stimulus to trade and the Lower Swat Canal converted fractious tribesmen into successful agriculturists. This policy of economic development is receiving a great development through the completion of the Upper Swat Canal (9 ft Irrigation). Now it is completed there are other works awaiting attention. For many years this policy was completely justified by results.

A New Policy

It saved us from serious complications for nearly twenty years, although the position could never be said to be entirely satisfactory particularly in Waziristan, peopled by the most reckless raiders on the whole border-line with a bolt hole into Afghanistan when pressed from the British side. It endured through the Great War and did not break

down until the Amir of Afghanistan sought refuge from his internal troubles in a jihad against India. In this insane enterprise the Afghans placed less reliance in their regular troops, which have never offered more than a contemptible resistance to the British forces than in the armed tribesmen. In this they were justified, for the most serious fighting was with the tribesmen. The tribal levies collapsed with almost universal swiftness. The Southern Waziristan Militia broke and there was serious trouble throughout the Zhob district. The Afridis, our most serious enemies in 1897, and the most powerful of the tribes on the North-West Frontier, remained fairly quiet throughout the actual hostilities with Afghanistan, but later, it was necessary to take measures against a leading malcontent and destroy his fort at Chora. But the Mahauds and the Waziris broke into open hostilities. Their country lies within the belt bounded by the Durand Line and the Afghan frontier on the west, and by the districts of Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan on the east. Amongst them the Afghan emissaries were particularly active and as they could put in the field some 30,000 warriors, 75 per cent armed with modern weapons of precision, they constituted formidable adversaries. They refused to make peace even when the Afghans caved in. They rejected our terms and active measures were taken against them. The fighting was the most severe in the history of the Frontier. The Mahauds fought with great tenacity. Their shooting was amazingly good, their tactics were admirable, for amongst their ranks were many men trained either in the Militia or in the Indian Army, and more than once they came within measurable distance of considerable success. They were assisted by the fact that the best trained troops in the Indian Army were still overseas and younger soldiers were opposed to them. But their very tenacity and bravery were their own undoing, their losses were the heaviest in the long history of the Borderland and when the Mahauds made their complete submission in September 1921 they were more severely chastened than at any time during their career.

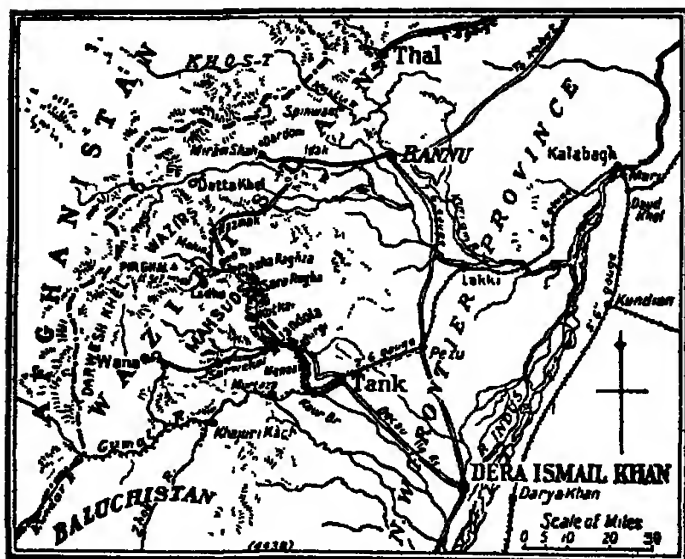
A New Chapter.—As the result of the Afghan War of 1919, Indian frontier policy was again thrown into the melting pot. There was much vague discussion of the position in the course of the months which followed the Afghan War and the troubles in Waziristan which succeeded it, but this discussion did not really come to a head until February-March 1922. The Budget then presented to the country revealed a serious financial position. It showed that despite serious increases in taxation, the country had suffered a series of deficits which had been financed out of borrowings. Further heavy taxation was proposed in this Budget but even then the equilibrium which the financial authorities regarded as of paramount importance was not attained. When the accounts were examined, it was seen that the heaviest charges on the exchequer were those under Military Expenses and that there was an indefinitely large and seemingly unending expenditure on Waziristan. This forced the Military, and allied with it the Frontier expenditure to the front. In actual practice the discussion was really focussed on

Waziristan. In essentials it was the aged controversy—shall we deal with this part of the Frontier on what is known as the Sandeman system, namely, by occupying commanding posts within the country itself, dominating the tribesmen but interfering little in their own affairs or shall we revert to what was known as the close border system, as modified by Lord Curzon, of withdrawing our regular troops to strategic positions outside the tribal areas, leaving the tribesmen, organised into militia to keep the passes open and punishing the tribesmen by expeditions when their raiding propensities become unbearable.

The Curzon Policy.—The Curzon policy, adopted in 1899 to clear up the aftermath of the serious and unsatisfactory frontier rising in 1897 was a compromise between the "occupation and the "close border policies. It was based on the withdrawal of the regular troops so far as possible to cantonments in rear whilst the frontier posts, such as those in the Peshawar, Wana and in the P. Hyber and Kurram were held by militia, recruited from amongst the tribesmen themselves. The cantonments for regular troops were linked so far as possible with the Indian railway system, so as to permit of rapid reinforcement. But it must be remembered that like all Frontier students, Lord Curzon did not regard this as the final policy. He wrote in the Memorandum formulating his ideas "It is of course inevitable that in the passage of time the whole Waziri country up to the Durand line will come more and more under our control. No policy in the world can resist or greatly retard that consummation. My desire is to bring it about by gradual degrees and above all without the constant aid and presence of British troops." The Curzon policy, though it was not pursued with the steadfastness he would have followed if he had remained in control gave us moderate—or rather it should be said bearable—frontier conditions until the Afghan War. It then broke down, because the tribal militia, on which it was based, could not withstand the wave of fanaticism, and other conditions set up by the Afghan invasion of 1919. The Khyber militia faded away, the Waziri militia either mutinied, as at Wana, or deserted. The pillar of the Curzon system fell in the military phrase of the hour, it could not stand the test of religious fanaticism or an Afghan War. The very word Militia became anathema.

The Policy.—The policy first adumbrated to meet these changed conditions was outlined by Lord Chelmsford, the then Viceroy, in a speech which he addressed to the Indian Legislatures. He said it had been decided to retain commanding posts in Waziristan, to open up the country by roads, to extend the main Indian railway system from its then terminus, Jamrud, through the Khyber to the frontier of Afghanistan and to take over the duties of the Militia by regular troops. That immediate policy was soon modified so far as the garrisoning of these frontier positions by regular troops was concerned. Such duties are immensely unpopular in the regular army, which is not organised and equipped for work of this character. Irregulars have always existed on the frontier, and as they had disappeared with the Militia, it was necessary to recreate them

WAZIRISTAN



The new form of irregular was what have been called *Khasadars* and *Scouts*. The *Khasadar* is an extremely irregular. He has no British officers and no uniform, except a distinguishing kind of paper. In contradistinction to the old *Militia*, he finds his own rifle. As one informed observer remarked, the beauty of the system is that so long as the *Khasadars*, under their own headmen, secure the immunity of the caravans and perform their other police duties, they draw their pay and no questions

are asked. If they desert in the day of trouble, they lose their pay but the Government loses no rifles nor does it risk mutiny or the loss of British and Indian officers. But the application of this policy produced an acute controversy. It was one thing to say that commanding posts in Waziristan should be retained, it was another to decide what these posts should be. We must therefore consider the special problem of Waziristan.

V—WAZIRISTAN

We can now approach the real frontier question of the day, the future of Waziristan. What follows is drawn from an admirable article contributed to the January number of "The Journal of the United Service Institution of India," written by Lt Col G M Routh, D.S.O.

Geographically Waziristan is a rough parallelogram averaging 60 miles from East to West and 180 from North to South. The western half consists of the Sulaiman Range gradually rising up to the ridge from five to ten thousand feet high, which forms the water shed between the Indus and the Helmand Rivers and corresponds with the Durand Line separating India from Afghanistan. This is the western boundary. On the east is the Indus. North is the water shed of the Kurram River running East and West about 80 miles north of Bannu separating Waziristan from the Kohat District. South is a zigzag political boundary from the Durand Line running between Wana and Fort Sande man in Beluchistan with a turn southwards to the Indus.

The western half is a rugged and inhospitable medley of ridges and ravines straggled and confused in hopeless disarray. The more inhabited portions lie well up the slope at heights of four to six thousand feet. Here are our outposts of Wana and Ladha some 15 and 20 miles respectively from the Durand Line, in the centre of the grazing district, the latter within five miles of important villages of Kaurigum and Makin.

The submontane tracts from the hills to the Indus vary from the highly cultivated and irrigated land round Bannu to the sandy desert in the Marwat above Peru.

Where irrigation or river water is obtainable cultivation is attempted under conditions which can hardly be encouraging. Other tracts like that between Peru and Tank, usually pastoral, can only hope for an occasional crop after a lucky rainfall.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants, unable to support existence on their meagre soil, make up the margin by armed robbery of their richer and more peaceful neighbours. The name originates according to tradition from one Wazir, two of whose grandsons were the actual founders of the race. Of the four main tribes Darweshkhal, Mahsuds, Dawars and Batanni, only the first two are true Wazirs. Their villages are separate though dotted about more or less indiscriminately, and inter-marriage is the exception—in fact all traditionally are in open strife, a circumstance which, until some bright political comet like the Afghan War of 1919 joined them together, as materially added our dealings with them.

Unlike other parts of India, however, these wild people acknowledge little allegiance to maliks or headmen. No one except perhaps the Mulla Powindah till his death in 1918 could speak of any portion of them as his following.

Policy.—The policy of the British was at first one of non interference with the tribes. Even now only part of the country is administered. Gradually it was found that more and more supervision became necessary to control raiding and this was attempted by expeditions to portions of the country with Regulars followed by building posts and brick towers to be held by *Militia*. These posts were at first placed at the points where raiders usually debouched. The Political Officers, at first supported by Regulars, built up from 1904 onwards a force of some 3,000 *Militia* with British Officers at their disposal, who were backed up by the garrisons at Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. In addition certain allowances were made to the tribes for good behaviour, cessation of raids and surrender of offenders when required, also for tribal escorts as necessary. Gradually, as occasion required, posts were occupied. Wana was occupied in 1895 at the request of the Wana Wazirs. Similarly the Tochi in 1896. In the comprehensive expedition of 1895-96 when this policy was put into effect, the British arms were shown in every remote valley in the vain hope of taming the Mahsuds. It was hoped the various posts would prove a pacifying influence and a rallying ground for Government supporters. From 1904 to 1919 they were held by *Militia*. Roads and communications were improved and tribal allowances augmented by sales of produce to the troops on a liberal scale.

A Programme.—Lt Col Routh then outlined a possible policy for Waziristan. We give it textually, because we believe that when it was written it reflected how military opinion in India was developing.

To the unprejudiced mind it appears more practical to grasp the settle firmly and dominate the inhabited tracts. Why should not the road now being made to Ladha be continued 84 miles north to the Tochi road at Datta Khel and 29 miles south to Wana? Why should we not occupy the healthier portions of Waziristan rather than the foothills or Cis-Indus zones? The Razmak district round Makin 5,000 feet up is both healthy and fertile. The same applies to the Shawal valley lying behind Pir Gul, the national peak near Ladha rising to a height of 11,556 feet above the sea. The Wana plain, 5,000 feet up 80 miles by 15, could with railways support an army corps, there is no doubt that a forward railway policy will help to solve the problem. A line has been surveyed from

Tank to Draban and thence up the valley to Fort Sandeman, so connecting with the Zhob and perhaps later to Wana. The Gumal Tangi from Murassa to Khajuri Kach is the apparently obvious route but would be prohibitively expensive in construction and require much tunnelling. Beyond Khajuri Kach *via* Tanai and Bogha Kot to Wana, some 23 miles offers no difficulty. The old policy of the raiders working westwards and our retributive expeditions stretching their very temporary tentacles eastwards seems to suggest better lateral communications. The broad gauge at Kohat might without undue cost be extended to Thal and thence to Idak *via* Spinwam. From here till further extension proved desirable a motor road through Razmak, Makin and Dwatol to link up with that now surveyed to Ladha sounds possible to the looker on. Eventually such communications, road rail, or both, could continue to Wana, Fort Sandeman and Quetta *via* Hindu Ragh a strategic line offering great defensive possibilities substituting Razmak, which resembles Ootacamund, and healthy uplands for the deadly fever spots now occupied. The very fact of employing the tribesmen on these works with good pay and good engineers tends to pacify the country as well as providing healthy accessible hill stations in place of the proverbially comfortable cantonments which now exist in this part of the Frontier.

A Compromise.—A full statement of the policy finally adopted by Government in view of the situation left upon their hands after the Mahsud rebellion was made by the Foreign Secretary, Sir (then Mr.) Denys Bray, in the course of a Budget discussion in the Legislative Assembly on 6th March 1923. He outlined neither a Forward policy nor a Close Border policy. Both these terms had, in fact, ceased to be appropriate. Circumstances had so changed that neither the one plan nor the other remained within the bounds of reasonable argument.

The Foreign Secretary explained that the ingredients of the Frontier problem at the present day are essentially three, namely: the Frontier districts, the neighbouring friendly State of Afghanistan, and the so-called Independent Territory, this last being the belt of unsettled mountain country which lies between the borders of British India and India. He proceeded specially to show that this belt is, in fact, within India. It is boundary pillars that mark off Waziristan from Afghanistan, it is boundary pillars that include Waziristan in India. We are apt to call Waziristan independent territory, and it is only from the point of view of our British districts that these tribes are trans-frontier tribes. From the point of view of India, from the international point of view that is, they are *de-facto* tribes of India. If Waziristan and her tribes are India's scourge they are also India's responsibility—and India's alone. That is an international fact that we must never forget.

Sir Denys next referred to the triumph of the Sandeman policy in Baluchistan. He pointed out that some people long ago believed that the same policy would prove effective in Waziristan. But what was a practical proposition 20 or 30 years ago is not necessarily so now. The task is infinitely more difficult

to-day chiefly because the tribesmen are infinitely better armed, their arms having increased at least tenfold during the last 20 years. Dealing with the Close Border prescription he showed that if one erected a Chinese wall of barbed wire fence along the plain some distance below the hills all the time the problem in front of us would be going from bad to worse, with the inevitable increase of arms in the trans border and with that inevitable increase in the economic stringency in this mountainous tract which would make the tribesmen more and more desperate more and more thrown back on barbarism. A rigid Close Border policy is really a policy of negation, and nothing more. We might gain for our districts a momentary respite from raids but we would be leaving behind a legacy of infinitely worse trouble for their descendants.

The settled policy of Government in Waziristan Sir Denys showed, was the control of that country through a road system of which about 140 miles would lie in Waziristan itself and one hundred miles along the border of Dirajat and the maintenance of some 4,000 Khassadars and of some 6,000 irregulars while at Razmak 7,000 feet high and overlooking northern Waziristan there would be an advanced base occupied by a strong garrison of regular troops. Razmak he showed to be further from the Durand line than the old-established posts in the Tochi. In the geographical sense, therefore the policy was in one signal respect, a backward policy. None the less, it was a forward policy in a very real sense for it was a policy of constructive progress and was a big step forward on the long and laborious road towards the pacification through civilization, of the most backward and inaccessible, and therefore the most treacherous and aggressive tribes on the border. Come what may, civilization must be made to penetrate these inaccessible mountains or we must admit that there is no solution to the Waziristan problem, and we must fold our hands while it grows inevitably worse.

The policy thus initiated has proceeded with results according with the highest reasonable expectations and exceeding the most sanguine hopes of most people concerned in its formulation.

The roads are policed by the Khassadars, who have, in the main, proved faithful to their trust. The open hostility of the Waziri tribesmen to the presence of troops and other agents of Government in their midst, which at the outset they showed by shooting up individuals and small bodies of troops on every opportunity, has faded away, and the people have shown an understanding of the rule of law and under the control exercised, a readiness to conform to it. In various small but significant ways methods of civilization have caught the imagination of the people and won their approval. Thus, the safety of the roads has encouraged, and is buttressed by, a considerable development of motor bus traffic. The roads, as the King's Highway are officially held to be sacrosanct, that is, no shooting up or other pursuit of personal or tribal feuds is permitted upon them. This permits villagers to proceed to and from the plains towns in safety. Under the influence of their women, the tribesmen have

applied that the ban against shooting upon the highway shall be extended to all the country, for three miles on either side of the highway. Tentative efforts to introduce primary education have been possible and have achieved as much success as could be expected. The hospitals and dispensaries maintained for irregular troops called Scouts employed about the country, attend to the wants of the tribespeople who come to them. So much has this arrangement been appreciated that the Mahsuds formally, applied for the establishment of a hospital of their own. With great humour they offered to provide such an institution with the necessary surgical instrument, saying that they had saved this from the time when the British formerly left the country. In other words they offered what they had captured or looted during the 1919 emeut.

A remarkable illustration of the acceptance by the people of the new conditions was provided a year or two ago by the Wana Wazirs when they partitioned the Political Authorities for the occupation of south Waziristan corresponding with that already established in northern Waziristan. A motor road had already been run out from Hundole through Hagunall and the Shuhai Lang to Sarakhal. A brigade of troops, hitherto stationed at Mawal, wheeled about the Lak Zam area following down the deep valley from northern Waziristan debouches on to the Betajaf was accordingly ordered up to Wana in the autumn of 1929. It proceeded throughout the journey without opposition and was warmly welcomed by the tribes people at Wana where it established itself in a favourably sited camp not far from the fort which was the earlier centre of British occupation.

The reoccupation of Wana and the circum-stances in which it took place illustrate that a policy is a live thing. In other words it is not a programme which can reach fulfilment or completion. It lives and always waits upon some new action to give it further expression. In this respect the new policy though it has only demonstrably been applied in Waziristan, must be regarded as that which governs the actions of the authorities in regard at least to the whole Frontier region lying between Baluchistan and the Khyber Pass, except, possibly, the Kurram Valley.

A startling new development upon the North West Frontier during 1930 was the spread thereto of agitation carried on by the Indian National Congress the interior of India in pursuit of its efforts to bring political pressure to bear upon the Government of India and above them His Majesty's Government. The Congress at its annual session at Lahore in the week following Christmas 1929, adopted a programme aiming at the separation of India from the British Empire and at the promotion of revolution in India to secure this end. In particular it avowedly set out to make Government impossible. Revolutionary agitation and especially a campaign to promote disobedience of the civil law in order to bring the administration to a standstill, commenced all over India immediately after the Congress meetings. The settled districts of the N.W.F.F., were the scene of this, in common with

the rest of the land. The agitation was there carried on by Congress agents organised in what are known as Khilafat Committees. For their purpose they made special use of Congress misrepresentations of the Sarda Act recently passed by the Indian Legislature by the official and Hindu votes against the opposition of the Muslim non official members. This measure makes illegal and provides penalties for the marriage of boys and girls below stated minimum ages. The age at which marriage may take place is also in general terms laid down for Mohammedans by their religious law. Hence the Muslims in British India while acknowledging that the Sarda Act would not in practice affect them because its provisions in no way over ruled their religious law never the less saw in the measure an act affecting the domain of their religious law and passed, in spite of their dissent in a Legislature in which Muslims are, by their own a hopeless minority. They regarded its enactment as a grave illustration of their fears that under any scheme of democratic self government in India Muslim interests would not be safe against disregard by the Hindu majority.

Outbreak at Peshawar in 1930—This Muslim apprehension has since the passing of the Act strongly influenced the attitude of the community towards all questions of political reform and the lever which misrepresentation of the Act provided for stirring up anti Government agitation is the almost wholly and fanatical Muslim province in the north can easily be understood. Grossly untrue propaganda was carried on. It was for instance alleged that under the Act all girls must be medically examined before marriage. An elaboration of this untruth was that the Government were recruiting a large body of Hindu inspectors to make the examinations. And the agitation was deliberately pushed outwards from the settled districts of the N.W.F. into the tribal areas. Waziristan was amongst the first of them to be inundated with the propaganda. This was in March-April 1930. The poison spread outwards from Peshawar into Tirah about the same time. The agitation was sedulously carried on in the district northward of Peshawar city and from thence was pushed into Mohmand country. The first point of violent combustion was Peshawar city where the mob murderously broke out on 23rd April 1930. Within a short time Afridi bands descended the ravines and nullahs from Tirah to join in the fray. The Mohmands became greatly excited and sent down bands to sit near the border and watch for an opportunity to join in. The Upper Fokhs Wazir simultaneously took to arms and shortly afterwards the Mahsuds Wazirs, about Ladha did the same. At this stage, the development of the Air arm in India proved of incalculable value. Aeroplanes patrolled the whole country and were frequently employed by the political authorities to take preventive and punitive action by bombing. The road system meanwhile, as shot troops to be moved at will to positions of advantage for dealing with whatever serious tribal aggression appeared likely.

In the result, the Mohmands after being bombed several times, found discretion the better part of valour and made no descent in force. The Afridis twice endeavoured to raid

Peshawar in force but by combined air and land action were both times driven back to their hills with no achievement to report. The Orakzais of southern Tirah threatened to descend by the Ublan Pass upon Kohat and their western clans attacked a post in the Upper Kurram and endeavoured to attack Parachinar. Helped by the machinations of Congress agents they succeeded in drawing two or three clans of Afghan tribesmen across the border into the fray. Combined air and ground action crushed these efforts. The Tochi Wazirs heavily attacked Datta Khel. The Mahsuds were similarly repulsed and punished when they assaulted Surarogha, in the valley of the Taklamakan.

All outbreaks of revolt were suppressed in the same manner and the establishment of new fortified posts on the Peshawar plain immediately opposite the main valleys leading out of Tirah, and the construction of roads for their service, now indicate the application of the new frontier policy in that region.

It will be seen that the events of the summer of 1930 put the Policy to a severe test and that its successful operation in the emergency was specially assisted by the Royal Air Force. The resultant position appears, then, to be that the control of the tribes, where the policy has already been expressed in road building and in the establishment of suitable garrisons is effective, that the political and military ground organisation with which the Policy is supported brings about the introduction of the ameliorative influence of civilisation and that the rapidity and success with which the Royal Air Force can operate over the hills, tends to diminish the amount of ground force necessary. On the other hand the two descents of the Afridis upon the plain and their return to their homes without great loss despite all that the Royal Air Force and large bodies of troops could do, indicate the capacity for mischief which lies in the hands of the Tirah tribes, and must remain there so long as the Policy is not extended over their highlands.

VI—AFGHANISTAN

The relations of Afghanistan with the Indian Empire were for long dominated by one main consideration—the relation of Afghanistan to a Russian invasion of India. All other considerations were of secondary importance. For nearly three-quarters of a century the attitude of Great Britain toward successive Amirs has been dictated by this one factor. It was in order to prevent Afghanistan from coming under the influence of Russia that the first Afghan War of 1838 was fought—the most melancholic episode in Indian frontier history. It was because a Russian envoy was received at Kabul whilst the British representative was turned back at Ali Masjid that the Afghan War of 1878 was waged. After that the whole end of British policy toward Afghanistan was to build up a strong independent State, friendly to Britain, which would act as a buffer against Russia, and so to order our frontier policy that we should be in a position to move large forces up, if necessary, to support the Afghans in resisting aggression.

Gates to India.

A knowledge of the transit frontier geography of India brought home to her administrators the conviction that there were only two main gates to India—through Afghanistan, the historic route to India, along which successive invasions have poured, and by way of Sektan. It was the purpose of British policy to close them and of Russia to endeavour to keep them at any rate half open. To this end, having

pushed her trans-Persian railway to Samarkand, Russia thrust a military line from Merv to the Kushkimaq Post, where railway material is collected for its immediate prolongation to Herat. Later, she connected the trans-Siberian railway with the trans-Caucasian system, by the Orenburg-Tashkent line, thus bringing Central Asia into direct touch with her European magazines. Nor has Great Britain been idle. A great military station has been created at Quetta. This is connected with the Indian railway system by lines of railway which climb to the Quetta Plateau by the Bolan Pass and through the Chaghar Rift, lines which rank amongst the most picturesque and daring in the world. From Quetta the line has been carried by the Khejnk tunnel through the Khwaja Amran Range, until it leads out to the Afghan Border at New Chaman, where it opens on the route to Kandahar. The material is stocked at New Chaman which would enable the line to be carried to Kandahar in sixty days. In view of the same menace the whole of Baluchistan has been brought under British control. Quetta is now one of the great strategical positions of the world, and nothing has been left undone which modern military science can achieve to add to its natural strength. In the opinion of many military authorities it firmly closes the western gate to India, either by way of Kandahar, or by the direct route through Sektan.

Further east, the Indian railway system was carried to Jamrud and by the autumn of 1925 up the Khyber Pass to Landi Kotal and down the other side of the Pass to Landi Khana. A first class military road sometimes double, sometimes treble, also threads the Pass to our advanced post at Landi Kotal, and then descends until it meets the Afghan frontier at Landi Khana. Later, a commencement was made with the Lol Shikhar Railway, which, starting from Peshawar, was designed to penetrate the Mullagori country and provide an alternative advance to the Khyber for the movement of British troops for the defence of Kabul. For unexplained reasons, this line was suddenly stopped and is now thrust in the air. In this wise the two Powers prepared for the great conflict which was to be fought on the Kandahar-Ghazni-Kabul line.

Relations with India

Between the advanced posts on either side stands the Kingdom of Afghanistan. The end of British policy has been to make it strong and friendly in the first particular it has early and largely succeeded. The second aim may now also be said to have been attained. When the late Abdurrahman was invited to ascend the throne, as the only means of escape from the tangle of 1879 none realised his great qualities. Previously the Amir of Afghanistan had been the chief of a confederacy of clans. Abdurrahman made himself master in his own kingdom. By means into which it is not well closely to enter, he beat down opposition until none dared lift a hand against him. Aided by a British subsidy of twelve lakhs of rupees a year increased to eighteen by the Durand Agreement of 1893, and subsequently to over 30 lakhs, he established a strong standing army and set up arsenals under foreign supervision to furnish it with arms and ammunition. Step by step his position was regularised. The Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission—which nearly precipitated war over the Panjdeh episode in 1885—determined the northern boundaries. The Pamir Agreement delimited the borders amid those anomy heights. The Durand Agreement settled the border on the British side, except for a small section to the west of the Khyber, which remained a fruitful source of trouble between Afghanistan and ourselves until 1919, when the Afghan claims and action upon the undemarcated section led to war. That section was finally surveyed and the frontier determined shortly after the conclusion of peace with Afghanistan. Finally the Mullahs award closed the old feud with Persia over the distribution of the waters of the Helmand in Sistan. It was estimated by competent authorities that about the time of Abdurrahman's death, Afghanistan was in a position to place in the field, in the event of war, one hundred thousand well-armed regular and irregular troops, together with two hundred thousand tribal levies and to leave fifty thousand regulars and irregulars and a hundred thousand levies to maintain order in Kabul and the provinces. But if Afghanistan were made strong, it was not made friendly. Abdurrahman Khan distrusted British policy up to the day of his

death. All that can be said is that he distrusted it less than he distrusted Russia, and if the occasion had arisen for him to make a choice, he would have opposed a Russian advance with all the force at his disposal. He closed his country absolutely against all foreigners, except those who were necessary for the supervision of his arsenals and factories. He refused to accept a British Resident, on the ground that he could not protect him, and British affairs were entrusted to an Indian agent, who was in a most equivocal position. At the same time he repeatedly pressed for the right to pass by the Government of India and to establish his own representative at the Court of St James.

Afghanistan and the War.—These relations were markedly improved during the reign of His Majesty the Amir Habibullah Khan. It used to be one of the wise sayings of the Frontier that the system which Abdurrahman Khan had built up would perish with him, for none was capable of maintaining it. Habibullah Khan more than maintained it. He visited India soon after his accession and acquired a vivid knowledge of the power and resources of the Empire. He strengthened and consolidated his authority in Afghanistan itself. At the outset of the war he made a declaration of his complete neutrality. It is believed—a considerable reticence is preserved over our relations with Afghanistan—that he warned the Government of India that he might be forced into many equivocal acts, but that they must trust him, certainly his reception of Turkish, Austrian and German "missions" at Kabul, at a time when British representatives were severely excluded, was open to grave misconception. But a fuller knowledge induced the belief that the Amir was in a position of no little difficulty. He had to compromise with the fanatical and anti-British elements amongst his own people, inflamed by the Turkish preaching of a jihad or holy Islamic war. But he committed no act of hostility as soon as it was safe to do so he turned the members of these missions out of the kingdom. At the end of the war his policy was completely justified. He had kept Afghanistan out of the war, he had adhered to the winning side, his authority in the kingdom and in Central Asia was at its zenith.

Murder of the Amir.—It is believed that if he had lived Habibullah Khan would have used this authority for a progressive policy in Afghanistan, by opening up communications and extending his engagements with India. He was courted by the representatives of Persia and the Central Asian States as the possible rallying centre of a Central Asian Islamic confederation. At this moment he was assassinated on the 26th February 1919. The circumstances surrounding his murder have never been fully explained, but there is strong ground for the belief that it was prompted by the reactionaries who had harassed him all his reign. These realised that with his vindication by the war their time of reckoning had come; they anticipated it by suborning one of his aides to murder him in his sleep. His brother, Nusratullah Khan, the nominee of the fanatical element, was proclaimed Amir at Jalalabad in his stead, but public opinion in Afghanistan

revolted at the idea of the brother seizing power over the corpse of the murdered man. His sons, Hayat and Amanullah, were not disposed to waive their heritage. Amanullah was at Kabul, controlling the treasury and the arsenal and supported by the Army. Nasrullah found it impossible to make head against him and with drew. The new Amir, Amanullah, at once communicated his accession to the Government of India and proclaimed his desire to adhere to the traditional policy of friendship. But his difficulties at once commenced. He had to deal with the war party in Afghanistan, he was confronted with the dissimulation arising from the manner in which the murderers of Habibullah had been dealt with, the fanatical element was exasperated by the imprisonment of Nasrullah, and the Army was so incensed that it had to be removed from Kabul and given occupation to divert its thoughts. A further element of complexity was introduced by the political situation in India. The agitation against the Rowlett Act was at its height. The disturbances in the Punjab and Gujarat had taken place. Afghan agents in India, of whom the most prominent was Ghulam Hyder Khan, the Afghan postmaster at Peshawar, fanned Afghanistan with exaggerated accounts of the Indian unrest. The result of all this was to convince the Amir that the real solution of his difficulties was to unite all the disturbing elements in a war with India. On the 25th April his troops were set in motion and simultaneously a stream of anti-British propaganda commenced to flow from Kabul and open intrigue was started with the Frontier tribes on whom the Afghans placed their chief reliance.

Speedy Defeat.—The war caught the Army in India in the throes of demobilisation and with a large proportion of the seasoned troops on service abroad. Nevertheless the regular Afghan Army was rapidly dealt with. Strong British forces moved up the Khyber and seized Dacca, Jelalabad was repeatedly bombed from the air and also Kabul. Nothing but a shortage of mechanical transport prevented the British forces from seizing Jelalabad. In ten days the Afghans were severely defeated. On the 14th May they asked for an Armistice. With the usual Afghan spirit of haggling, they tried to water down the conditions of the armistice, but as they were met with an uncompromising emphasis of the situation they despatched representatives to a conference at Rawalpindi on the 26th July. On the 8th August a Treaty of Peace was signed which is set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp 196-197.

Post War Relations.—It will be seen that under this Treaty the way was paved for a fresh engagement six months afterwards. During the hot weather of 1923 there were prolonged discussions at Mussoorie between Afghan Representatives and British officials under Sir Henry Dobbs. These were private, but it is believed that a complete agreement was reached. Certainly after an interchange of Notes which revealed no major point of difference it was agreed that a British Mission should proceed to Kabul to arrange a definite treaty of peace. This Mission crossed the Border in January 1921 and entered Kabul where a peace treaty was signed.

The main points of the Treaty are set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp 197, 198-199.

Afghanistan after the War.—Since the war the relations between Afghanistan and Great Britain have been good and improving. There were painful episodes in 1922 when a murder gang from the tribal territory on the British side of the Frontier committed raids in British India, murdering English people and kidnapping English women and then took refuge in Afghanistan. In course of time this gang was broken up. His Majesty the King of Afghanistan had troubles within his own borders which have made him glad of British help. The main object of his government was to strengthen the resources of the country and to bring it into closer relation with modern methods of administration. But Afghanistan is an intensely conservative country and no changes are popular, especially violent was the opposition to a secular form of administration and education. The direct result was a formidable rebellion of Mangals and Zadrans in the Southern Provinces, and serious reverses to the regular troops sent against the rebels. At one time the position was serious, but the rebels were not sufficiently united to develop their successes, and with the aid of aeroplanes and other assistance afforded by the Government of India the insurrection was broken. Whilst this assistance was appreciated the whole business gave a serious set back to the reforms initiated by His Majesty, he had to withdraw almost the whole of his administrative code and to revert to the Mahomedan Law which was previously in force.

Bolshevik Penetration.—Taking a long view a much more serious development of the politics of Afghanistan at the period to which the foregoing notes apply was the penetration of the Bolsheviks. These astute propagandists have converted the former Trans Caspian states of Turkestan Russia into Soviet Republics, where the rule of the Bolsheviks is much more drastic and disruptive than was that of what was called the despotism of the Romanoffs. The object of this policy is gradually to sweep into the Soviet system the outlying provinces of Persia of China and of Afghanistan. In Persia this policy has been foiled by the vigour of the Sipah Salah Reza Khan since declared Shah. In Chinese Turkestan it is pursued with qualified success. In Afghanistan it also made certain progress. The first step of the Bolsheviks was to extend the Soviet Republics of Tajikistan, Uzbekia and Turkmenistan so as to absorb all Northern Afghanistan. This was later apparently abandoned for the moment for a more gentle penetration. Large subsidies, mostly delivered in kind were given to Afghanistan. Telegraph lines were erected all over the country, roads were constructed, large quantities of arms and ammunition were supplied, whilst an air force with Russian pilots and mechanics was created and was largely developed. In return the Bolsheviks received important trading facilities. The whole purpose of this policy was ultimately to make it possible to attack Great Britain in India through an absorbed Afghanistan.

It is very doubtful if the Amir and his advisers were deceived by these practices, and whether they did not pursue the simple plan of taking

all they could get without the slightest intention of handing themselves over to the Bolsheviks. But it is easier to let the Bolshevik in than to get him out. Friends of the Afghans were asking themselves whether the Amir was not nourishing vipers in his bosom. Towards the end of 1925 and in the early part of 1926 there was a rude awakening. The Northern Frontier of the country has always been unsettled because of the shifting courses of the Oxus. In December Bolshevik forces captured with violence the Afghan post of Darkabad, killing one soldier. These events aroused great indignation at Kabul and were denounced by the Amir *coram publico*. There is no little evidence to show that though the form of government has changed in Russia the aims of Russian policy are the same. It used to be said that the best of Russian good faith under the Anglo-Russian Agreement would be the attitude of Petrograd towards the extension of the Orenburg Tashkent railway to Termez. That line has been constructed by the Bolsheviks. The Afghans have had their eyes opened.

Russo Afghan Treaty—Outwardly the relations between the two States are friendly. In December 1926 the Afghan papers published the text of a new treaty concluded with Soviet Russia, which was signed on August 31st, but it provided that it should in no way interfere with the secret treaty signed in Moscow on February 28th, 1921. The principal clauses of this treaty as disclosed in the Afghan papers are as follows—

Clause 1—In the event of war or hostile action between one of the contracting parties and a third power or powers, the other contracting party will observe neutrality in respect of the first contracting party.

Clause 2—Both the contracting parties agree to abstain from mutual aggression, the one against the other. Within their own dominions also they will do nothing which may cause political or military harm to the other party. The contracting parties particularly agree not to make alliances or political and military agreements with any one or more other powers against each other. Each will also abstain from joining any boycott or financial or economic blockade organized against the other party. Besides this in case the attitude of a third power or powers is hostile towards one of the contracting parties the other contracting party will not help such hostile policy, and, further, will prohibit the execution of such policy and hostile actions and measures within its dominions.

Clause 3—The high contracting parties acknowledge one another's Government as rightful and independent. They agree to abstain from all sorts of armed or unarmed interference in one another's internal affairs. They will decidedly neither join nor help any one or more other powers which interfere in or against one of the contracting Government. None of the contracting parties will permit in its dominions the formation or existence of societies and the activities of individuals whose object is to gather armed force with a view to injuring the other's independence, or otherwise such activities will be checked. Similarly, neither of the con-

tracting parties will allow armed forces, arms ammunition, or other war material meant to be used against the other contracting party to pass through its dominions.

Clause 6—This treaty will take effect from the date of its ratification which should take place within three months of its signature. It will be valid for three years. After this period it will remain in force for another year provided neither of the parties has given notice six months before the date of its expiry that it would cease after that time.

On March 23rd there was also signed in Berlin a treaty between Germany and Afghanistan which amounted to no more than the establishment of diplomatic relations.

A British Minister is established in Kabul as well as the representatives of other European States. The representatives of Afghanistan are established in India and in London, and at some of the European capitals. The various subsidiary agreements under the Treaty have been carried into effect.

The King's Tour—In the closing months of 1927 His Majesty King Amanullah, accompanied by the Queen and a staff of officials, commenced a long tour to India and Europe. It is understood that this was one of the cherished ambitions of his father, King Habibullah, who was assassinated in 1919. King Amanullah, when he set out, was warmly welcomed in India and received a great popular greeting in Bombay both from his co-religionists and from members of other communities who forgot the invasion of India, in 1919. He then took ship to Europe. He was the guest of His Majesty King George V in London, and visited the principal European capitals. He made a State visit to Turkey and returned to Afghanistan by way of Soviet Russia and Persia. A series of treaties with the governments of the countries visited was announced and the King returned to Kabul in the late summer of 1928, the tour having been unclouded by untoward incident. Afghanistan was peaceful during his long absence.

Reforming Zeal—King Amanullah returned to his realm full of reforming zeal. He was much impressed by the political and social institutions of the western lands he visited and in particular by the dramatic forcefulness with which Mustafa Kemal Pasha had driven Turkey along the path of reform, or perhaps it would be more correct to say westernization. In this he was encouraged by the Queen, who was desirous of seeing the women of Afghanistan enjoy some of the freedom and opportunity won by and for the women of the West. Edict after edict was issued changing the whole structure of Afghan society. New codes and taxes were imposed. It was proposed that women should emerge from their seclusion and doff the veil, the co-education of boys and girls was prescribed, in September Government officials were forbidden to practise polygamy, in October European dress was ordered for the people of Kabul. At the same time, the pay of the regular troops fell into arrear.

With every appreciation of the spirit and direction of these changes friends of His Majesty advised the King to moderate the pace. They reminded him that in 1924 far less drastic changes had brought serious trouble in their train. In May of that year the Lame Mullah raised the standard of rebellion amongst the Gilzai and Mangal clansmen of Khost. The Mullahs were openly active against the King and His Majesty was equally frank in his hostility to them. Possibly also well-wishers suggested that what was possible in Turkey after centuries of close contact with the West, and where the ground had been prepared by missionary effort and a long struggle for the emancipation of women, might be less easy in Afghanistan where there had been no contact with the western world.

A change of Kings—Events moved rapidly in 1929. A notorious north Afghan badmash, Bacha-i-Saqao, raised the standard of revolt and inflicted severe losses on the Afghan Regular troops discontented as they were by arrears of pay. Day by day the Afghan representatives in various parts of the world issued messages asserting that the rebels had been destroyed, and a rapid series of pronouncements declared the withdrawal of all the reforms and the establishment of a Council of Provincial Representatives. Communications with the outer world were broken. King Amanullah and his family fled from Kabul to Kandahar, and then from Kandahar via Quetta to Bombay where they took ship to Europe. King Amanullah on his arrival at Rome entered into possession of the Afghan Legation where he remained. Bacha-i-Saqao declared himself King of Afghanistan, and for a few months held his position in Kabul. Without money, administrative experience or a disciplined following his throne was a thorny one and he

was harassed by constant attacks. The Royal Air Force in India meanwhile went to the rescue of the British Nationals beleaguered in and around Kabul and in a series of brilliant flights evacuated all without the slightest hitch. The most formidable of the new king's adversaries were led by General Nadir Khan, a scion of the old ruling house with a wide knowledge of the old ruling house with a wide knowledge of the old ruling house. Heavy fighting took place. Fortunes varied. Nadir Khan almost gave up his chance as finally lost. But a band of Wazirs from the British side of the border, attracted by prospects of loot, joined Nadir and finally seized Kabul in his name and interest. Nadir Khan thus became Victor and shortly afterwards, at the wish of the Afghans, Bacha-i-Saqao was executed with other rebels and when the year closed Nadir Khan was to all seeming in firm possession of the Kingdom. He despatched members of his family to the principal Afghan Legations in Europe. A Shikharai rising near the exit from the Khyber Pass took place in February 1930 and was repressed with unexpected success and vigour. There followed a serious rebellion in Kohistan, Bacha-i-Saqao's country. This also was promptly quelled. And thereafter Nadir Khan has ruled without challenge. He is now devoting himself to the reorganisation of his Army. He has given evidence of his friendliness towards Britain and India. He co-operated effectively to prevent tribes on his side of the frontier joining those on the British side against the Government of India in response to the Congress agitation in the summer of 1930. The trade routes have been re-opened and the new king has again taken up Amanullah's power of reform but in a statesmanlike manner which carries the Mullahs along with him.

British Representatives—R. R. Macnachie, C. I. E.

VII—TIBET

Recent British policy in Tibet is really another phase in the long-drawn-out duel between Great Britain and Russia in Central Asia. The earliest efforts to establish communication with that country were not, of course, inspired by this apprehension. When in 1774 Warren Hastings despatched Bogle on a mission to the Tashi-Lama of Shigatse—the spiritual equal if not superior of the Dalai Lama of Lhasa—his desire was to establish facilities for trade, to open up friendly relations with a Power which was giving us trouble on the frontier, and gradually to pave the way to a good understanding between the two countries. After Warren Hastings' departure from India the subject slept, and the last Englishman to visit Lhasa, until the Younghusband Expedition of 1904, was the unofficial Manning. In 1885, under the inspiration of Colman Maconachie of the Bengal Civil Service, a further attempt was made to get into touch with the Tibetans, but it was abandoned in deference to the opposition of the Chinese, whose suzerainty over

Tibet was recognised, and to whose views until the war with Japan, British statesmen were inclined to pay excessive deference. But the position on the Tibetan frontier continued to be most unsatisfactory. The Tibetans were aggressive and obstructive, and with a view to putting an end to an intolerable situation, a Convention was negotiated between Great Britain and China in 1890. This laid down the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet, it admitted a British protectorate over Sikkim, and paved the way for arrangements for the conduct of trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontier. These supplementary arrangements provided for the opening of a trade mart at Yatung, on the Tibetan side of the frontier, to which British subjects should have the right of free access, and where there should be no restrictions on trade. The agreement proved useless in practice, because the Tibetans refused to recognise it, and despite their established suzerainty, the Chinese Government were unable to secure respect for it.

Russian Intervention

This was the position when in 1899 Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, endeavoured to get into direct touch with the Tibetan authorities. Three letters which he addressed to the Dalai Lama were returned unopened, at a time when the Dalai Lama was in direct intercourse with the Tsar of Russia. His emissary was a Siberian Dorjief, who had established a remarkable ascendancy in the councils of the Dalai Lama. After a few years residence at Lhasa Dorjief went to Russia on a confidential mission in 1899. At the end of 1900 he returned to Russia at the head of a Tibetan mission of which the head was officially described in Russia as "the senior Tantric Khomba attached to the Dalai Lama of Tibet." This mission arrived at Odessa in October 1900, and was received in audience by the Tsar at Livadia. Dorjief returned to Lhasa to report progress, and in 1901 was at St. Petersburg with a Tibetan mission, where as bearers of an autograph letter from the Dalai Lama they were received by the Tsar at Peterhoff. They were escorted home through Central Asia by a Russian force to which several Intelligence Officers were attached. At the time it was rumoured that Dorjief had, on behalf of the Dalai Lama, concluded a treaty with Russia, which virtually placed Tibet under the protectorate of Russia. This rumour was afterwards officially contradicted by the Russian Government.

The Expedition of 1904

In view of these conditions the Government of India, treating the Li-a of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet as a constitutional fiction proposed in 1903 to despatch a mission, with as armed escort, to Lhasa to discuss the outstanding questions with the Tibetan authorities on the spot. To this the Home Government could not assent, but agreed, in conjunction with the Chinese Government to a joint meeting at Khamba Jong, on the Tibetan side of the frontier. Sir Francis Younghusband was the British representative, but after months of delay it was ascertained that the Tibetans had no intention of committing themselves. It was therefore agreed that the mission, with a strong escort, should move to Gyantse. On the way the Tibetans developed marked hostility and there was fighting at Tuna and several sharp encounters in and around Gyantse. It was therefore decided that the mission should advance to Lhasa, and on August 3rd, 1904, Lhasa was reached. There Sir Francis Younghusband negotiated a convention by which the Tibetans agreed to respect the Chinese Convention of 1890, to open trade marts at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung to pay an indemnity of £500,000 (seventy-five lakhs of rupees), the British to remain in occupation of the Chumbi Valley until this indemnity was paid off at the rate of a lakh of rupees a year. In a separate instrument the Tibetans agreed that the British Trade Agent at Gyantse should have the right to proceed to Lhasa to discuss commercial questions, if necessary.

Home Government Intervention.

For reasons which were not apparent at the time, but which have since been made clear,

the Home Government were unable to accept the full terms of this agreement. The indemnity was reduced from seventy-five lakhs of rupees to twenty-five lakhs, to be paid off in three years, and the occupation of the Chumbi Valley was reduced to that period. The right to despatch the British Trade Agent to Lhasa was withdrawn. Two years later (June 1906) a Convention was concluded between Great Britain and China regulating the position in Tibet. Under this Convention Great Britain agreed neither to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the internal administration of Tibet. China undertook not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet. Great Britain was empowered to lay down telegraph lines to connect the trade stations with India, and it was provided that the provisions of the Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893 remained in force. The Chinese Government paid the indemnity in three years and the Chumbi Valley was evacuated. The only direct result of the Mission was the opening of the three trade marts and the establishment of a British Trade Agent at Gyantse.

Chinese Action

The sequel to the Anglo-Russian Agreement was dramatic, although it ought not to have been unexpected. On the approach of the Younghusband Mission the Dalai Lama fled to Urga, the sacred city of the Buddhists in Mongolia. He left the internal government of Tibet in confusion, and one of Sir Francis Younghusband's great difficulties was to find Tibetan officials who would undertake the responsibility of signing the Treaty. Now the suzerainty of China over Tibet had been explicitly reaffirmed. It was asserted that he would be held responsible for the foreign relations of Tibet. In the past this suzerainty, having been a constitutional fiction, it was inevitable that China should take steps to see that she had the power to make her will respected at Lhasa. To this end she proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a province of China. In 1908 Chao Kih-feng, Acting Viceroy in the neighbouring province of Szechuen, was appointed Resident in Tibet. He proceeded gradually to establish his authority, marching through eastern Tibet and treating the people with great severity. Meanwhile the Dalai Lama, finding his presence at Urga, the seat of another Buddhist Pontiff, irksome, had taken refuge in Si-ning. Thence he proceeded to Peking, where he arrived in 1908, was received by the Court and despatched to resume his duties at Lhasa. Moving by leisurely stages he arrived there at Christmas, 1909. But it was soon apparent that the ideas of the Dalai Lama and of the Chinese Government had little in common. The Dalai Lama expected to resume the temporal and spiritual despotism which he had exercised prior to 1904. The Chinese intended to deprive him of all temporal power and preserve him as a spiritual pope. The Tibetans had already been exasperated by the pressure of the Chinese soldiery. The report that a strong Chinese force was moving on Lhasa so alarmed the Dalai Lama that he fled from Lhasa, and by the irony of fate sought a refuge in India. He

was chased to the frontier by Chinese troops, and took up his abode in Darjeeling, whilst Chinese troops overran Tibet.

Later Stages.

The British Government, acting on the representations of the Government of India made strong protests to China against this action. They pointed out that Great Britain while disclaiming any desire to interfere with the internal administration of Tibet, could not be indifferent to disturbances in the peace of a country which was a neighbour on intimate terms with other neighbouring States on our frontier, especially with Nepal, and pressed that an effective Tibetan Government be maintained. The attitude of the Chinese Government was that no more troops had been sent to Tibet than were necessary for the preservation of order, that China had no intention of converting Tibet into a province but that being responsible for the good conduct of Tibet, she must be in a position to see that her wishes were respected by the Tibetans. Finally the Chinese remarked that the Dalai Lama was such an impossible person that they had been compelled again to depose him. Here the matter might have rested but for the revolution in China. That revolution broke out in Szechuen, and one of the first victims was Chao Erh feng. Cut off from all support from China, surrounded by a hostile and infuriated populace, the Chinese troops in Tibet were in a hopeless case; they surrendered and sought escape not through China, but through India, by way of Darjeeling and Calcutta. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa, and in 1913 in the House of Lords on July 28, Lord Morley stated the policy of the British Government in relation to these changes. He said the declaration of the President of the Chinese Republic, saying that Tibet came within the sphere of Chinese internal administration, and that Tibet was to be regarded as on an equal footing with other provinces of China, was met by a very vigorous protest from the British Government. The Chinese Government subsequently accepted the principle that China is to have no right of active intervention in the internal administration of Tibet, and agreed to the constitution of a conference to discuss the relation of the three countries. This Convention met at Simla when Sir Henry McMahon, Foreign Secretary to the Govern-

ment of India, Mr Ivan Chen representative of China, and Mr Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, threatened out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has been made on the subject, it is understood that a Convention was initiated in June which recognised the complete autonomy of Tibet proper, with the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhasa with a suitable guard. A semi-autonomous zone was to be constituted in Eastern Tibet, in which the Chinese position was to be relatively much stronger. But this Convention, it is understood, has not been ratified by the Chinese Government, owing to the difficulty of defining Outer and Inner Tibet, and in 1913 Tibet took the offensive and threw off the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty. When the Chinese province of Szechuan went over to the South, the Central Government at Peking was unable to finance the frontier forces or to withstand the Tibetan advance, which was directed from Lhasa and appeared to be ably managed. After the Tibetan army had occupied some towns on the confines of the Szechuan marches, hostilities were suspended and an armistice was concluded.

From what has gone before it will be seen that the importance which formerly attached to the political condition of Tibet was much less a local than an external question and was influenced by our relations with Russia and China rather than with our relations with Tibet. Russia having relapsed into a state of considerable confusion and China having relapsed into a state of absolute confusion these external forces have disappeared, and Tibet no longer looms on the Indian political horizon. The veil has been drawn afresh over Lhasa, and affairs in that country pursue an isolated course, with this considerable difference. The Dalai Lama is now on terms of the greatest cordiality with the Government of India. In 1920 he requested that a British officer should be sent to discuss with him the position in Central Asia brought about by the Revolution in Russia and the collapse of Government in China, and Mr Bell, C.M.G., I.C.S. Political Officer in Yikim, was deputed for this purpose. In 1922 telephonic communication between Lhasa and India was established.

*British Trade Agent, Gyantse and Yaktung—
Captain D. R. Smith*

VIII —THE NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER

The position on the northern frontier has been considered as if the British line were contiguous with that of Tibet. This is not so. The real frontier States are Kashmir, Kopal, Sikkim and Bhutan. From Chitral to Gilgit, now the northernmost posts of the Indian Government, to Assam, with the exception of the small wedge between Kashmir and Nepal, where the British district of Kumaon is thrust right up to the confines of Tibet, for a distance of nearly fifteen hundred miles there is a narrow strip of native territory between British India and the true frontier. The first of these frontier States is Kashmir. The characteristics of this State are considered under Indian States

(*q.v.*), it is almost the only important Native State in India with frontier responsibilities and it worthily discharges them through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of infantry and two Mountain Batteries composed mainly of the Rajput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladak. Then we come to the long narrow strip of Nepal. This Gurkha State stands in special relation with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British Resident at Kathmandu exercises no influence on the internal administration. The governing

machine in Nepal is also peculiar. The Mahara (Dhira), who comes from the Secodia Rajput clan, the bluest blood in India, takes no part in the administration. All power vests in the Prime Minister, who occupies a place equivalent to that of the Mayors of the Palace, or the Shoguns of Japan. The present Prime Minister Mr Chandra Shamsher has visited England and has given conspicuous evidence of his attachment to the British Government. Nepal is the main Indian outpost against Tibet or against Chinese aggression through Tibet. The friction between the Chinese and the Nepalese used to be frequent, and in the eighteenth century the Chinese marched an army to the confines of Khatmandu—one of the most remarkable military achievements in the history of Asia. Under the firm rule of the present Prime Minister Nepal has been largely free from internal disturbance and has been raised to a strong bulwark of India. Nepal is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha Infantry, who form such a splendid part of the fighting arm of the Indian Empire. Beyond Nepal are the smaller States of Bhutan and Sikkim, whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhists by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and taking a guarantee that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that Great Britain would protect the rights and interests of these States. At the request of the Nepalese Government a British railway expert was deputed to visit the country and advise on the best means of improving communications with India. As the result of his report the Nepalese Government have decided to construct a light railway from Bishakhori to Razaul. Great success has attended the efforts of the Nepalese Government to abolish slavery.

Assam and Burma

When we come to the Assam border tribes—the Daffas, the Miris, the Abors and the Malsmis. Excepting the Abors none of these tribes have recently given trouble. The murder of Mr Wilkinson and Dr Gregerson by the Minyong Abors in 1911 made necessary an expedition to the Dihang valley of the Abor country on the N. E. frontier. A force of 2,500 and about 400

military police was employed from October 1911 to April 1912 in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murder was delivered up. The cost of the expedition was Rs. 21,00,000. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmis and Miris countries. Close contact with these forest-dwelling and leech infested hills has not encouraged any desire to establish more intimate relations with them. The area occupied by the Nagas runs northwards from Manipur. The Nagas are a Tibeto-Burman people, devoted to the practice of head hunting, which is still vigorously prosecuted by the independent tribes. The Chin Hills is a tract of mountainous country to the south of Manipur. The corner of India from the Assam boundary to the northern boundary of the Shan States is for the most part included in the Myittha and Bhamo districts of Burma. Over the greater part of this area a labyrinth of hills in the north, no direct administrative control is at present exercised. It is peopled by the Shans and the Kachins. Civilization is said to be progressing and steps have been taken to prevent encroachments from the Chinese side. There is a considerable trade with China through Bhamo. On the Eastern frontier of Burma are the Shan States, with an area of fifty thousand square miles and a population of 1,500,000. These States are still administered by the Sawbwas or hereditary chiefs, subject to the guidance of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents. The Northern Shan Rail way to Lashio, opened in 1903, was meant to be a stage in the construction of a direct railway link with China, but this idea has been put aside for it is seen that there can never be a trade which would justify the heavy expenditure. The Southern Shan States are being developed by railway connection. The five Karen States lie on the frontier south of the Shan States. South of Karen the frontier runs between Siam and the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The relations between the Indian Government and the progressive kingdom of Siam are excellent. A notable humanitarian development of recent years is the success of the measures to abolish slavery in the Hukawng Valley. In this remote place in the north east of Burma a wild system of slavery existed, but in response to the initiative and pressure of British officers they were all freed by April 1923.

Railways to India.

The prospect of linking Europe and Asia by a railway running eastwards through Asia Minor has fascinated men's minds for generations. The plans suggested have, owing to the British connection with India, always lain in the direction of lines approaching India. More than 40 years ago a Select Committee of the House of Commons sat for two years to consider the question of a Euphrates Valley railway. The Shah of Persia applied to the British Foreign Office for the investment of British capital in Persian railway construction many years before the end of the nineteenth century. A proposal was put forward in 1895 for a line of 1,000 miles from Cairo and Port Said to Koweit, at the head of the Persian Gulf. While these projects were in the air, German enterprise stepped in and made a small beginning by constructing the Anatolian railway system. Its lines start from Scutari, on the southern shore of the Bosphorus, opposite Constantinople, and serve the extreme western end of Asia Minor. And upon this foundation was based the Turkish concession to Germans to build the Baghdad Railway.

Meanwhile, Russia was pushing her railways from various directions into the Central Asian territory running along the northern frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan to the borders of Chinese Turkestan. The construction of a Trans-Persian railway, connecting India, across Persia with the Russian lines between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea came to the forefront after the conclusion of the historic Anglo-Russian agreement regarding Persia.

The Germans pushed forward their Baghdad railway project with a calculating shrewdness arising from their estimate of the value it would possess in their grand aim to overthrow the British Empire. The outbreak of the great war and the success of the Germans in invading Turkey into it saw the final stages of the construction of the railway pressed forward with passionate energy. Thus, before the overthrow of the Turks and Germans in Asia Minor and of the Germans in France the railway was completed and in use from Scutari across Anatolia, over the Taurus Mountains to Aleppo and thence eastward across the Euphrates to a point between Nisibis and Mosul. The Germans had also by that time constructed a line to Baghdad at the eastern end of the route, northwards from Baghdad to a point a considerable distance beyond Samarra.

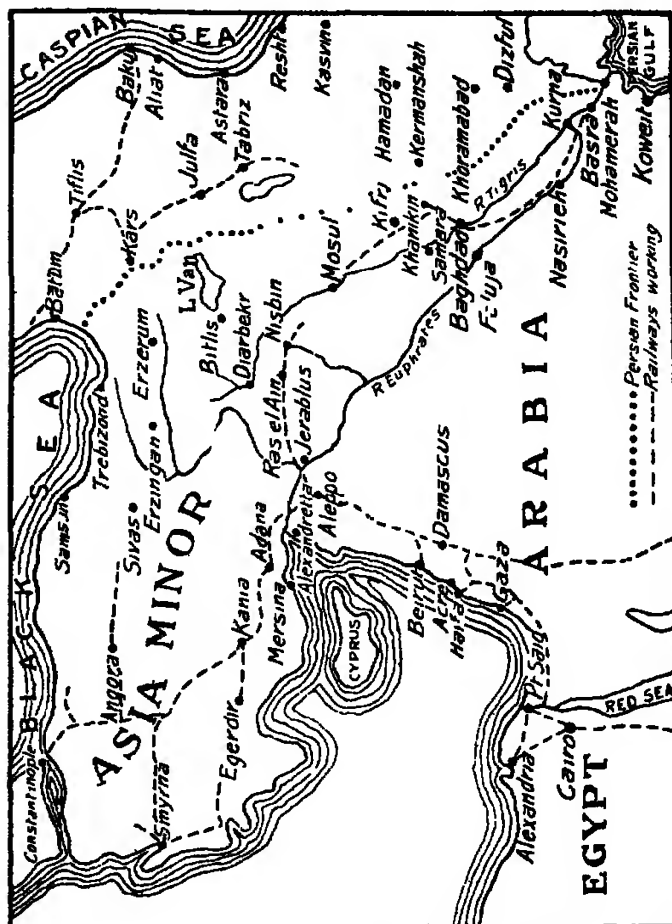
The war compelled the British to undertake considerable railway development northward from Basra, the port at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab, the broad stream in which the Tigris and Euphrates, after their junction, flow into the head of the Persian Gulf. The system consists of a metre-gauge line from Basra to Haerath, on the Euphrates, thence northwards to Baghdad, the line passing a considerable distance westward to Kut-el-Amara, of historic fame. From Baghdad the line runs eastward approximately to the foot of the pass through which the Persian road crosses the frontier of that country. A line branches

off in the neighbourhood of Kirkuk in the direction of Mosul. A line also runs westward from Baghdad to Fajr, on the Euphrates. With the Turkish Nationalists in control of Anatolia any question of the completion of the through Baghdad line is indefinitely delayed.

The Trans-Persian line to join the Russian Caucasian system and the Indian railways first assumed proportions of practical importance in the winter of 1911. Both the Russian and the Indian railway systems were by then well developed up to the point likely to be the termini of a Trans-Persian line. The Russian system reached Julla, on the Russo-Persian frontier in the Caucasus. During the war this line has been carried thence southward into the region east and south-east of Lake Urmia. The Indian railway system, on the borderland of India and Persia, was similarly much extended and improved during the war. A new agreement which was negotiated between England and Persia specially provided for British assistance in the development of Persian natural resources and particularly for the extension and improvement of Persian roads suitable for motor traffic but the agreement came to naught.

There remains the possibility of linking the Russian and Indian railway system by way of Afghanistan. The suggestion has often been made in recent years that the Russian line from Merv to Herat, on the northern frontier of Afghanistan should be linked to the Indian line which proceeds from Quetta to the Afghan border on Chaman. The distance between the railway heads is about 250 miles. But there have always for strategic reasons been strong military objections to the railway across Afghanistan and after the death of the late Amir Habibullah the Afghan Government flatly opposed any suggestion for carrying the Indian or Russian railway system within their borders. What the present Afghan Government think about the matter was not shown up to the time this article was written, but the strange situation in Central Asia and beyond the Indian North West Frontier does not suggest the early removal of the strategic difficulties. The completion of a broad gauge line extending the Indian railway system through the Khyber Pass to Landi Khana at its western extremity, opens a prospect of further possible rail connections with Afghanistan.

Britain's special interests in regard to Persian communications have hitherto primarily been associated with lines running inland from the Persian Gulf, to supersede the old mule routes. Special importance has for many years been attached to schemes for a railway from Mohammedan, at the opening of the Karun Valley where the Karun River runs into the Shat-el-Arab, just below Basra, northwards into the rich highland country of Western Persia where the valuable West Persian oil wells also lie. Britain has long established special relations with the Karun Valley and has a large trade there.



Foreign Consular Officers in India.

Name.	Appointment	Station
Afghanistan		
Ali Qadr Khwaja Hidayat Ullah Khan	Consul General	Delhi
Mr. Abdul Razaq Khan	Consul	Bombay
Mr. Abdul Rauf Khan	Do	Karachi
Argentine Republic		
Don Victor M. Molina	Consul	Calcutta
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Do
Austria		
*Sir Hormusjee Cowasjee Dinshaw, Kt	Consul	Aden
M V O O B L (on leave)		
*Mr D H C Dinshaw (acting)	Do	Do.
*Rignor E. Stella (on leave)	Do	Bombay
*Mr A W Stephens (acting)	Do	Do
Vacant	Do	Calcutta
Belgium		
Monsieur L. Genie	Consul General	Calcutta.
Monsieur T J Clement	Do	Bombay
*Mr R. Somerville Murray O B E (on leave)	Consul	Aden
*Mr A E Adams (acting)	Do	Do
*Mr J J Flookhart (on leave)	Do	Karachi.
*Mr A K E Hogg (acting)	Do	Do
*Mr Y E L Worke (on leave)	Do	Madras.
*Mr A J Ekins (acting)	Do	Do
*Mr C G Wodehouse	Do	Rangoon
Bolivia		
*Señor Don Marcel Gresoux	Consul-General	Calcutta
*Mr J A Johnston (on leave)	Consul	Bombay
*Mr K R Blinning (acting)	Do	Do.
Brazil		
Dr. Manoel Agostinho de Heredia	Consul	Bombay
Señor V. Avelino	Do	Calcutta
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
*Mr E V Simmonds	Do	Calcutta
*Mr A C Atkinson	Do	Do
*Mr V B Nasaroth	Do	Karachi.
*Mr C H Stankov	Do	Madras
*Mr C F Pratt	Do	Rangoon
*Mr W Smith Hopburn	Consular Agent	Do
Chile		
Señor Don Marcos G. Eudobro	Consul-General	Calcutta
Vacant	Consul	Bombay
*Mr H W Child (acting)	Do	Rangoon
*Monsieur J G Bendien (acting) (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Bombay
*Mr A R Lelshman	Do.	Chittagong.
China		
Mr C F Leo	Consul General	Calcutta
Mr Ju Chun Hau	Consul	Rangoon.
Mr Chang-pei Liang	Vice-Consul	Calcutta
Costa Rica		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
Cuba		
Señor W F Pals	Consul	Bombay
Señor Don Enrique Molina Y Enríquez	Do	Calcutta.
Monsieur Fernando Bridaty del Reingo	Do	Do

Name.	Appointment.	Station
Czechoslovak Republic.		
*Mr Alexander Klauder	Consul	Aden
Dr Peter Klemens	Do	Bombay
Mr J Strakaty (acting)	Do	Do
Mr Josef Lusk	Do	Calcutta
*Mr F Pollak (on leave)	Do	Karachi
*Mr J Graham (acting)	Do	Do
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Bombay
Mr G S Mahomed	Consular Agent	Do
Denmark.		
Vacant	Consul General	Calcutta
*Mr E Somerville Murray, O B E (on leave)	Consul	Aden
*Mr Stanley Nicholas Day (acting)	Do	Do.
*Mr E H Curling	Do	Bombay.
*Mr A L B Tucker (on leave)	Do	Calcutta.
*Mr A M Wardley (acting)	Do.	Do.
*Mr A Hansen	Do	Calcutt.
*Mr W M Browning	Do	Madras
*Mr C J J Britton	Do	Rangoon
*Mr A N Wardley	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do	Karachi
*Mr L E C Everard	Do.	Moulmein
Dominica		
*Dr P C Sen	Consul	Calcutta
Ecuador		
*Mr R G Dixon, O B E (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta
*Mr T E Cunningham (acting)	Do	Do.
Finland		
*Mr C H A R Hardcastle	Consul	Bombay
*Mr Carr Joakim	Do	Rangoon.
*Mr J W Macfarlane	Vice Consul	Madras
France		
Monsieur F A G A Danjon	Consul General	Calcutta.
Monsieur E P F Chaland	Consul	Bombay
*Monsieur M Garreau	Commercial Agent	Calcutta
*Monsieur E Chaise	Consular Agent	Aden
Vacant	Do	Akyab
*Mr E G Bedford (acting)	Do	Chittagong
*Mr E L Price, C I E O B E	Do	Karachi
*Monsieur E Glenat	Do	Madras
*Mr E B Howison	Do	Rangoon
Vacant	Do	Telicherry
Germany		
Count R Von Bassewitz	Consul General	Calcutta
Herr Karl Kapp	Consul	Bombay
Vacant	Do	Do
*Herr H A W Huchting (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon
*Herr B Gloystein (on leave)	Do	Do
*Herr Edwin Oscar Bloech (acting)	Do.	Do
Dr Otto Eberl	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Greece		
Vacant	Consul General	Calcutta.
*Mr A G Georgiad (in charge of the Consulate General)	Consul	Do
*Mr Philon N Philon	Do	Bombay
*Mr J Humphrey, O B E	Do	Karachi.
*Mr B A Archdale	Deputy Consul	Do

* Honorary.

Name.	Appointment.	Station
Hungary †		
*Mr Eugene Ludwig (on leave)	Consul	Madras
*Mr F H Hooper (acting) (on leave)	Do	Do.
*Mr A B Killick (acting)	Do	Do
Italy		
Cav Nobile De Giuseppe Serpi	Consul General	Bombay
Cav Dr Soarpa	Do	Calcutta
Comm Dr Franco Canero Modici	Consul	Aden
Vacant	Do	Calcutta
*Dr G B Secco	Vice Consul	Aden
Signor Cav A Mantiato (on leave)	Do	Bombay
*Monsieur Mario Cremonino (acting)	Do	Do
Vacant	Do	Calcutta
*Dr A Scasas	Consular Agent	Akyab
*Signor B Stuparich (acting)	Do	Karachi
Vacant	Do	Madras
*Dr Antonio Scasas, M D	Do	Rangoon
Japan.		
Mr S Sakoh	Consul General	Calcutta
Mr S Kurihara	Consul	Bombay
Mr S Kuga (acting)	Do	Rangoon
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Latvia		
*Mr O Turton	Consul	Bombay
*Mr J H Wilson	Do	Madras
Liberia.		
Vacant	Do,	Calcutta
Luxemburg		
*Monsieur Alphonse Als (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Bombay
*Mr T J O tment (acting)	Do,	Do
Mexico		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta
Netherlands.		
Dr H G Von Oven	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr W Meek (on leave)	Consul	Aden
*Mr F O Brice Baunett (acting)	Do	Do
*Mr A. J Staehelin	Do.	Bombay
Vacant	Do	Do.
*Mr A G Greenfield (acting)	Do	Karachi
*Mr A D Charles (acting)	Do	Madras.
*Mr A Verhage	Do	Rangoon
*Mr J J Oyeveaar (acting)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta
Nicaragua.		
*Mr C H. A R. Hardcastle	Consul	Bombay
Vacant	Do	Calcutta

* Honorary

† Consular interests of Hungary at Aden in charge of Italy

Foreign Consular Officers.

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Name	Appointment.	Station.
Norway		
Monsieur G. Løchen (also in charge for Sweden)	Consul-General	Calcutta
*Mr W Meek (on leave)	Consul	Aden
Mr F O Brice Bennett (Acting)	Do	Do
*Mr Torleif Asland	Do	Bombay
*Mr A S Todd	Do	Madras
*Mr J B Glass (on leave)	Do	Rangoon
*Mr M W Gardner (Acting)	Do	Do
*Mr R. W Johnston	Vice-Consul	Akyab
*Mr C M Penny	Do.	Bombay
Vacant	Do.	Karachi
*Mr J J Flockhart (on leave)	Do.	Do
*Mr A K S Hogg (Acting)	Do	Moulmein
*Mr W S Chapman	Do	
Panama.		
*Cay E Benasagilo (acting) (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta
*Mr B Gupta (acting)	Do	Do
Persia.		
Mirza Bagher Khan Akiml	Consul-General	Delhi
Mirza Jalsuddin Khan, Keyhan	Consul ..	Bombay
*Mirza Ahmed Isphani (acting)	Do ..	Calcutta
Mirza Abdul Vahab Khan Badar (on leave)	Do	Karachi
Mr Abdossamad Khan Allahadi	Do. ..	Do To be appointed, not yet reached
Vacant	Do.	India
Haji Gholam Hussain Shirazee	Do.	Madras
*Mr B S McNiece (acting)	Vice-Consul	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do	Karachi
		Moulmein
Peru		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr H V Simmons (acting)	Consul	Do
Mr J A Robin (temporarily in charge)	Do.	Rangoon
Portugal.		
Dr Amadeu da Silva	Consul-General	Bombay
*Sir Hormuzjee Cowasjee Dinshaw, Kt.	Consul	Aden
M.V.O O B E (on leave)	Do	Do
*Mr F H C Dinshaw (Acting)	Do.	Calcutta
*Mr G C Moses	Do	Madras.
*Rev Avelino deSouza Vila-Verde	Do	Rangoon
*Senor A. M. deSouza (on leave)	Do	Bombay
*Senor A. P. J. Fernandes	Vice-Consul	Karachi
*Dr I T Afonso	Do	Rangoon
*Senor T M V da Silveira (Acting Consul)	Do	
Roumania		
*Capt S A Paymaster, I M S (ret'd)	Consul	Bombay
Salvador		
*Mr F.E. Martin	Consul	Calcutta
Siam		
*Mr O de M. Kellock	Consul-General	Calcutta
*Mr G L Winterbotham	Consul	Bombay
*Mr W R H Taylor	Do.	Moulmein.
*Mr H B Prior	Do	Rangoon

* Honorary.

Name	Appointment	Station
Spain		
Senor Don Luis de Olivaros	Consul	Bombay
*Monsieur E Chaise (absent)	Vice-Consul	Aden
*Senor Don A F Correa (acting)	Do.	Do
Dr D S Fraser	Do.	Bombay
*Mr M Cresson	Do.	Calcutta
*Mr W Young	Do.	Karachi
*Mr W B Ireland	Do.	Madras
*Mr H W Child	Do.	Rangoon
Sweden.		
Monsieur C A E Siltwerthelm (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta
Consul for Sweden in Charge		
*Mr A E Adams (on leave)	Consul	Aden
*Mr E S Murray, O B E (acting)	Do.	Do
*Mr A Wöler	Do.	Bombay
*Mr E A Pearson	Do.	Karachi
*Mr K P Warrington	Do.	Madras
*Mr A M. Rogerson	Do.	Rangoon
*Mr T H Wheeler (on leave)	Vice-Consul	Calcutta
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Switzerland		
*Monsieur E J Lieberherr	Consul-General	Bombay
*Monsieur M M Staub	Consul	Calcutta
*Monsieur J H Heer	Do.	Madras
United States of America		
Mr W H Beach	Consul	Bombay
Mr Harry Campbell	Do.	Do
Mr R. Y. Jarvis (In charge of the Consulate General)	Do.	Calcutta.
Mr R L Willey	Do.	Do.
Mr R B McNiece	Consul	Karachi
Mr E B Montgomery	Do.	Madras
Mr G J Hearing	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr O E. Huston	Vice-Consul	Aden
Mr W W Minor	Do.	Bombay
Mr L E Stayceant	Do.	Calcutta
Mr G M Abbott	Do.	Do
Mr Dorey G Fisher	Do.	Do
Mr E S Huerta	Do.	Do
Mr Lloyd E Riggs	Do.	Karachi
Miscant	Do.	Madras
Mr H W Russell	Do.	Do
Mr Leland C Altaffer	Do.	Rangoon
*Dr H B Osborn	Do.	Do
Vacant	Consular Agent	Aden
Vacant	Do.	Akyab
Vacant	Do.	Basseln
		Moulmein
Uruguay		
*Captain S A Paymaster	Consul	Bombay
*Mr J F Barton (on leave)	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr J B Turnbull (Acting)	Do.	Do
*Mr J B Turnbull	Vice Consul	Do.
Venezuela		
*Mr L. de Britton	Consul	Calcutta.

* Honorary

The Army.

The great sepoy army of India originated in the small establishments of guards known as *peons*, enrolled for the protection of the factories of the East India Company but sepoys were first enlisted and disciplined by the French, who appeared in India in 1665. Before this detachments of soldiers were sent from England to Bombay, and as early as 1686 the first fortified position was occupied by the East India Company at Armagon, near Masulipatam. Madras was acquired in 1680, but in 1684 the garrison of Fort St. George consisted of only ten men. In 1691 Bombay was occupied by 400 soldiers, and in 1698 the number was only 285 of whom 88 were English and the rest French, Portuguese and Indians.

After the declaration of war with France in 1744 the forces were considerably increased, but this did not prevent the French capturing Madras in 1746. Following the French example, the English raised considerable sepoy forces and largely increased the military establishments. In 1748 Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St. David to command the forces of the Company. The English foothold in India was then precarious and the French under Duplex were contemplating fresh attacks. It became necessary for the English Company to form a larger military establishment. The new commandant at once set about the organisation and discipline of his small force, and the garrison was given a company formation. This was the beginning of the regular Indian Army of which Lawrence subsequently became Commander in Chief. In Madras the European companies were developed into the Madras Fusiliers, similar companies in Bengal and Bombay became the 1st Bengal and 1st Bombay Fusiliers. The native infantry were similarly organised by Lawrence and Olive. By degrees Royal Regiments were sent to India, the first being the 39th Foot, which arrived in 1754.

Struggle with the French.—From this time for a century or more the army in India was engaged in constant war. After a prolonged war with the French, whom Duplex had by 1760 raised to the position of the leading power in India, the efforts of Stringer Lawrence, Olive and Eyre Coote completed the downfall of their rivals, and the power of England was established by the battle of Plassey in Bengal, and at Wandewash in Southern India, where the French were finally defeated in 1761. A number of independent States, owing nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Delhi, had risen on the decline of the Mughal Empire, some ruled by Mahratta Princes and others by Musalman adventurers such as Hyder Ali of Mysore. A prolonged struggle ensued with the latter and his son and successor Tipu Sultan, which ended only with the defeat and death of Tipu and the capture of Seringapatam in 1799.

Reorganisation of 1796.—In 1796 the Indian armies, which had been organised on the Presidency system, were reorganised. The European troops were 13,000 strong and

the Indians numbered some 67,000, the infantry being generally formed into 75 regiments of two battalions each. In Bengal, regiments were formed by linking existing battalions of ten companies each with large establishments of English officers. The Madras and Bombay armies were at the same time reorganised on similar lines, and cavalry and artillery companies were raised.

In 1798, the Marquis Wellesley arrived as Governor-General firmly imbued with the necessity of destroying the last vestiges of French influence. In pursuance of this policy he reduced Mysore, where Tipu was intriguing with the French and then turned his attention to the Mahratta States in which Sindia had established power over the Mughal Emperor at Delhi by means of a large regular army offered by Europeans under the French adventurist Poron. In campaigns against Sindia in Hindustan by a British Army under General Lake, and in the Deccan against that prince and the Raja of Berar by an army under General Wellesley afterwards Duke of Wellington, the power of these Chiefs was broken in the battles of Laswari and Amaya. French influence was finally destroyed, and the Mughal Emperor was released from the domination of the Mahrattas. Subsequently Holkar also was reduced, and British power established on a firm footing.

Mutiny at Vellore.—The Indian Army had been from time to time subject to incidents of mutiny which were the precursors of the great cataclysm of 1857. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred at the Fort of Vellore in 1806 when the native troops suddenly broke out and killed the majority of the European officers and soldiers quartered in the fort, while the striped flag of the Sultan of Mysore, whose sons were confined there, was raised upon the ramparts. The mutiny was suppressed by Colonel Gillespie, who galloped over from Arcot at the head of the 10th Light Dragoons, blew in the gate of the fort, and destroyed the mutineers. This retribution put a stop to any further outbreaks in the army.

Overseas Expeditions.—Several important overseas expeditions were undertaken in the early part of the nineteenth century. *Bourbon was taken from the French*. *Ceylon and the Spice Islands were wrested from the Dutch* and Java was conquered in 1811 by a force largely composed of Bengal troops which had volunteered for this service.

In 1814, the Nepal War took place in which the brave Gillespie, who had distinguished himself in Java, was killed when leading the assault on the fort of Kalunga. The Gurkhas were overcome in this war after offering a stout resistance.

In 1817, hostilities again broke out with the Mahrattas, who rose against the British during the progress of operations against the Pindaris. Practically the whole army took the field and all India was turned into a vast camp. The

Mahratta Chiefs of Poona, Nagpur, and Indore rose in succession, and were beaten respectively at Kirkee, Sitabdi, and Malhapor. This was the last war in Southern India. The tide of war rolled to the north never to return. In the Punjab to which our frontier now extended, our army came into touch with the great military community of the Sikhs.

In 1824 the armies were reorganised, the double-battalion regiments being separated, and the battalions numbered according to the dates they were raised. The Bengal Army was organised in three brigades of horse artillery, five battalions of foot artillery, two regiments of European and 68 of Indian infantry, 5 regiments of regular and 8 of irregular cavalry. The Madras and Bombay armies were constituted on similar lines, though of lesser strength.

First Afghan War and Sikh Wars.—In 1839, a British Army advanced into Afghanistan and occupied Cabul. There followed the murder of the British Envoys and the disastrous retreat in which the army perished. This disaster was in some measure retrieved by subsequent operations, but it had far-reaching effects on British prestige. The people of the Punjab had witnessed these unfortunate operations they had seen the lost legions which never returned, and although they saw also the avenging armies they no longer regarded them with their former awe. Sikh aggression led to hostilities in 1845-46, when a large portion of the Bengal Army took the field under Sir Hugh Gough. The Sikhs were defeated after stubborn fights at Muddki and Ferozeshahr the opening battles but did not surrender until they had been overthrown at the battles of Aliwal and Sobroon. Two years later, an outbreak at Multan caused the Second Sikh War when, after an indecisive action at Chillianwala, our brave soldiers were finally overcome at Gujrat, and the Punjab was annexed. Other campaigns of this period were the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the Second Burmese War, the first having taken place in 1824.

The conquest of the Punjab extended over the frontier to the country inhabited by those turbulent tribes which have given so much trouble during the past sixty years while they have furnished many soldiers to our army. To keep order on this border the Punjab Frontier Force was established and was constantly engaged in small expeditions which while they involved little bloodshed, kept the force employed and involved much arduous work.

The Indian Mutiny.—On the eve of the mutiny in 1857 there were in the Bengal Army 21,000 British and 137,000 Indian troops in the Madras Army 8,000 British and 49,000 Indian troops, and in the Bombay Army 9,000 British and 45,000 Indian troops. The proportion of Indian to British was therefore too large for safety. The causes of the mutiny were many and various. Among these were the annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie, especially that of Oudh from which the greater part of the Bengal Army was drawn; interference with the privileges of the sepoy with respect to certain allowances, and lack of power on the part of commanding officers either to punish or reward. The final spark which fired the revolt was the introduction of a new cartridge. The muskets of those days were supplied with a cartridge

in which the powder was enclosed in a paper cover, which had to be bitten off to expose the powder to ignition. In 1857 a new cartridge was introduced with paper of a glazed texture which it was currently reported was greased with the fat of swine and oxen, and therefore unclean alike for Muhammadans and Hindus. This was interpreted as an attempt to destroy the caste and the religion of the sepoys. Skilful agitators exploited this grievance, which was not without foundation, and added reports that flour was mixed with bone dust and sugar refined with the blood of oxen.

Disaffection culminated in mutiny at Barrackpore and in an outbreak at Barrackpore where sepoy Mangal Pande attacked a European officer. The next most serious manifestation was the refusal of men of the 3rd Bengal Cavalry at Meerut to take the obnoxious cartridge. These men were tried and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, their fetters being riveted on parade on the 9th May. Next day the troops in Meerut rose and, aided by the mob, burned the houses of the Europeans and murdered many. The troops then went off to Delhi. Unfortunately there was in Meerut no senior officer capable of dealing with the situation. The European troops in the place remained inactive and the mutineers were allowed to depart unmolested to spread the flames of rebellion.

Delhi is the historic capital of India. On its time worn walls brood the prestige of a thousand years of Empire. It contained a great magazine of ammunition. Yet Delhi was held only by few Indian battalions, who join of the mutineers. The Europeans who did not succeed in escaping were massacred and the Delhi Emperor was proclaimed supreme in India. The capital constituted a nucleus to which the troops who mutinied in many places flocked to the standard of the Mughal. An army was assembled for the recovery of Delhi but the city was not captured until the middle of September. In the meantime mutiny had spread. The massacres of Cawnpore and Jhansi took place and Lucknow was besieged until its relief on the 27th September. The rebellion spread throughout Central India and the territory that now forms the Central Provinces, which were not recovered until Sir Hugh Rose's operations in 1859 ended in the defeat of the Rani of Jhansi.

Minor Campaigns.—During the period until 1870, when the Second Afghan War began, there were many minor campaigns including the China War of 1860, the Amoy Campaign, and the Abyssinian War. Then followed the Afghan War in which the leading figure was Lord Roberts. There were expeditions to Egypt and China, and Frontier Campaigns of which the most important was the Tirah Campaign of 1897. There were also the prolonged operations which led up to and ensued upon the annexation of Burma several campaigns in Africa, and the expeditions to Lhasa. But until 1914, since the Afghan War, the army of India, except that portion of the British garrison which was sent to South Africa in 1899, had little severe fighting, although engaged in many arduous enterprises.

Reorganisation after the Mutiny.—In 1857 the East India Company ceased to exist

and their army was taken over by the Crown. At this time the army was organized into three armies, viz. Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 65,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

Several minor re-organizations took place during the following years such as the linking of three Regiments together and the raising of (class) Regiments and Companies. In 1885 the next large reorganization took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed, viz. Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

Lord Kitchener's Scheme.—This system lasted until 1904 when under Lord Kitchener's re-organization the Madras Command was abolished and the Army divided into three Commands—the Northern, Eastern and Western corresponding to the Punjab, Bombay and Bengal Commands.

In 1907, Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders, retention of such powers by Lieutenant Generals of Commands led to delay in the despatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1918 and 1917 when both had practically the same functions as their predecessors. It was now realised that administration was being unduly centralised at Army Headquarters and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. H. Q., therefore a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1918. With the alteration of the designation Army to "Command" at this time, a considerable increase was made in the administrative staffs of the two Commands and the General Officers Commanding were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy new principles or war.

The commands were increased to four in 1920, each under a General Officer Commanding in Chief.

Present System of Administration

The essential features of the Army as constructed on its present basis will be found in "The Army in India and its Evolution" a publication issued in 1924 with the authority of the Government of India.

The Secretary of State, as one of His Majesty's Ministers has a special responsibility and authority in regard to the military administration in India.

The Secretary of State's principal adviser on Indian military affairs is the Secretary in the Military Department of the India Office. The post is filled by an officer of the Indian Army of high rank with recent Indian experience. The appointment is at present held by Field Marshal Sir Claude Jacob, G.C.B., K.O.F.I., K.C.M.G., who was formerly General Officer Commanding in-Chief of the Northern Command and officiated as Commander in

Chief from April 1925 to August 1925. The Military Secretary is assisted by one first grade staff officer, selected from the Indian Army in order that he may keep in touch with the current Indian affairs, the Military Secretary is expected to visit India during the tenure of his office. In addition, by a practice which has obtained for many years, a retired Indian Army officer of high rank has a seat upon the Secretary of State's Council.

The superintendence, direction and control of the civil and military government of India are vested in the Governor-General in Council, who is required to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State. The Viceroy or Executive Council exercises in respect of Army administration the same authority and functions as they exercise in respect of other departments of the Government in the first phase of the representative institutions conferred upon India by the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms. Scheme Army expenditure and the direction of military policy have been excluded from the control of the Indian Legislature.

The Commander in Chief.—The next authority in the chain of administrative arrangements is His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, who by custom is also the Army Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. The appointment is held by His Excellency General Sir Philip Walhouse (retired) Bart. G.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., A.D.C. British Service who succeeded Field Marshal Sir William Birdwood. He is also a member of the Council of State. All the work connected with the administration of the Army, the formulation and execution of the military policy of the Government of India, the responsibility for maintaining every branch of the Army combatant and non-combatant, in a state of efficiency, and the supreme direction of any military operations based upon India are centred in one authority,—the Commander-in-Chief and Army Member. In addition, he administers the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India. The Commander-in-Chief is assisted in the executive side of his administration by 4 Principal Staff Officers, viz., the Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General and the Master-General of Ordnance.

The Army Department.—The Department is administered by a Secretary who like other Secretaries in the civil departments, is a Secretary to the Government of India as a whole possessing the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy, he is also for the purposes of Sub-section 4, Section 26 of the Regimental Debts Act 1895 (58 Vict. C. 5) and the Regulations made thereunder Secretary to the Government of India in the Military Department, and for purposes of the Royal Indian Marine, Secretary to the Government of India in the Marine Department. He also exercises the powers vested in the Army Council by the Geneva Convention Act, 1911, so far as that Act applies to India under the Order in Council No. 1551 of 1915. He is assisted by a Deputy Secretary, an Establishment Officer, a Director of Military Lands and Cantonments, three Assistant Secretaries (one of whom is also Secretary of the Indian Soldiers' Board) and the Officer in-charge, Medal Distribution.

The Army Department deals with all army services proper, and also the administration of the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India in so far as questions regarding the orders of the Government of India are concerned. The Army Department Secretariat has no direct relations with commanders of troops or the staffs of formations subordinate to Army Headquarters. It has continuous and intimate relations with Army Headquarters in all administrative matters and is responsible for the administration of Cantonments, the estates of deceased officers and the compilation of the Indian Army List. The Army administration is represented in the Legislature by the Army Member in the Council of State and by the Army Secretary in the Legislative Assembly.

The Military Council—Is composed of the Commander in Chief as President, and the following members, namely: The Chief of the General Staff, as Vice-President, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General, the Master-General of Ordnance, the Secretary to the Government of India in the Army Department and the Financial Adviser Military Finance, representing the Finance Department of the Government of India. It is mainly an advisory body, constituted for the purpose of assisting the Commander in Chief in the performance of his administrative duties. It has no collective responsibility. It meets when convened by the Commander in Chief for the consideration of cases of sufficient importance and difficulty to require examination in conference. The heads of the minor independent branches of Army Headquarters and the directors of technical services attend when required.

Military Territorial Areas

Indian Territory is divided into four commands each under a General Officer Commanding in Chief and the Independent District of Burma under a Commander. The details of the organization are given in the table on the next page and it will be seen that Commands comprise 14 districts, 4 Independent Brigades Areas and 31 Brigades and Brigade Areas. The Northern Command with its headquarters at Meerut coincides roughly with the Punjab and North West Frontier Provinces; the Southern Command, with headquarters at Poona, coincides roughly with the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and part of the Central Provinces and Rajputana; the Eastern Command, with headquarters at Calcutta, coincides roughly with the Bengal Presidency and the United Provinces; the Western Command, whose headquarters are at Quetta, covers Sind and Baluchistan.

The General Officer Commanding in Chief of each command is responsible for the command administration, training and general efficiency of the troops stationed within his area, and also for all internal security arrangements.

Apart from the four commands, the only formation directly controlled by Army Headquarters is the Burma district which mainly because of its geographical situation cannot conveniently be included in any of the four command areas. The Assam Independent Brigade which was under the administrative control of the Government of India was transferred to the administrative control of His Majesty's Government from the 1st April 1927.

The distribution of the troops allotted to the commands and districts has been determined by the principle that the striking force must be ready to function in war, commanded and constituted as it is in peace. With this end in view the Army in India is now regarded as comprising three categories of troops:

- (1) Covering Troops,
- (2) The Field Army,
- (3) Internal Security Troops.

The role of the Covering Force is to deal with minor frontier outbreaks and in the event of major operations, to form a screen behind which mobilisation can proceed undisturbed. The force consists of approximately 12 infantry brigades with a due proportion of other arms.

The Field Army consists of 4 Divisions and 4 Cavalry Brigades. The Field Army is India's striking force in a major war.

Army Headquarters

The organization of the Army Headquarters with the Commander in Chief as the head is founded upon four Principal Staff Officers charged with the administration of—

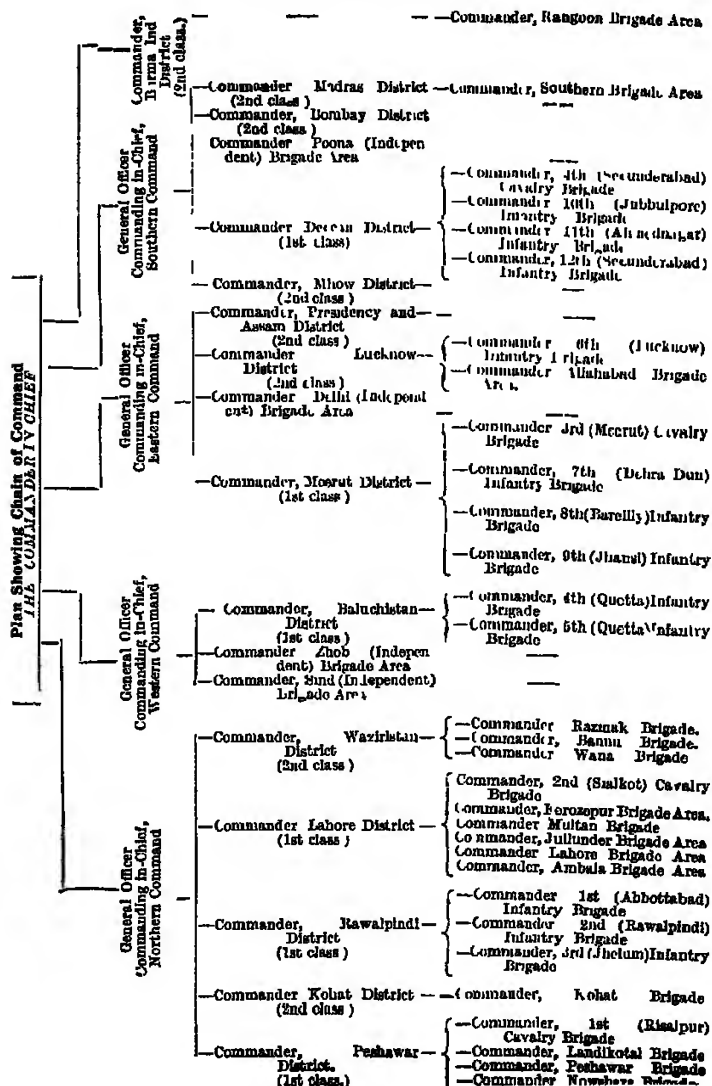
- (a) The General Staff Branch
- (b) The Adjutant General's Branch
- (c) The Quartermaster General's Branch
- (d) The Master General of Ordnance Branch

The General Staff Branch deals with military policy with plans of operations for the defence of India with the organization and distribution of the army for internal security and external war, the administration of the General Staff in India, the supervision of the training of the military forces for war, their use in war, the organization and administration of the general staff in India, the education of officers, the supervision of the education of warrant and non-commissioned officers and men of the Army in India, and inter-communication services.

The Adjutant General's Branch deals with all matters appertaining to the raising, organizing and maintenance of the military forces in officers and men, the peace distribution of the army, discipline, pay and pensions, martial law and international law, medical and sanitary matters affecting the Army in India, personal and ceremonial questions, prisoners of war, recruiting, mobilization and demobilization. The Judge Advocate General forms part of the Branch. The Director of Medical Services in India who was independent before the war is now included in the Adjutant-General Branch.

The Quartermaster General's Branch is concerned with the specification, provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of supplies, i.e., foodstuffs, forage, fuel etc., and is responsible for the following Services—Transportation, Movements, Quarters, Supply and Transport, Military Farms, Remounts, Veterinary, Garrison and Regimental Institutes. Also for the purchase of grains and of minor supplies not provided in bulk by the authority responsible for production and provision.

The Master General of Ordnance Branch controls the ordnance and clothing factories, is concerned with the provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of equipment and ordnance stores, clothing and necessities and conducts all matter relating to contracts in respect of food stuffs &c., and supply in bulk of general stores and materials. The Master General is also responsible for the design,



inspection, and supply of guns, carriages, tanks, small arms, machine guns, ammunition, chemical warfare appliances, etc. He also deals with questions regarding patents, royalties and inventions.

There are other branches of Army Headquarters administered by officers who are not classified as Principal Staff Officers but are not directly subordinate to any of the four Principal Staff Officers.

These are

(1) The Military Secretary, usually a Major General, who deals with the appointment, promotion and retirement of officers holding the King's Commission, the selection of officers for staff appointments and the appointment of officers to the Army in India Reserve of Officers. He is also the Secretary of the Selection Board.

(2) The Engineer in-Chief, also a Major General and head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India. He is responsible for Engineer operations and Engineer Services during war and peace, the preparedness for war of the Engineer services. The supply of Engineer stores during war and peace. The construction and maintenance of all military works and the constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs.

In addition to the above, the Army Headquarters staff includes certain technical advisers viz. the Major-General Cavalry (stationed at Secunderabad), the Major-General Royal Artillery (the Colonel, Royal Tank Corps), the Brigadier Royal Engineers, the Signal Officer in Chief, the Adviser and Secretary Board of Examiners and the Inspector of Physical Training.

Regular British Forces in India

The British cavalry and British infantry units of the army in India are units of the British service. No individual British service unit is located permanently in India. Units of the British Army are detailed for a tour of foreign service, of which the major part is as a rule spent in India. In the case of British infantry battalions the system is that one battalion of a regiment is normally on home service while the other is overseas. In the case of British cavalry the same arrangement cannot be applied, as one unit only comprises the regiment.

In Great Britain, in peace time, units are maintained at an establishment smaller than that required for war. In India the peace establishments exceed the war establishments in view of the fact that reserves of British personnel do not exist, and reinforcements must be obtained from Great Britain.

British Cavalry—There are 5 British cavalry regiments in India. The establishment of a British cavalry regiment is 27 officers and 571 other ranks.

British Infantry—The present number of British infantry battalions in India is 45, each with an establishment of 25 officers and 882 other ranks.

In 1921, an important change was made in the composition of a British infantry battalion in India by the inclusion of a proportion of Indian combatant ranks. Battalions had always maintained a quota of Indian followers, but up to 1921 the combatant personnel was entirely British. In 1921, on the abolition of the Machine Gun Corps, eight machine guns were included

in the equipment of a British infantry battalion. This number was increased to twelve in 1927. The peace establishment of Indian combatant personnel is fixed at one Indian officer and 230 Indian other ranks. The Indian platoon, as it is called, is transferred as a whole to another British battalion when the battalion to which it was originally attached proceeds on relief out of India.

Royal Artillery—Indians are employed as drivers and artificers in the Royal Horse Artillery and in field and medium batteries as drivers, gunners and artificers in mountain batteries and as gunners in heavy batteries. The peace organisation of the artillery at the present day is as follows.

Royal Horse Artillery—Comprises four batteries and four ammunition columns. Each battery is armed with six 18-pounder guns.

Field (Higher and Lower Establishment) Brigades

—Seven brigades on the higher establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Three brigades on the lower establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Of the seven brigades on the higher establishment four brigades consist of two batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns and two batteries each with six 4.5" howitzers. Three brigades consist of three batteries each armed with six 18-pounder guns and one battery with six 4.5" howitzers. Of the three brigades on the lower establishment two consist of three batteries each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and one battery with six 4.5" howitzers, and one brigade of two batteries armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two batteries armed with six 4.5" howitzers. Two guns in each battery are immobile.

Field (Reinforcement) Brigade—The reinforcement brigade consists of two double batteries, each armed with six 18-pounder guns, and two 4.5" howitzers.

The 1st Field Brigade and 2nd Divisional Ammunition Column Royal Artillery are mechanised. Other Royal Artillery units will be mechanised in due course.

Ammunition Columns—Two Divisional ammunition columns are maintained for the artillery of the first and second divisions, and one field ammunition column for the covering force brigade on the frontier.

Indian Mountain Brigades—Six brigades, each consisting of headquarters, one British light and three Indian mountain batteries also one unbrigaded mountain battery and one mountain Artillery Section for Chitral. The British battery and two Indian batteries per brigade are armed, with four 3.7" howitzers, the remaining batteries are armed with four 2.75" guns. The armaments of the Frontier posts at Kohat, Fort Lockhart, Idak, Wana, Thal, Chaman, Hindubagh, Malakand, Landi Kotal, Shagal, Chakdara and Fort Sandeman are also manned by personnel of Indian Mountain Brigades E & A.

Medium Brigades—Two brigades, each consisting of one horse-drawn and three tractor drawn batteries. Three batteries in each brigade, are armed with 6" howitzers and one battery with 60 pounder guns.

Heavy Brigade—Headquarters and one battery at Bombay and one battery at Karachi.

Air Aircraft—One battery, located at Bombay.

Artillery Training Centres—One centre at Muzra, for Indian ranks of R H A and of field and medium batteries and another centre at Ambala for Indian ranks of mountain batteries. These centres were created for the recruitment and training of Indian personnel. There is also a R. A. Boys Depot at Bangalore.

Engineer Services

The Engineer in Chief—The head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India is directly responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. The Engineer in Chief is not a staff officer but the technical adviser of the Commander-in-Chief on all military engineering matters and is responsible for:

- (1) Engineer operations and engineer services during war and peace
- (2) The preparedness for war of the engineering services
- (3) The supply of engineer stores during war and peace
- (4) The execution and maintenance of all military works
- (5) The constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs submitted by him

The Organisation—The Engineer organisation of the Army consists of two main branches viz., the "Sappers and Miners and Pioneers and the Military Engineer Services.

The composition of the Corps of Sappers and Miners is as follows:

Queen Victoria's Own Madras Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Bangalore. King George's Own Bengal Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Bhoorkee. Royal Bombay Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Kirkee.

The personnel of the Corps consists of Royal Engineer officers, Indian officers holding the Viceroy's commission, a certain number of British warrant and non-commissioned officers, Indian non-commissioned officers and Indian other ranks. Each Corps is commanded by a Lieutenant Colonel, who is assisted by two Majors, as Superintendents of Park and Instruction and Adjutant. Quartermaster two Subedar Majors, a Jemadar Adjutant and a Jemadar Quartermaster.

Field Troops are mounted units, trained to accompany cavalry, and are equipped to carry out hasty bridging, demolition and water-supply work. Field Companies are trained to accompany Infantry Divisional Headquarters. Companies are small units containing highly qualified tradesmen and are trained to carry out technical work in connection with field workshops. Army Troops Companies are somewhat smaller units than field companies, they are required to carry out work behind divisions under the orders of Chief Engineers, e.g., heavy bridging work, large water-supplies, electrical and mechanical installation.

The Military Engineer Services control all military works in India, and Burma except in the case of a few small outlying military stations, which are in charge of Public Works Department. They control all works for the Royal Air Force and all major works for the Royal Indian Marine, and they are charged

with all civil works in the North West Frontier Province and Baluchistan under the orders in each of these two areas, of the Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General. They also control civil works in Bangalore, under the Mysore Government.

The Engineer in-Chief is assisted by a Deputy Engineer in Chief (Works) and a Deputy Engineer in-Chief (Electrical and Mechanical). In each Command there is a Chief Engineer while in the Northern Command a Deputy Chief Engineer administers Military and Civil works in the N W F P and is Secretary P W D to the Chief Commissioner. The Chief Engineer Western Command, is the Secretary P W D to the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan. Both at Army Headquarters and in Commands there are Staff Officers, E E and Technical Officers. At the headquarters of each district there is a Commander, Royal Engineers, assisted in certain districts by A C S R E Officers of the Barrack Department are also employed as District Stores Officers. Garrison Engineers are in charge of brigade areas and military stations, their charges being divided into subdivisions under Sub divisional Officers. The sub divisions are Buildings and Roads, Electrical and Mechanical and Furniture and Stores. There are sub-oversesers for Buildings and Roads and the Barrack Department subordinates in charge of Furniture and Stores are assisted by store keepers.

Royal Air Force in India

The Royal Air Force in India is controlled by the Commander in Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Air Force budget is incorporated in the Military Estimates. The Commander of the Air Force is the Air Officer Commanding in India is an Air Marshal whose rank corresponds to that of a Lieutenant General in the Army.

The headquarters of the Air Force is closely associated with Army Headquarters and is located with the latter at the seat of the Government of India. The Air Officer Commanding has a headquarters staff constituted in six branches, namely, air staff personnel, technical, stores, medical and chief engineer. The system of staff organisation is similar to the staff system obtaining in the Army. Broadly speaking the duties assigned to the divisions mentioned are those which are performed by the General Staff Branch, the Adjutant-General's and Military Secretary's branches, the Quartermaster-General's Branch, the Medical Directorate and the Engineer in Chief's branch respectively, of Army Headquarters.

Subordinate formations.—The formations subordinate to the Royal Air Force Headquarters are—

- (i) GROUP COMMAND, comprising Wing Stations of two squadrons each, on a station base
- (ii) Wing Command, comprising squadrons not on a station base
- (iii) Station Commands
- (iv) The Aircraft Depot
- (v) The Aircraft Park
- (vi) Heavy Transport Flight.
- (vii) B. A. F. Hill Depot, Lower Tor

Group Command—The Group Command is known as No. 1 (Indian) Group Headquarters, and is located at Peshawar. The Group Commander is a Group Captain, corresponding in rank to a Colonel in the Army. His staff is organised on the same system as that of the Headquarters of the B A F in India. The establishment of the Group consists of 4 officers and 16 airmen.

The subordinate units to No. 1 (Indian) Group Headquarters are as follows—

- No. 1 Wing Station, R.A.F., Peshawar
- No. 2 Wing Station, R.A.F., Bhalpur
- Army Co-operation squadron at Peshawar

Wing Command—There is one Wing Command only namely 8 (Indian) Wing It A F located at Quetta. The Wing Commander is an officer with Air Force rank corresponding to a Lieutenant-Colonel in the Army.

He is equipped with a staff organised on approximately the same system as the Headquarters of a Group. The Wing Establishment consists of 4 officers and 17 airmen.

Wing Station Commands—There are 2 Wing station commands in India one located at Peshawar and the other at Bhalpur. Each station consists of two squadrons on a reduced squadron basis with one administrative head i.e. Station Headquarters under the command of a Wing Commander. The strength of the Station Headquarters is 8 officers and 112 airmen, while that of the two squadrons totals 24 officers and 100 airmen. The wing Station at Bhalpur also administers the Parachute Section.

The Squadrons—Of the 8 squadrons 7 are extended along the North West Frontier from Quetta to Bhalpur, and one is stationed at Ambala.

The squadron is the primary air force unit, and it consists normally, of a Headquarters and three flights of aeroplanes. A flight can be detached temporarily but not permanently from its squadron as repair facilities, work shops and stores cannot economically be organised on anything less than a squadron basis. The squadrons headquarters comprises the officers and other ranks required for the command and administration of the squadron as a whole, it includes the workshops and repair units, the armours and equipment stores of the squadrons.

The number of aeroplanes in a squadron varies with the type of aeroplane with which the squadron is equipped, but speaking generally squadrons on a peace basis have twelve aeroplanes i.e., four in each of three flights. This does not however apply to the twin engine bombing squadrons.

Of the 8 squadrons 4 are equipped with Bristol Fighters and four with Wapitis and they are allotted for distant reconnaissance and bombing duties, of the other four, which are allotted for Army Co-operation duties, two squadrons are equipped with Bristol Fighters and two with Wapiti aircraft.

Squadron Establishment—The establishment of officers in a squadron consists of seven officers in the Headquarters, and fifteen officers allotted to flying duties. This allows a reserve of one officer for each of the operative flights.

The establishment of other ranks is 128 airmen.

The Aircraft Depot—The Aircraft Depot may be conveniently described as the wholesale store and provision department of the Royal Air Force. Technical stores are received from the United Kingdom, and in the first instance, held by this unit. It is also the main workshop and repair shop of the Force where all engine repairs, mechanical transport repairs, and aircraft repairs of any magnitude are carried out. The Depot is located at Drigh Road Karachi.

The Aircraft Park—Relatively to the Aircraft Depot, the Aircraft Park may be described as a central retail establishment, intermediate between the squadrons and the Aircraft Depot. It receives stores from the depot and distributes them to the squadron. The stocks held in the Park are however usually limited to items necessary at short notice for operations and the quantities held are kept as low as distance from the depot and local conditions will admit. In war, an Aircraft Park is intended to be a mobile formation though the aircraft Park in India cannot be made mobile under ordinary conditions. In peace the Aircraft Park is located at Lahore. New aeroplanes received from the United Kingdom are erected there, but no major repairs are undertaken. In addition to the above functions, practically the whole of the motor transport bodies required for R A F vehicles are built or repaired at Aircraft Park. The Heavy Transport flight is administered by this unit.

Composition of Establishments—The personnel of the Royal Air Force in India consists of officers warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men in the ranks of the R A F of the United Kingdom, and Indian artificers, Mechanical Transport drivers and followers of the Indian Technical and Followers Corps R A F in India. The officers are employed on administration flying and technical duties but all with the exception of officers of the store and medical branches are required to be capable of flying an aeroplane. A proportion of airmen are also trained and employed as pilots for a period of five years, after which period they revert to their technical trades. Apart from these airmen all warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and aircraftmen are employed solely on technical duties. The only other flying personnel who are not officers or airmen pilots are air gunners and a certain percentage of wireless operators.

The warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and aircraftmen are employed at all units. The personnel of the Indian Technical and Followers Corps are employed as follows—

(a) Technical Section	Aircraft Depot.
(Artificers)	Aircraft Park
(b) M T Drivers Section	All Units
(c) Followers Section	All Units
The total establishment of the Royal Air Force in India is as follows—	
Officers	255
Airmen	1,938
Indian Officers, other ranks and followers	1,102
Civilians	146

The Royal Air Force Medical Services—In India, as in the United Kingdom, the Air Force has a medical service of its own. Flying must still be regarded as

present as an abnormal pursuit for the human being. It is carried out under conditions which differ widely from those on the ground. With the growth of aeronautics therefore, it was found necessary to create a separate department of medical science whose functions, broadly stated are to study the effect of flying upon the human constitution both mental and physical, to study also the effects of different forms of illness and physical disability upon flying efficiency and to apply in practical form the results ascertained. The essential object in view is to save life by ensuring as far as possible that those who fly are physically and psychologically fit to do so. The present establishment of the Royal Air Force Medical Service in India consists of 12 officers and 80 airmen. The Medical Administration is controlled by the Principal Medical Officer of the rank of Group Captain, on the staff of the Air Officer Commanding the R. A. F. in India.

Regular Indian Forces.

Indian Cavalry.—The present number of Indian cavalry regiments is 21.

The peace establishment of an Indian cavalry regiment comprises

14 British officers.

19 Indian officers

493 Indian non commissioned officers and men

Indian Infantry and Pioneers.—The establishment of the Indian Infantry is constituted as follows

	Battalions
14 Infantry regiments consisting of	101
3 Pioneer Corps consisting of	9
1 Independent Pioneer battalion (The Hazara Pioneers)	1
3 Regiments of Sappers and Miners	7
10 Gurkha regiments consisting of	20
—	—
36	138

The normal strength of an active battalion is—

	British Officers	Indian Officers	Indian other ranks
Infantry	12	20	708
Pioneers	11	15	681
Gurkhas	13	22	905

The strength of an infantry training battalion depends upon the number of battalions forming the regiment. The average is as follows—

British Officers 10, Indian Officers 17, and Indian other ranks 792

The strength of a Corps Headquarters of Pioneers is British Officers 8, Indian Officers 9, and Indian other ranks 809

The strength of the Independent Pioneer Battalion is British Officers 13, Indian Officers 17, and Indian other ranks 880

Reserves for these units have to be sufficient to provide for an actual shortage on mobilisation as well as for the maintenance of the mobilised unit at full strength for the first 3 months after mobilisation.

Reserve.—The conditions of the reserve are as follows—

(a) There are two classes in the reserve Class A and Class B. A reservist is eligible to serve in Class A up to 10 years' combined army and reserve service, and in Class B up to 15 years' combined service.

(b) Service in the reserve is compulsory except for Gurkhas, Hazara Pioneers and frontier personnel. On enrolment a man engages to serve at least 7 years in army service and to serve up to 15 years in combined army and reserve service if required to do so.

(c) Reservists will be trained for not more than 1 month annually in the cases of Class A and biennially in the case of Class B. During training the reservist will receive the full pay of a serving soldier.

(d) While not under training, the reservist will receive pay as follows—

Class A, Rs 7 per mensem

Class B, Rs 4 per mensem

(e) A reservist will be discharged from the service after 15 years' combined army and reserve service, when he will receive a pension of Rs 3 per mensem or, if he desires it, a gratuity of Rs. 300 in lieu. A reservist who is invalided from the reserve is granted a gratuity varying between 3 and 6 months pay and good conduct pay according to service.

The establishment of reservists is fixed as present as follows—

Cavalry	2,943
Artillery	2,320
Sappers & Miners	1,660
Indian Signal Corps	984
Infantry	22,960
Gurkhas	2,000
Pioneers	1,240
Independent Pioneers	81

Total 34,207

The Indian Signal Corps.—The Corps is organised on the same lines as a Sapper and Miner Corps, with a headquarters for recruiting and training personnel and detached field units for the various army formations. The head of the corps is the Signal Officer-in-Chief who belongs to the Royal Corps of Signals and is attached to the General Staff Branch at Army Headquarters as a technical adviser on questions connected with signals, and is also responsible for the technical inspection of all signal units. A chief signal officer with similar functions is attached to the headquarters of each Army Command. The British portion of the Corps has now been amalgamated with the Royal Corps of Signals.

The headquarters, termed the Signal Training Centre, India, are located at Jabalpur, and are commanded by a Colonel, assisted by a staff, British and Indian, organised on very much the same lines as the headquarters of a Corps of Sappers and Miners.

The various types of field units and the number maintained are—

Corps Signals Headquarters including Line and Wireless Company	2
Cavalry Brigade Signal Troops	4
Divisional Signals	4
Signal Parks	2
District Signals	3
Medium Brigade Royal Artillery Signal Section	1
Field Brigade Royal Artillery Signal Section	1

In addition, there is an Army Signal School which carries out the training of regimental signalling instructors.

The formation of the District signals units was effected in 1926 with the transfer of Communications on the North-West Frontier to the Posts and Telegraphs Department. This transfer of communications also made feasible the raising of the A and C troops of Cavalry Brigade Signals to include a Wireless Section each, the formation of two Corps Signal Headquarters and the formation of one Medium and one Field Brigade Royal Artillery Signals Sections. The District Signals are located at Peshawar, Waziristan and Kohat.

Royal Tank Corps—Six armoured car companies arrived in India in 1921. Two more companies arrived in 1925. Two Group

Headquarters were sanctioned in 1925. They are located as follows.—the Northern Group at Rawalpindi, this Group Headquarters commands companies in the Northern and Eastern Commands. The Southern Group at Poona. This Group Headquarters commands companies in the Southern and Western Commands. There is a school at Ahmednagar for the training of R T C personnel and the conduct of experiments. The Colonel Royal Tank Corps, at Army Headquarters acts as Technical Adviser on Tanks and Armoured Cars.

The smallest tactical unit is the sub-section (two armoured cars). There are two sub-sections in a section, and 3 sections in a company. Each section is commanded by a captain or a subaltern, and the company by a major. In addition to 12 armoured cars (4 in each section), there is a mechanical reserve of 4 cars on the headquarters of each company.

5 Companies are equipped with Crossley armoured cars.

1 Company is equipped with Rolls-Royce 1921 pattern.

1 Company is equipped with Rolls-Royce 1914.

1 Company is equipped with Guy (six wheeled) armoured cars.

With the exception of the company with Rolls Royce 1914 pattern which have only one Vickers gun all the remaining armoured cars are armed with two Vickers guns.

The establishments of the Royal Tank Corps formations are shown below—

	British Officers	British other ranks	Followers	Motor cars	Motor cycles	Armoured cars	Lorries
Group Headquarters	2	2					
Tank Corps School	6	49	15	1	2	9	9
Armoured Car Company	12	145	38	2	6	15	10

Medical Services.—The military medical services in India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organizations—

(a) Officers and other ranks of the Royal Army Medical Corps serving in India,

(b) Officers of the Indian Medical Service in military employment.

(c) The Indian Medical Department, consisting of two branches, viz., (i) assistant surgeons and (ii) sub-assistant surgeons.

(d) Queen Alexandra's Imperial Military Nursing Service.

(e) The Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India.

(f) The Army Dental Corps.

(g) The Indian Military Nursing Service.

(h) The Indian Hospital Corps.

Of these categories the officers and men of the Royal Army Medical Corps and the Army Dental Corps, the assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Queen Alexandra's Imperial Military Nursing Service and the Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India are primarily concerned with the medical care of British troops, while the officers of the Indian Medical Service, the sub-assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Indian Military Nursing Service are concerned, primarily, with the medical care of Indian troops. The Indian Hospital Corps serves both organizations.

Civilians of miscellaneous classes employed by the Army in Waziristan are given medical treatment in military hospitals, and arrangements have been made with the Headquarters of the Indian Red Cross Society for the medical

treatment and care of cases amongst Indian soldiers and followers of the Indian Army for chronic diseases, such as tuberculosis, leprosy and diabetes.

Indian Army Service Corps.—The Indian Army Service Corps is the counterpart of the Royal Army Service Corps of the British Army. It has developed from the Commissariat Department of an earlier period, and its immediate predecessor was the Supply and Transport Corps, by which name the service was known up to 1923. The Indian Army Service Corps which is under the control of the Quartermaster General, is constituted in three main branches, namely, (a) Supply (b) Animal transport, and (c) Mechanical transport. The latter is constituted upon a special basis, which is, generically, a sub-division of the Royal Army Service Corps organisation.

The strength of the establishment is shown by categories in the following table—

SUPPLY	
Officers with King's commission	186
Indian officers	63
British other ranks	355
Civilians	750
Followers	2,776
Total	4,134

ANIMAL TRANSPORT	
Officers with King's commissions	74
Indian officers	156
British other ranks	58
Indian civilians	123
Saddar lance naks and sarwans	280
Indian non-commissioned officers and drivers	1,567
Artificers and followers	1,620
Total	4,878

There are also 1,576 driver reservists.

The total numbers of mules and camels maintained under the present organisation, including the depots and the detachment in Kashmir are 14,512 and 4,704 respectively. There are also 886 pack and draught horses, 468 ponies and 12 bullocks. Wheeled and pack transport are combined. The company on the lower establishment represents the pre-war "cadre," other companies being maintained in peace-time at full war establishment.

MECHANICAL TRANSPORT	
Officers with King's commissions	201
Indian officers	78
British other ranks	408
Indian other ranks	3,298
Indian civilians	419
Indian artificers	1,860
Followers	816
Total	7,000

There are also 2,588 reservists.

The mechanical transport establishment consists of the following—

(a) Field units—

11 M. T. Companies, consisting of 11 headquarters, 30 service sections (higher establishment), 5 service sections (lower establishment) and 10 sections in cadre.

1 Independent section (higher establishment)

6 M. T. Companies for motor ambulance convoys consisting of 6 headquarters 1 section (higher establishment) 11 sections (lower establishment)

(b) Maintenance units—

4 Heavy Repair shop

4 Mobile repair units,

1 Central M. T. Stores Depot.

M. T. technical inspectorate M. T. depot for training Indian drivers Vehicle reception depot Bannu Workshop section

Apart from units and vehicles employed in the conveyance of military stores, the mechanical transport service also provides motor ambulance convoys for hospitals and field medical units, and vehicles for other miscellaneous purposes. The total establishment now consists of 2,088 vehicles with 109 motor cycles.

The mechanical transport was taken over by the Indian Army Service Corps in 1927. At present the officers of the service are mainly drawn from the Royal Army Service Corps since at present there are no facilities in India for training officers in every branch of mechanical transport duties. The establishment of officers includes, however, a certain number of King's commissioned officers belonging to the Indian Army. The British subordinates of the service are drawn entirely from the Royal Army Service Corps.

The Ordnance Services which are under the M. G. O. may be broadly described as the agency whose duty it is to supply the army with munitions of war, such as small arms, guns, ammunition and other equipment of a technical military character and also, under an arrangement introduced in recent years, with clothing and general stores other than engineering stores. A central disposal organisation is in operation under the control of the Master General of Ordnance to dispose of the Surplus Stores and waste materials of the various services of the Army and the Royal Air Force in India to the best advantage of the State.

Army Remount Department.—The following are among the most important duties for the remount service.—The provision of animals for the Army in India. The enumeration throughout India of all animals available for transport in war. The animal mobilisation of all units, services and departments of the Army. A general responsibility for the efficiency of all the animals of the army both in peace and war. The administration of the remount squadron formed

in 1922 as a nucleus for expansion into three squadrons on mobilisation. Breeding operations of a direct character.

The department is organised on lines corresponding to the remount service in the United Kingdom. Its composition is as follows: The Remount Directorate at Army Headquarters consisting of one Director and a Deputy Director; 4 Remount officers one attached to each Command Headquarters, 6 Superintendents of Remount Depots, 5 District Remount officers of horse breeding areas and the Ahmednagar Stud 16 Assistant Remount officers and 8 Veterinary officers.

Veterinary Services in India.—The Veterinary services are responsible for the veterinary care, in peace and war of animals of British troops, Indian cavalry and artillery, I A S C units, the remount department (excluding horse-breeding operations), etc. The veterinary services include The establishment of Royal Army Veterinary Corps officers, serving on a tour of duty in India and those of the continuous service cadre. The establishment of warrant and non-commissioned officers India Unattached List, and veterinary assistant surgeons of the Indian Army Veterinary Corps.

The Indian Army Veterinary Corps is organised in 12 sections, attached in peace-time to Class I veterinary hospitals at certain important stations.

Military Farms Department.—This department, which is under the control of the Quartermaster-General consists of two branches:—

(i) The military grass farms, which provide fodder for the army

(ii) The military dairy farms, for the provision of dairy produce for hospitals, troops and families

Educational Services.—The education of the army is under the control of the Army Educational Corps and of Indian officers borne supernumerary to the establishment of units of the Indian Army. The establishment is as follows including training schools:—

British officers	Indian officers	B O	I O	Civilians
61	38	182	34	284

Terms of service in the Indian army are as follows:—

Cavalry, 7 years service in army and 8 years in the reserve.

Artillery, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve for gunners and drivers (horse), drivers (mechanical transport) 8 years in army and 9 years in the reserve, and 4 years service in army for Heavy Artillery personnel.

S & M. Corps, 7 years service in army and 8 in the reserve

Indian Signal Corps, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve

Infantry and Pioneers (except Gurkhas, the 4th Hazara Pioneers and trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry other than Orakzais), 7 years in army service and 8 years in the reserve.

Gurkhas, Hazara Pioneers and trans-frontier personnel of infantry, 4 years service in army

Indian combatant personnel of British Infantry 6 years in army

Indian Military establishments of the Indian Army Ordnance Corps, 4 years' service in the army

Animal transport personnel of the Indian Army Service Corps, drivers of mechanical transport and all combatants of the Army Veterinary Corps, 6 years service in army and 8 in the reserve.

All combatants in the Works Corps, 2 years service in army

Bandmen, musicians, trumpeters, drummers buglers fliers and pipers, 10 years' service in army

Except in the case of those enrolled in the Works and of those who are non-combatants, all school masters, clerks artificers, armourers, engine drivers, farriers, carpenters tailors and bootmakers, 10 years' service in army

The period laid down for service in the army is the minimum and may be extended. Combatants may be enrolled direct into the Reserve, in which case there is no minimum period of service, but no one is allowed to serve in the reserve or in any class of the reserve for a longer period than is permitted by the regulations in force.

Frontier Militia and Levy Corps.—These forces are 'Civil' troops, i.e., they are administered and paid by the Civil authorities and not by the Army. They are, however, officered by Officers of the Regular Indian Army. These forces were raised for duty on the North West Frontier and at present consist of the following:—Kharan Militia, Tochi Scouts, South Waziristan Scouts, Chitral Scouts, Gilgit Scouts, Zhob militia and the Mekan Levy Corps.

The Auxiliary Force.

After the war, the question of universal training for European British subjects came up for consideration, and it was decided that in India, as elsewhere in the Empire, the adoption of compulsory military service would be undesirable. It was recognised, however, that India needed some adequate auxiliary force, if only on a voluntary basis, that could be trained to a fairly definite standard of efficiency and in the result, an Act to constitute an Auxiliary Force for service in India was passed in 1920. Under this Act membership is limited to European British subjects, and the liability of members for training and service is clearly defined. Military training is graduated according to age, the more extended training being carried out by the younger members, the older members being obliged to fire a military course only. It was laid down that military service should be purely local. As the form of service that would be most suitable varies largely according to localities, the local military authorities, acting in consultation with the advisory committee of the Auxiliary Force area, were given the power of adjusting the form of training to suit local conditions.

The Auxiliary Force comprises all branches of the service, cavalry, artillery, engineers infantry—in which are included railway bat-

tallions,—machine gun companies a Signal Company, and the Medical and Veterinary Corps. Units of the Auxiliary Force are under the command of the local military authority, and the latter has the power of calling them out for service locally in a case of emergency. Their role is to assist in home defence. Training is carried on throughout the year. Pay at a fixed rate is given for each day's training and, on completion of the scheduled period of annual training, every enrolled member of the force is entitled to a certain bonus. Men enrol in the Auxiliary Force for an indefinite period. An enrolled person is entitled to claim his discharge on the completion of four years service or on attaining the age of 45 years. Till then he can only be discharged on the recommendation of the advisory committee of the area.

The duties connected with the Defence Light Sections at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi and Rangoon are performed by the Field Companies R. E. (A. F. I.) at those stations, assisted by Indian ranks of Sapper and Miner Units.

Indian Territorial Force

The Territorial Force is one of the special aspects of the Indianisation of the military services. The force is intended to cater amongst other things for the military aspirations of those classes of the population to whom military service has not hitherto been a hereditary profession. It is intended, at the same time, to be a second line to and a source of reinforcement for the regular Indian army. Membership of the force for this latter reason carries with it a liability for something more than purely local service or home defence. It may, in certain circumstances involve service overseas. The force is the direct successor of the Indian section of the Indian Defence Force created during the war. It has been modelled on the old militia in England. The essence of its scheme of organisation consists in training men by means of annual embodiment for a short period in successive years. By this means Indian Territorial Force units can be given sufficient preliminary training in peace to enable them, after a comparatively short period of intensive training to take their place by the side of regular units in war.

The Indian Territorial Force consists at present of three main categories, provincial battalions, urban units and the university training corps units. The last are recruited from the staff and students of Indian universities. They are trained all the year round by means of weekly drills during terms and a period of 15 days in camp and are equipped with a permanent staff of British instructors. On ceasing to belong to a university, a member of the corps is discharged. In the case of the university training corps units there is no liability to perform the liability to render actual military service. Their purpose is mainly educative, to inculcate discipline and form character. But, incidentally, they are expected to be a source of supply of both officers and men for the provincial and urban units.

The members of the provincial battalions accept the full liability for service which has been mentioned. Seven such battalions were constituted in the first instance. The number is

now eighteen and, though the unit establishment has not been completely filled in all cases the movement has already achieved a greater degree of success than might have been anticipated at so early a stage. Although for the present the Infantry arm only has been created with the addition of the I.T.F. Medical Branch, the force by law may include every other arm service.

Men enrol in the provincial battalions for a period of six years, the period being reduced to four years in certain cases. On the completion of the first period they can re-enrol voluntarily for further specified periods. During his first year every man does preliminary training for one calendar month and during every year he evolves one month's periodical training. Members of urban units have only a provincial liability. 4 such units were constituted in 1928 in Bombay, Madras, and the United Provinces, one of these being an entirely Indian battalion. Members enrolled for a period of 6 years and train all the year round. During his first year every man does 21 days preliminary training and in every subsequent year 16 days' periodical training.

The Indian State Forces.

The Indian State Forces formerly designated Imperial Service Troops, consist of the military forces raised and maintained by the Rulers of Indian States at their own expense and for State service. It has been the custom in emergency for State troops to be lent to the Government of India, and the Government of India have on many occasions received military assistance of great value from this source. But the rendering of such aid is entirely at the discretion of the Ruling Princes and Chiefs. Government on the other hand, provide permanently a staff of British officers termed Military Advisers and Assistant Military Advisers to assist and advise the Ruling Princes in organising and training the troops of their States.

After the war had ended the Indian States like the Government of India, undertook a military reorganisation, which in a number of cases, has already been carried out. The principal feature of the new arrangements as adopted more or less generally is that in future the Indian State Forces should be composed of three categories of troops, namely

Class A—Troops in this class are organised on the present-day Indian Army system and establishments, and with some exceptions, are armed with the same weapons as corresponding units of the regular Indian Army.

Class B—These troops consist of units which are, in most cases little inferior in training and discipline to troops of Class A, but they are not organised on present-day Indian Army establishments. They have as a rule, retained the system of the pre-war formations. Their standard of armament is pitched lower than that of Class A troops.

Class C—These troops consist in the main of militia formations, which are not permanently embodied. The standard of training, discipline and armament, prescribed for this class, is generally lower than the standard prescribed for Class B troops.

The authorized and actual strength of the Indian State Forces on the 1st October 1929 amounted to—

	Authorized strength	Actual strength to
Artillery	1 414	1 445
Cavalry	9 314	8,880
Infantry	20 466	21,098
Camel Corps	463	462
Motor Machine Gun sections	70	28
Sappers	1 170	1,014
Transport Corps	1 609	1 606
Grand total	43,603	38 121

Officers

There are two main categories of officers in the Indian Army, those holding the King's Commission and those holding the Viceroy's Commission. The latter are all Indians apart from the Gurkha officers of Gurkha battalions, and have a limited status and power of command both of which are regulated by the Indian Army Act and the rules made thereunder. Until recent years Indians were not eligible for King's Commissions, but a limited number can now obtain such commissions on entry into the Indian Army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst and the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich.

King's Commissioned officers for the Indian Army are obtained from two main sources from among the cadets who pass through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and by the transfer to the Indian Army of officers belonging to British units. The former is the principal channel of recruitment the latter being only resorted to when owing to abnormal wastage or for some other special reason, requirements cannot be completed by means of cadets from Sandhurst. A third source is from among University candidates. When a cadet has qualified at Sandhurst and has received his commission he becomes, in the first instance, an officer of the Unattached List and is posted for a period of one year to a British battalion or regiment in India, where he receives a preliminary training in his military duties. At the end of the year he is posted as a squadron or company officer to a regiment or battalion of the Indian Army. Administrative services and departments of the army draw their officers from combatant units as it has hitherto been regarded as essential that every officer should, in the first instance, receive a thorough grounding in combatant duties, and acquire at first hand an intimate knowledge of the requirements of the combatant arms.

The promotion in rank of King's commissioned officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieutenant Colonel but is subject also to certain professional examinations and tests being successfully passed. The rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in normal course attained at 26 years' service; promotion beyond this rank is determined by selection.

Indian Officers.—One of the most momentous decisions of the Great War, so far as the Indian Army is concerned, was that which rendered Indians eligible to hold the King's commission in the army. King's commissions are obtainable by Indian gentlemen in three ways: (1) By qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy Woolwich. Examinations are held twice a year, in India for the selection of suitable candidates for admission. (2) By the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian regiments promoted from the ranks or those appointed direct as jemadar. These receive their commissions after training at the Royal Military College or Academy as Cadets and qualifying in the usual way. (3) By the bestowal of honorary King's commissions on Indian officers who have rendered distinguished service, but whose age and lack of education preclude their being granted the full King's commission. The first two avenues of selection mentioned afford full opportunity to the Indian of satisfying a military ambition and of enjoying a military career on terms of absolute equality with the British officer who, as a general rule, also enters the army by qualifying at Sandhurst or Woolwich. Ten vacancies at Sandhurst and three at Woolwich are reserved annually for Indian cadets.

A further measure adopted by the Government was the establishment of the Prince of Wales Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun a Government institution for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's commission in the army through the Royal Military College Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. The arrangements so far made enable a maximum of 70 boys to be in residence at the college at any one time and the normal course of education is planned to occupy six years. In February 1929 it was decided that eight units of the Indian Army should be completely Indianized. The units selected for Indianization were 7th Light Cavalry 16th Light Cavalry 2nd Bn., Madras Pioneers, 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment, 5th Royal Battalion, 5th Mahratta Light Infantry, 1/7th Rajput Regiment (Q V O L I) 1/14th Punjab Regiment, 2/1st Punjab Regiment.

Training Institutions

The following institutions exist in India for the higher training of military personnel and for the education of instructors for units—

Staff College, Quetta.
Senior Officers School, Belgaum.
School of Artillery, Kakul.
Equitation School, Bangalore.
Small Arms Schools: (India), at Pachmarhi and Ahmednagar.
Army School of Physical Training, Ambala.
Army Signal School, Poona.
Royal Tank Corps School, Ahmednagar.
Army School of Education, Belgaum.
Army School of Cookery, Poona.
Army Veterinary Schools, Ambala and Poona.
Indian Army Service Corps Training Establishment, Rawahindi.
Indian Army Ordnance Corps School of Instruction, Kirkee.

The object of these Schools is to ensure to all the units throughout the army a constant supply of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men, provided with a thorough up-to-date knowledge of various technical subjects and with the ability to pass on this knowledge.

Following the procedure adopted at Home, the Small Arm and Machine Gun Schools were amalgamated in February 1927. Instruction in the rifle, light gun etc., is carried out at Pachmarhi and in the machine gun at Ahmednagar.

The King George's Royal Indian Military Schools at Jhelum, Jullundur and Ajmere, and the Kitchener College, Nowgong, also exist for the education of the sons of Indian soldiers with a view to their finding a career in the Indian Army. The latter at present assists in the training of Indian N. C. O.s for promotion to Victory's Commission. The Prince of Wales's Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun exists for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's Commission in the Army through Sandhurst or Woolwich.

Army in India Reserve of Officers.—Previous to the Great War there existed what was called the Indian Army Reserve of Officers, a body of trained officers available to replace casualties in the Indian Army. The war proved that for many reasons this reserve did not fully meet requirements and in 1922 the Army in India Reserve of Officers was constituted.

The revised Regulations for the A. I. R. O. published in 1926 provide that the following gentlemen may be granted commissions in the Reserve—

- (1) Officers who having held King's commissions and retired from H. M.'s forces.
- (2) Officials, other than Military officers, serving under the Government of India or a local Government.
- (3) Private gentlemen residing in India, possessing the requisite qualifications and previous training.

The Reserve comprises each arm and branch of the Army and the officers are posted to definite branches and units.

All officers are required to undergo periodical training up to a maximum of 30 days a year and receive pay and allowances admissible to regular officers of the same rank and arm of the service, during training.

Members of the Auxiliary Force, India, may become "officers designate" for the grant of commissions in the A. I. R. O., upon the calling to army service of that reserve.

Officers and officers designate receive Rs. 200 annually as a retaining fee, and an outfit allowance of Rs. 400, on joining.

The strength of the Reserve on the 1st January 1931 was 1,671.

Recruitment for the Reserve has been extended to Ceylon, the number to be commissioned in Ceylon being limited to 50.

The Fighting Races.—The fighting classes that contribute to the composition of the Indian Army have hitherto been drawn mainly from the north of India, but the experience

of the great war have caused some modifications in the opinions previously held as to the relative value of these and other fighting men. The numbers of the various castes and tribes enlisted in the Army have since the war undergone fluctuations, and it is not possible at present to give exact information as to their proportions. Previous to the war the Sikhs contributed very large numbers both to the cavalry and infantry, and the contribution of the Gurkhas was also large. The Sikhs, who inhabit the Punjab originated in a sect founded near Lahore by a peasant in the early part of the sixteenth century and in the course of a hundred years grew into a formidable militant power. Muhammadans of various races contribute a still larger proportion to both the cavalry and infantry. These are drawn both from the north and the south of India, as well as from beyond the Frontier. They are all excellent fighting men, hardy and warlike, who have furnished soldiers to all the great powers of India for many hundreds of years. As cavalry the Muhammadans are perhaps unequalled by any other race in the East being good horsemen and expert men-at-arms.

Next in point of numbers are the Gurkhas of Nepal, of whom there are twenty complete battalions which during the war were considerably increased. As fighters in the hills they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans in the North-West Frontier, but the Garhwals and Kumaonis are equally good mountaineers.

The professional military caste of India from time immemorial has been the Rajput, inhabiting not only Rajputana but the United Provinces and Oudh. Of fine physique and martial bearing, these warriors of Hindustan formed the backbone of the old Bengal Army and have sustained the English flag in every campaign in the East. Their high caste and consequent prejudices in no respect interfere with their martial instincts and efficiency in war. They furnish many battalions. The Garhwals are Hill Rajputs, good and gallant soldiers, who have proved themselves equal to any other troops on the field of battle and have established an imperishable record in the war both in Europe and in the East. The two battalions which existed in 1914 have since been increased to four. The Jats are a fine and warlike race of Hindus found in the Delhi and Kohlik districts and adjoining territory. It was these people who held out so bravely at Bharatpur and repelled Lord Lake's army in 1805. They have proved themselves good soldiers on the battlefields of Europe. Dogras are good and steady soldiers found in the hilly districts of the Punjab. They fought well in Flanders and in Mesopotamia.

Among those who have rendered signal and gallant service in the war are the Mahattas of the Deccan and the Konkan, who have revived the reputation held by their race in the days of Shivaji, the founder of the Mahatta Empire. It is probable that their proved efficiency in war will lead to their recruitment in larger numbers in future.

In addition to the castes that have been mentioned, other caste men from the south and other parts of India have filled the ranks of the Pio-

peer regiments and Sappers and Miners, and done their duty well in every campaign in which they have been engaged.

During the war the Victoria Cross was awarded for conspicuous gallantry to 2 Indian officers 4 non-commissioned officers and 6 other ranks of the Indian Army.

The Military Cross was awarded to 96 Indian Officers for distinguished service rendered during the Great War and to 3 Indian Officers for service in Waziristan.

A large number of Indian Officers and men were also granted foreign decorations.

Summary of India's Effort in the War—In a despatch by the Commander-in-Chief published in July, 1919, the whole operations of the Indian Army during the war are reviewed.

His Excellency gives in it the following figures showing the extent of India's contribution in terms of men. On the outbreak of war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks enlistments during the war for all branches of the service amounted to 791,000 making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number, 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants, the pre-war strength was 45,000; an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war and 391,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000, of whom 948,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 106,594, which include 36,694 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 175,000.*

Effectives, 1929

	Officers with King's Commissions.	British other ranks.	Indian Officers with Victoria's Commissions.	Indian other ranks.	Clerks and other civilians.	Followers.	Indian reservists.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I Combatant Services (includes Cavalry, Artillery Engineers, Pioneers, Infantry, Signal Service and Tank Corps.)	4,145	56,134	3,417	1,30,948	(a)	20,498	36,119
II Staff (inclusive of personnel of Administrative Services)	572	511	7	113	1,395	545	
III Training Establishments (inclusive of personnel of Departmental Corps)	118	162	9	104	84	340	
IV Educational Establishments	64	165	3	34	259	306	
V Indian Army Service Corps (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in items I, II, and III)	397	806	292	16,032	1,235	6,194	7,338
VI Indian Army Ordnance Corps. (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II)	69	578	6	1,757	575	206	..
VII Medical Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II)	904	861	719	4,288		4,748	3,440
VIII Veterinary Services (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II)	40	4	104	574	46	90	200
IX Remount Services. (Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II)	89	24	28	195	47	3,093	
X Miscellaneous Establishments (inclusive of Military Accounts Department)	259	184	115	543	6,920	1,574	
XI Auxiliary and Territorial Forces (Permanent Establishments)	164	408			12	5	
Total	6,771	59,827	4,732	1,54,580	10,853	27,598	46,007

(a) Included in column 7

* For a record of the services of the Indian Army in the War see "The Indian Year Book of 1920", p. 152, et seq.

Budget Expenditure on National Defence

A part of the Defence expenditure on the Indian Budget is incurred in England, the nature of such expenditure being indicated in the detailed Tables of Army, Marine and Military Engineer Services expenditure. This expenditure is met by transfer of funds from India. From the 1st April 1920 to the 31st March 1927, the accounts were prepared on the basis of the rate of 2s per rupee for the conversion of English sterling transaction into rupees. From the 1st April 1927 the accounts

are being prepared at the standard rate of 1s 6d per rupee.

As a rule the receipts collected by the various departments are not set off against expenditure as appropriations in aid, but are shown separately on the receipts side of the budget. This is especially the case with the receipts of the Military Departments which amount to considerable sums.

The Provincial Governments incur no expenditure for Military purposes.

SUMMARY OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE (Gross)

Table 1

	1925-29	1929-30	1930-31
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budget estimates as passed
	Rupees (000's omitted)		
Army	52,97 90	53 24,64	52,21,78
Marine	31,86	84 53	90,32
Military Engineer Services	4 43 48	4 64 75	4 54 98
Total	58 23 20	58 71 82	57 97,08

NOTES—(1) This summary includes the cost of the Royal Air Force which is included in the Army Estimates and also the expenditure on non-effective services, but does not include debt services.

(2) All Expenditure for Military purposes incurred in the United Kingdom by the Indian Government as also all contributions to the Imperial Government for these purposes, are included in the above figures.

ANALYSIS OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE.

1. The following table gives the main items of Army Expenditure, (gross) shown for India and England separately—

Table 2

	1925-29	1929-30	1930-31
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budgets Estimate
	Rupees (000's omitted)		
INDIA			
A <i>Standing Army</i>			
(1) Effective Services			
Maintenance of the Standing Army			15 24,70
Administrative services			0 92 65
Manufacturing establishments			2 27,83
Army Headquarters, Staff of Com mands, etc.			2,03,12
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			4 52 11
Special Services			12
Transportation, Conservancy, anti malarial measures not w other establishments and miscellaneous			2,34,39
Total Effective Services			33,34,62
(2) Non-effective Services			
Non-effective charges			3,56,71
B <i>Auxiliary and Territorial Forces</i>			
Effective			96,39
C. <i>Royal Air Force</i>			
Effective			1,23,19
Non-effective			80
Total India.			
Effective	36 50,34	35,74,82	55,54,20
Non-effective	3,54,63	3,57,50	3,57,01
Total	40,04,97	39,32,33	39,11,21

Table 2—contd

	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budget Estimates.
ENGLAND			
(Rupees 000's omitted)			
1 <i>Standing Army</i>			
(1) <i>Effective Services.</i>			
Maintenance of the Standing Army			3,55,95
Administrative Services			42 92
Manufacturing establishments			63 08
Army Headquarters, Staff of Com mands, etc			12 27
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			1 23 25
Special Services			
Transportation, Conservancy and mala- rial measures, hot weather establish- ments and miscellaneous			1 00,48
Total Effective Services			6,97,95
(2) <i>Non-effective Services</i>			4,96 05
B <i>Royal Air Force</i>			
Effective			1,15 40
Non-effective			2 08
Total England	12,92,98	13,92,21	13,10,67
Total Army Expenditure			
Effective	44 54,95	44 70 50	43,67,64
Non-effective	8,43 00	8,54,04	8 54,14
Grand Total	52,97,98	53 24,54	52,21,78

The amounts expended in England on effective services consist of such charges as payments to the War Office and Air Ministry in London in respect of British Forces serving in India, the transport to India of these forces and payments on account of stores taken to India by British Forces educational establishments in England for Indian Services, leave pay of Indian and British service Officers on the Indian Establishments purchase of imported stores, etc. The expenditure on non effective services consists of payments to the War Office in London for retired pay to British forces for services in India and to non-effective and retired officers of the Indian Service, and of various gratuities.

Although a sum of Rs 543.5 millions only has been allotted in the Budget for 1930-31 to

meet the net expenditure on Military Services, Rs 579.7 millions (including receipts) will be available for expenditure under the heading 'Military Services' made up of Rs.44.2 millions for expenditure in India and Rs 184.5 millions in England.

The gross working expenses of military establishments, such as bakeries pasture and dairy farms, army clothing factories and storage depots, army ordnance factories and base mechanical transport workshops are included in the Budget.

The division of expenditure on *Military Engineer Services* between India and England is as shown below

	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
	Closed Accounts	Revised Estimates	Budget Estimates
(Rupees 000's omitted)			
India	2,80,19	4,06,80	4,39 42
England	5,69	4,76	4,42
Total	2,83,88	4,11,56	4,43,84

The Strength of the Army.

BRITISH TROOPS

The following table gives the average strength of British troops and the main facts as regards their health for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1929 —

Period	Average strength	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home	Average constantly sick
1910-14 average	69,440	39,359	393	488	2,094 57
1915 19	66 109	53,387	583	1 980	3,277 53
1920	47 332	81 429	385	2 314	2,488 06
1921	58 681	60 515	408	749	3,070 04
1922	60,166	37 356	284	714	1,903 32
1923	63 139	37 595	237	979	1,793 31
1924	58,614	38 969	240	879	1,857 96
1925	57,378	36 069	166	997	1,750 19
1926	66,798	36,898	171	910	1,768 60
1927	55 682	34 666	149	629	1,654 23
1928	56 327	33,034	166	506	1,635 99
1929	59,827	38,742	203	671	1,740 84

INDIAN TROOPS.

The average strength of Indian troops, including those on duty in China and Nepal and other stations outside India in 1928 was 181,190

The following table gives below the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1929 —

Period	Average strength	Admissions	Deaths	Invalids	Average constantly sick	Ratio per 1,000 of strength			
						Admissions	Deaths	Invalids	Average constantly sick
1910 14 (average)	130,261	71,213	573	699	2,662	544 6	4 39	5 4	20 7
1915-19 (average)	204,298	161,028	3,435	4 359	7,792	738 2	10 81	23 6	38 1
1920	216 445	164,987	2 124	4,564	9,266	782 8	9 61	21 1	42 8
1921	175,384	119 215	1,782	3 638	6,031	679 7	10 16	20 7	34 4
1922	147,840	77 466	1 014	2,659	3,639	524 0	6 86	18 0	24 6
1923	143 284	66,647	808	2,328	2 955	496 7	5 98	16 3	20 68
1924	134,742	57 014	772	1,781	2,432	478 1	6 73	12 8	13 06
1925	136 473	48,691	547	1,712	2 053	356 8	4 01	12 8	15 04
1926	130 146	52,517	507	1 669	4,083	383 6	3 75	11 6	15 41
1927	133,200	47 054	442	1,842	1 972	358 6	3 87	12 8	15 03
1928	131,190	48 739	372	1 251	2,084	371 5	2 84	9 54	15 61
1929	154 560	46 654	639	1 431	1,564	361 5	3 42		16 6

THE EAST INDIES SQUADRON

Since 1908 a squadron of the Royal Navy, known as the East Indies Squadron, has been maintained in Indian waters. It has naturally varied in strength from time to time, and of late years in particular there have been several changes in its composition, the most recent being in the direction of strengthening it, owing to the disappearance of strength in the other squadrons of the Eastern Fleet. In 1908 the squadron consisted of one second class and three smaller cruisers and four sloops or gunboats. In 1908, when the policy of withdrawal from Eastern waters was inaugurated, it consisted of two second class and two third class cruisers, and remained at this strength until 1910 when one second class cruiser was withdrawn and two smaller vessels substituted, and three cruisers were lent from the Mediterranean to assist in the suppression of the arms traffic in the Gulf. By 1913 the position of the East Indies squadron had considerably improved. The battleship *Swift*

sure had taken the place of the second class cruiser which had been flagship, and a modern second class cruiser replaced the *Perseus*.
 The Squadron in 1930.—The composition of the Squadron (Fourth Cruiser Squadron) is as follows —

"*Kilnham*" (Flag), Cruiser 9770 tons,
 "Emerald", Cruiser, 7550 tons "Enterprise",
 Cruiser 7550 Sloop "Crocus", "Cyclamen",
 and "Lupin" Special Service vessel "Irid",
 (Senior Naval Officer, Persian Gulf) Survey
 Ship "Ormonde."

The proportion of contributions from the overseas Dominions towards naval expenditure is shown in the following table issued with the last Navy Estimates that gave details —

Received from	Nature of Service.	Total
		£
India	Maintenance of His Majesty's Ships in Indian Waters.	100,000
	Indian Troop Service (on account of work performed by the Admiralty)	3,400
	Repayment on account of services rendered by His Majesty's Ships engaged in the suppression of the Arms Traffic in the Persian Gulf	64,000
Australian Commonwealth Dominion of Canada	Contributions on account of liability for Retired Pay of Officers and Pensions of Men lent from the Royal Navy	10,800
Australian Commonwealth Do	Survey of the N W Coast of Australia	7,500
Dominion of New Zealand	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of a branch of the Royal Navy Reserve	41,600
	Maintenance of an Australasian Squadron and of the Imperial Navy generally, also of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve	100,000
Union of South Africa	General maintenance of the Navy	85,000
Newfoundland	Maintenance of a branch of the Royal Naval Reserve	3,000
	Total	415,800

India's Marine Expenditure

Since 1909 India has paid a contribution of varying amounts to the Imperial Government in consideration of services performed by the Royal Navy Under existing arrangements which date from 1898-7, the subsidy of £100,000 a year is paid for the upkeep of certain ships of the East India Squadron which may not be employed beyond prescribed limits, except with the consent of the Government of India. The expenditure amounts to nearly £400,000 annually.

The question of a new distribution of the burden of the cost of Imperial Naval defence was discussed at the Imperial Conference in London in October—November 1926. The matter appeared to be one on which the delegates could form no new decision without further consultations in their respective capitals and no resolution was passed.

The Royal Indian Marine has been reorganised so as to form the nucleus of an Indian Navy. The R I M Ship "Dakota" has been reconconditioned for use as a Depot Ship. Three of the R I M Ships have been reconconditioned for use as sloops of war in the R I M. A fourth sloop for the re-organised service is under construction in England.

ROYAL INDIAN MARINE

The Royal Indian Marine (The Sea Service under the Government of India) traces its origin so far back as 1612 when the East India Company stationed at Surat found that it was necessary to provide themselves with armed vessels to protect their commerce and settle ments from the Dutch or Portuguese and from the pirates which infested the Indian coasts. The first two ships, the *Dragon* and *Hoseander* (or *Oslander*), were despatched from England in 1612 under a Captain Beest, and since those days under slightly varying titles and of various strengths the Government in India have always maintained a sea service.

The periods and titles have been as follows —

Hon E I Co's Marine	1612—1686
Bombay "	1686—1830
Indian Navy "	1830—1863
Bombay Marine	1863—1877
H M Indian Marine	1877—1892
Royal Indian Marine	1892, Present day

The Marine has always been most closely connected with Bombay and in 1688 when the E India Co took over Bombay, Captain Young of the Marine was appointed Deputy

Governor From then until 1877 the Marine was under the Government of Bombay and although from that date all the Marine Establishments were amalgamated into an Imperial Marine under the Government of India, Bombay has continued to be the headquarters and the official residence of the Director

War Service of the Marine

1612-1717 Continuous wars against Dutch Portuguese and Pirates for supremacy of West Coast of India 1744 War with France capture of Chandernagore and French ship in dionne In 1756 Capture of Castle of Gheria 1774 Marhatta War capture of Tannah. Latter part of the eighteenth century, war with French and Dutch Capture of Pondicherry Trincomalee Jafnapatam, Colombo, etc 1801 Egyptian campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie 1803 War with France 1810 Taking of Mauritius and capture of French ship in Port Louis Early part of the nineteenth century suppression of Jowami Pirates in the Persian Gulf 1811 Conquest of Tara. 1813 Expedition against Sultan of Bampur 1817 18 Marhatta War, capture of Forts at Severndroog 1819 Expedition to exterminate piracy in the Persian Gulf 1820 Capture of Moehs 1821 Expedition against the Beni Koo-Ali Arabs 1824-26 First Burma War 1827 Blockade of Berbera and Somali Coast 1833 Defeat of Beal Yaa Pirater 1838 Expedition to Afghanistan and capture of Karachi 1838 Capture of Aden 1840-42 War in China 1843 Scinde War Battle of Meeanee capture of Hyderabad 1845-46 Maori war in New Zealand 1848-49 War in Punjab, siege of Multan 1852 Second Burma War, capture of Rangoon Martaban Basmeln Prome and Pegu 1855 Persian War capture of Bushire Muhammarah and Ahwar 1855-57 War in China 1857-59 The Indian Mutiny 1859 Capture of the Island of Beyt. 1860 China War, Canton Taku Forts, Fatahan and Peking 1871 Abyssinian War 1882 Egyptian Campaign 1885 Egyptian Campaign 1885 Third Burma War 1890 Chin Lohai Expedition 1896 Suakin Expedition 1897 Expedition to Intirbe Mombasina in Africa 1899-1902 S African War 1900-01 Boxer Rebellion in China relief of Peking 1902-04 Somaliland Expedition, Suppression of Arms Traffic operations, Persian Gulf 1912-14

During the War 1914-1918 Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on many and various duties Royal Indian Marine Ships "DUFFERIN" "HARDEN" "NORSEBROOK," "LAWRENCE," "DAKOTA" and "MINTO" had their guns mounted and served as Auxiliary Cruisers Officers also served in the Royal Navy in the Grand Fleet Mediterranean North Sea, North Red Sea and Caspian Sea Fleets

In addition to transport duties in Indian Ports Officers were sent to Marseilles, East Africa and Egypt for such duties, and on the entry of Turkey into the War were employed on duties towing and manning River Craft and Barges to and in Mesopotamia and it was necessary to enlist a number of Temporary Officers, Warrant Officers and men to the numbers of approximately 240 60 and 2000 respectively for the e and other duties

When the War Office assumed full control of Operations in Mesopotamia a large number of Regular and Temporary Officers and men were seconded to the Royal Engineers and General Service respectively for duties in the Inland Water Transport which controlled all River Transport work in that country, and these officers held many important executive appointments in that unit.

The movements of all sea transports between India and the various theatres of War were controlled by Marine Officers

Trawlers were built in the Bombay and Calcutta Dockyards and mine sweeping operations were carried out with these and launches off Bombay and elsewhere, the trawlers were also used for towing duties

Retired Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on naval transport duties in England and France and also in very responsible positions with the Inland Water Transport in France

Service in the War 1914 18.—The Royal Indian Marine though a small Service compared with the Army and Navy played a very active and conspicuous part in the European War These are set out in detail in the Indian Year Book for 1922 and earlier editions (q v pp 202 et seq)

Reorganisation Schemes.—After the War the Government of India asked Admiral of the Fleet Lord Jellicoe, who was visiting India, to draw up a scheme for the reorganisation of the Service His valuable suggestions were unfortunately too ambitious for Indian finances and could not be accepted

Shortly afterwards the Fisher Committee arrived in India to report on the Indian Army, and although the R.I.M. was not included in their terms of reference, they strongly recommended that the R.I.M. should be reorganised as a combatant service The Government of India in 1920 obtained from the Admiralty the services of Rear Admiral Mawby as Director, R.I.M., to draw up a scheme of reorganisation within limited limits His scheme, however, was not adopted and Admiral Mawby resigned his appointment

The R.I.M. then fell upon hard times, money was scarce, the report of the Incheape Committee necessitated drastic retrenchments, and the working of the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms resulted in the Local Governments having to defray the cost of the work of R.I.M. ships on their various stations on lighthouse duties, transport work carrying of officials etc The Local Governments were naturally inclined to think that if they had to pay they would like to have a say in the management and that if the work could be done cheaper locally they should arrange to carry out the duties themselves. Further the Incheape Committee recommended that the three large troopships should be scrapped and all troopship carried out under contract, which would have left the Marine with only the Survey Department and the Bombay Dockyard

A Combatant Service.—Happily for the Service however, the Government of India in 1922, appointed a Departmental Committee

under the Chairmanship of General Lord Bawlinson in his capacity of Minister of Defence and Member of Council in charge of the Marine Portfolio to submit a scheme for the reorganisation of the Service as a combatant force. This Committee recommended that the Service should be reorganised as a purely combatant Naval Service with the title of Royal Indian Navy with a strength in the first instance of 4 armed sloops 2 patrol vessels 4 mine-sweeping trawlers, 2 surveying ships and a depot ship the Service in the first instance to be commanded by a Rear Admiral on the active list in the Royal Navy. The scheme was accepted by the Indian and Home Governments and the necessary Act to permit India to maintain a Navy was passed through both Houses of Parliament.

To effect the change in the title it was necessary to draw up a new Indian Naval Discipline Act, and this had to be passed in the Legislative Assembly and Council of State in India. The Bill was introduced in February 1928 when the Government were defeated by one vote the defeat being caused, not by the fact that the people of India did not want an Indian Navy, but because in some cases members did not consider that the Legislature had been properly and fully consulted beforehand. Other members voted against the Bill on prin-

ciple as they considered that both Army and Navy should be directly controlled by the Legislature while the extremists voted against it because they were prepared to vote against any Government Bill which might be introduced.

The blow to the Service was a heavy one as it was feared that the defeat might put an end to the reorganisation. The Government, however, decided that the reorganisation should continue on the original lines except that the title could not be altered and that the service would have to use the old Discipline Act a perfectly correct Articles of War based on the Naval Discipline Act.

In 1928 on the recommendation of the Admiralty His Majesty the King approved of the change in uniform of officers to that of the Royal Navy with the exception of the buttons of the R. I. M., which bear the Star of India as a distinctive mark and also of the flying in E. I. M. ships of the White Pennant and the White Ensign of the Royal Navy. The White Ensign was hoisted for the first time on Armistice Day November 11th 1928.

The Indian Marine is now reorganised as one of the fighting forces of the Empire under the command of a Rear Admiral on the active list of the Royal Navy. Its duties are purely naval and its personnel are trained for war.

Personnel, 1931

HEADQUARTERS STAFF

Flag Officer Commanding Royal Indian Marine and P. N. T. O., East India	Rear Admiral H. T. Walwyn O.B., D.S.O.
Naval Secretary	Paymaster Commander E. A. Tolley, R.N.
Flag Lieutenant	Lieut. F. C. Hammond, R.I.M.
<hr/>	
Chief of Staff to Flag Officer Commanding R.I.M., and Captain Supdt. R.I.M. Dockyard	Captain E. H. Daughill, R.I.M.
Commander of the Dockyard	Commander J. N. Micalfe, O.B.E., D.S.C., R.I.M.
Squadron Gunnery Officer	Lieut. Comdr. P. H. Learmont, R.I.M.
Squadron Signal Officer	Lieut. St. J. A. D. Garniss, R.I.M.
Engineer Manager of the Dockyard	Engineer Captain W. A. Williams, R.I.M.
1st Assistant to the Engineer Manager of the Dockyard.	Engineer Commander S. R. Trenoweth, R.I.M.
2nd Assistant to the Engineer Manager of the Dockyard	Engineer Lieut.-Comdr. F. Clark, R.I.M.
Marine Store Officer	Engineer Commander A. Thomson, R.I.M.
Financial Adviser to the Flag Officer Comdg R.I.M.	C. Rajagopala Aiyar, M.B.E.
Chief Superintendent to the Flag Officer Comdg R.I.M.	E. Osborne Carey

MARINE TRANSPORT STAFF

Divisional Marine Transport Officer, Bombay
Asst. Marine Transport Officer, 1st Grade

" " " " " "
" " " " 2nd "

Commander C H Boykett R.I.M.
Lieut. Comdr H F Huggs Hallett,
M.N.E., D.S.C., R.I.M. (Karachi)
Lieut. Comdr F W Angell, R.I.M.
(Bombay)
Lieut. W R Shearing, (Karachi)

CIVILIAN GAZETTED OFFICERS

Constructor W G J Francis, Esq.
Electrical Engineer R T Burke Esq.
Assistant Marine Store Officer J A B Hawes Esq.,

OFFICERS

Captains	9	Engineer Lieutenant-Commanders, Engi	
Commanders	15	neer Lieutenants and Engineer-Sub	
Lieutenant-Commanders, and Sub-Lieutenants	47	Lieutenants	36
Engineer Captain	1	WARRANT OFFICERS	
Engineer Commanders	13	Gunnery and Boatswains	22
		Warrant Writers	4

PETTY OFFICERS AND MEN

Who are mostly recruited from the Ratnagiri District of the Bombay Presidency

	H M I S Olive	SHIPS,	
Sloop Minesweeping	"	2,059 tons	2 422 Horse Power
Sloop	"	1,754 "	2 700
Sloop Minesweeping	"	1 125 "	2 000 S H P
Sloop Minesweeping	"	1 333 "	2 020 Horse Power
Surveying Vessel	"	1,355 "	1,500 "
Depot Ship	"	1,038 "	490 "
Patrol Vessel	"	1,640 "	2,500 S H P
"	"	832 "	500 "
"	"	755 "	

In addition to the above there are 21 vessels composed of minesweeping and steam trawlers service launches, target towing tugs, distributed at Bombay Calcutta, Aden and Karachi

Dockyards

There were two Royal Indian Marine Dock yards at Bombay and at Calcutta the former being the more important. The one at Calcutta has been closed. There are 5 graving docks and a wet basin at Bombay together with factories

Medical Staff

Marine Surgeon Bombay, Lieutenant Colonel A. N. Thomas, D.S.O. M.B., B.S.
Officer in Charge, Dockyard Dispensary Lieutenant J B D'Souza, M.D.

R I M Warrant Officers

Boatswain of the Dockyard Boatswain W J Downing R.I.M.

Warrant Master-at-Arms, Dockyard Police Boatswain C Mahon R.I.M.

Asst. Warrant Master-at-Arms, Dockyard Police, Boatswain A H Lovett, M.B., B.S. R.I.M.

Police Boatswain, Boatswain Muhammad, Mohidin, R.I.M.

Boatswain, Sk. Kaka Jalno R.I.M.

Appointments

In addition to the regular appointments in the ships of the Royal Indian Marine, and in the R. I. M. Dockyard, the following appointments under the Government of India, Commerce Department are held by the officers of the Royal Indian Marine —

BOMBAY

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Bombay District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Bombay District, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor 2nd, 3rd and 4th Engineers and Ship Surveyors

CALCUTTA

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Calcutta District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department Calcutta District, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th Engineers and Ship Surveyors

MADRAS

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department Madras District and Engineer and Ship Surveyor

BURMA

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department Rangoon District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department Rangoon District, and Engineer and Ship Surveyor Rangoon

KARACHI

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Karachi District

ADEN

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Aden District

CHITTAGONG

Nautical Surveyor and Engineer and Ship Surveyor

PORT BLAIR.

Engineer and Harbour Master.

Agriculture.

As crops depend on the existence of plant food and moisture in the soil, so the character of the agriculture of a country depends largely on its soil and climate. It is true that geographical situation, the character of the people and other considerations have their influence which is not inconsiderable, but the limitations imposed by the nature of the soil and above all by the climate tend to the production of a certain class of agriculture under a certain given set of conditions.

The climate of India, while varying to some extent in degree in most respects is remarkably similar in character throughout the country. The main factors in common are the monsoon, the dry winter and early summer months, and the intense heat from March till October. These have the effect of dividing the year into two agricultural seasons the *Kharif* or Monsoon and the *Rabi* or Winter Season each bearing its own distinctive crops. Between early June and October abundant rains fall over the greater part of the continent while the winter months are generally dry, although North-Western India benefits from showers in December and January. The south of the Peninsula and especially the Madras Presidency however is more truly tropical especially in the south, and depends mainly on the N.E. monsoon here the two crop seasons can hardly be said to exist. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year which is of considerable importance to agriculture is none too favourable, but is not quite so bad as is often represented. The rainfall is greatest at what would otherwise be the hottest time of the year, viz. mid-summer, and when it is most needed. It should be remembered that in a hot country intermittent showers are practically valueless as evaporation is very rapid. Heavy rainfall concentrated in a limited period, though it has its drawbacks and demands a special system of agriculture, has many advantages in hot countries.

Soils.—Four main soil types can be recognised in India viz. (1) the Red soils derived from rocks of the Archaean system which characterise Madras, Mysore and the South East of Bombay and extend through the East of Hyderabad and the Central Provinces to Orissa, Chota Nagpur and the South of Bengal. (2) The black cotton or *regur* soils which overlie the Deccan trap and cover the greater part of Bombay, Berar and the Western parts of the Central Provinces and Hyderabad with extensions into Central India and Bundelkhand. The Madras *regur* soils though less typical are also important. (3) The great alluvial plains agriculturally the most important tract in India as well as the most extensive mainly the Indo-Gangetic Plain embracing Sind northern Rajputana, most of the Punjab the plains of the United Provinces, most of Bihar and Bengal and half of Assam. (4) The laterite soils which form a belt round the Peninsula and extend through East Bengal into Assam and Burmah.

The great alluvial plains are characterised by ease of cultivation and rapid response to irrigation and manuring broadly speaking there are few soils in the world more suited to intensive agriculture so long as the water supply is

assured. The other soils are less tractable and call for greater skill in management and are less adapted to small holdings, of these the *regur* soils are the most valuable.

Agricultural Capital and Equipment.—India is a country of small holdings and the commonest type is that which can be cultivated with one pair of bullocks under local conditions. Large holdings are practically unknown and are mainly confined to the planting industries. Farming is carried on with a minimum of capital, there being practically no outlay on fencing buildings or implements. Many causes militate against the accumulation of capital and agricultural indebtedness is heavy and the interest on loans high. Great progress has been made by the co-operative credit movement during the last twenty years. There are now 73,000 Agricultural Credit Societies in British India with some 2,400,000 members and a working capital exceeding 2½ crores of rupees. Not only have these societies brought cheaper credit to the cultivator but they have striven to inculcate the lesson that cheap credit is only valuable if applied to productive purposes and have encouraged thrift.

Equipment.—Practically all cultivation is done by bullocks and the capacity of these as draught animals varies from district to district as well as depending on the cultivator's individual circumstances. The best types in common use are capable of handling what would be considered as light single horse implements in Europe. In those tracts where irrigation is from wells bullocks are also used for drawing water they also drive the sugarcane crusher and tread out the grain at harvest. His implements being few, a cultivator's bullocks form by far the most important item of his movable property.

Implements are made of wood although ploughs are usually tipped with iron points, and there is a great similarity in their shape and general design. The introduction of iron ploughs has made much progress in the last few years and many hundred thousands are now in use. The levelling beam is used throughout the greater part of the country in preference to the harrow and roller, and throughout Northern India the plough and the levelling beam are the only implements possessed by the ordinary cultivator.

On black cotton soils the commonest implement is the *bahhar* a simple form of broad shape plough. Seed drills and drill hoes are in use in parts of Bombay and Madras but throughout the greater part of the country the seed is either broadcasted or ploughed in. Hand implements consist of various sorts of hoes the best known of which are the *kodai* or spade with a blade set at an angle towards the labourer who does not use his feet in digging and the *khurpi* or small hand hoe. Of harvesting machinery there is none grain is separated either by treading out with oxen or beating out by hand and winnowing by the agency of the wind. Simple reapers and winnowers are slowly coming into use in the wheat tracts. The larger iron ploughs are now a familiar sight in certain black soil areas and the use of other improved implements is growing. Even motor tractor ploughs are now estimated to number hundreds and a few steam ploughing sets are at work reclaiming land from deep-rooted grasses.

Cultivation.—Cultivation as its best is distinctly good but in the greater part of the country there is plenty of room for improvement. As in any other country success in agriculture varies greatly with the character of the people, depending largely as it does on thrift and industry. In most places considering the large population cultivation is none too good. Agriculture suffers through lack of organization and equipment. Two economic factors tend to keep down the standard of cultivation. Holdings are not only small but fragmented and the Indian laws of inheritance both perpetuate and intensify this evil. Very definite attempts are now being made in several provinces and states to amend matters and consolidate holdings but the process is necessarily slow. Secondly, cultivators rarely live on or near to their holdings but congregate in villages. The need for mutual protection is less than formerly and though tradition dies hard sub-villages are now springing up in many places. For *Rabi* crops which demand a fine seed bed preparatory tillage consists mainly of repeated treatments with the indigenous plough (or on black soils the *hakker*) which serves the purpose of plough, harrow and cultivator combined with applications of the levelling beam. Crude as these implements are they produce in Northern India a surface mulch and moist sub-soil which is the aim of all dry farming operations. For *Kharif* crops the preparation is much less thorough as it is essential to sow without delay. Inter-culture is usually inadequate. Manure is generally applied to more valuable crops like sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, etc. Seeding is either done broadcast or by drilling behind a wooden plough or drill. Thinning and spacing are not nearly so well done as they might be, and inter-cultivation is generally too superficial. Harvesting is done by sickle where the crops are cut whole and there is little waste involved. At their best the ryot's methods are not ineffective but being uneconomical of both cattle and man power, they are seldom carried out fully. The use of simple improved implements and of machines which lessen the strain on the bullocks which the agricultural department is steadily fostering is an important factor in raising the general standard of agriculture.

Irrigation.—The concentration of the principal rainfall in less than a third of the year which is not the sowing period of the *rabi* crops, places a very definite limit of the yield which can be obtained from the principal cereal crops. Some other crops, e.g., sugarcane, can hardly be grown indeed without supplementary watering. With adequate irrigation the yield from the principal grain crops in Northern India is doubled even in areas where the monsoon is generous, whilst in the great canal colonies barren desert has become fertile land. The Indian canal system is by far the largest in the world and already irrigates 91 million acres of crops annually. The area will be increased shortly to 97 million acres when works under construction are completed and when the various new canals are developed fully will probably reach 10 million acres. The protective effect of the canals in many areas is no less important than the enhanced yield. Protective irrigation works have made agriculture stable

instead of precarious in many districts. The Indian canals are of two types—perennial and inundation—and the trend of irrigation practice is to replace the latter by the former wherever possible. The great perennial canals in the North of India draw their supply from snow-fed rivers; the inundation canals run only when the rivers rise with the melting of the snow in April May and must close when supplies fall at the end of the monsoon. Other canals depend for their supply during the dry part of the year on water stored behind great dams thrown across suitable gorges and are in consequence less dependable than the larger snow-fed systems. Water rates are levied on the area of irrigated crops matured so that Government bears part of the risk of failure of crops. Different rates are charged for different crops and vary some what in different parts of India; rates are also lower when the water has to be lifted than when flow irrigation is given.

At the present time the Bombay Presidency possesses the most spectacular irrigation schemes in India—if not in the world. The Lloyd Dam at Dhatgar 190 feet high will have the greatest cubical contents of any masonry wall in the world. The Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, impounding 272 feet of water is far and away the highest dam in India, whilst the Sukkur Barrage in Sind across the Indus will irrigate a desert whose area far exceeds that of any other scheme conceived by engineers.

Irrigation from Wells.—About one quarter of the total irrigation of the country is got from lifting water from wells ranging in depth from a few feet to over fifty feet. Their numbers have greatly increased in recent years largely through Government advances for their construction. The recurring cost of this form of irrigation has however greatly increased owing to the high price of draught cattle and the increasing cost of their maintenance.

All Agricultural departments are now giving increased attention to the better utilisation of underground water supplies existing wells being improved by boring and tube wells of large capacity installed and equipped with pumping machinery.

Tank Irrigation is common in Central and Southern India. Large quantities of rain water are stored in lakes (or tanks) and distributed during the drier seasons of the year. Often the indirect effect of the tank in maintaining the sub-soil water level is as important as the direct irrigation.

Manures.—Although the number of cattle maintained in India is very high and indeed excessive there is everywhere a shortage of farmyard manure. This is partly due to the small use of bedding for which straw can ill be spared and to the keeping of cattle in the open, but mainly to the use of dung as the principal source of village fuel. Hence the supply of organic matter to Indian soils is deficient. Unfortunately the Indian cultivator does not possess the skill of the Chinaman in the making of composts and much valuable manurial material is wasted in every Indian village and to the detriment of sanitation. Green manure crops are spreading slowly and the use of oil-cakes, especially castor-cake, for the more valuable crops like sugarcane and tobacco is increasing.

The general trend of the results of experiments carried on by the various agricultural departments is to show that a better supply of organic manures is everywhere important, nitrogen is the most common limiting factor for India as a whole phosphatic manures are definitely advantageous in certain more limited tracts. Manuring for higher production is gradually spreading as the result of village demonstrations at present prices of certain artificial fertilisers, notably ammonium sulphate and the newer types of soluble phosphatic manure are definitely profitable not only for tobacco, sugarcane and market garden crops but for some staple crops especially rice superphosphate and nitrate of soda are being more widely used in certain areas.

Rice.—A reference to the crop statistics shows that rice is the most extensively grown crop in India, although it preponderates in the wetter parts of the country, viz. in Bengal Bihar and Orissa, Burma and Madras. The crop requires for its proper maturing a moist climate with well assured rainfall. The cultivated varieties are numerous, differing greatly in quality and in suitability for various conditions of soil and climate and the people possess an intimate acquaintance with those grown in their own localities. The better qualities are sown in seed beds and transplanted in the monsoon. Broadleaved rice is grown generally in lowlying areas and is sown before the monsoon as it must make a good start before the floods arrive. Deep water rice grows quickly and to a great height and are generally able to keep pace with the rise in water level.

For transplanted rice the soil is generally prepared after the arrival of the monsoon and is worked in a paddy before the seedlings are transplanted. The land is laid out into small areas with raised partitions to regulate the distribution of the water supply. The seedlings are planted in small bunches containing from 4 to 6 plants each and are simply dibbled into the mud at distances of 6 to 12 inches apart. Either by bunding to retain rainfall or by artificial irrigation the details varying with locality, the rice fields are kept more or less under water until the crop shows signs of ripening. The area under improved varieties of rice distributed by the agricultural departments now exceeds 1,000,000 acres.

Wheat.—Wheat is grown widely throughout Northern India as a winter crop. The United Provinces and the Punjab supplying about two thirds of the total area, and probably three-quarters of the total output in India. The majority of the varieties grown belong to the species *Triticum vulgare*. Indian wheats are generally white, red and amber coloured and are mostly classed as soft from a commercial point of view. As seen in local markets Indian wheats frequently contain appreciable quantities of other grains and even of extraneous matter due to the method of threshing employed. Wheat for export is well-cleaned and there has been great improvement in this respect of recent years. Most of the Indian wheats are soft weak wheats but there are some well known Macaroni wheats amongst them. Indian wheat at present meets a special de-

mand on the London market being available when other stocks of soft wheats are low. Strong wheats of high milling quality are grown on a considerable scale in Northern India as the result of the work of the Agricultural Departments but are mainly retained for local consumption. Exports of wheat during the last 80 years have varied from zero to over 2 million tons, most of the annual production of some 10 million tons is always consumed in the country. Indeed each rise in exports has been simultaneous with the opening up of a new canal colony. The crop is generally grown after a summer fallow and, except in irrigated tracts, depends largely on the conservation of the soil moisture from the previous monsoon. Sains in January and February are generally beneficial but an excess of rainfall in these months usually produces rust with a diminution of the yield. On irrigated land 2 to 4 waterings are generally given. The crop is generally harvested in March and April and the threshing and winnowing go on up till the end of May. In good years the surplus crop is bought up at once by exporters and no time is lost in putting it on the European market as other supplies are at that time of year scarce. In years of low yield the local price is sufficiently high to restrict exports. The total area under improved varieties of wheat is now reported to exceed 4 millions of acres.

The Millets.—These constitute one of the most important group of crops in the country, supplying food for the poorer classes and fodder for the cattle. The varieties vary greatly in quality height and suitability to various climatic and soil conditions. Perhaps the two best known varieties are Jowar (*Sorghum vulgare*) the great millet, and Bajra the Bulrush millet (*Pennisetum typhoides*). Generally speaking the jowars require better land than the bajras and the distribution of the two crops follows the quality of the soil. Neither for jowar nor bajra is manure usually applied though Jowar responds handsomely to high manuring and cultivation is not so thorough as for wheat. The crop is generally sown in the beginning of the monsoon and so it requires to be thoroughly weeded. It is often grown mixed with the summer pulses especially Arhar (*Cajanus indicus*—pigeon pea) and other crops. The subsidiary crops are harvested at intervals after the millet is harvested, and afterwards in some provinces ragi is also an important crop. The produce is consumed in the country.

Pulses.—Pulses are commonly grown throughout India in great variety and form at once the backbone of the agriculture, since even the present moderate degree of soil fertility could not be maintained without leguminous rotations, and a primary necessity in the food of the vast Indian population. The yields on the whole are fairly good mixed cropping is common. The principal pulses are Arhar (*Cajanus indicus*), gram (*Cicer arietinum*), various species of *Phaseolus* and *Pisum*. Reference should be made to Groundnuts which though of modern introduction now forms an important leguminous oil-seed crop in Madras and Bombay, and to a less extent in other provinces and an important article of export.

Cotton—Cotton is one of the most important commercial and export crops of India covering now some 28 million acres annually with a production of 5½ to 6 million bales of 400 lbs. Some two million bales are consumed annually in Indian mills the rest being exported to Japan (China and the Continent of Europe. Some 3½ of the average annual production consists of short-staple cotton of ½" to ¾" staple mainly ranging round ½". The remainder is medium staple cotton ranging from ¾" to 1½". The latter qualities are in keen demand for Indian mills Punjab-American and Madras Tinnevely and Karungundi being the principal long-staple cottons exported. There is no Indian cotton belt Bombay the Central Provinces, Hyderabad Baroda, Madras, the Punjab and the United Provinces all have important cotton tracts producing distinct types. Sowing and harvesting seasons are equally diverse the former extending from May to December in different parts of the country and the latter from October to May and June. Yields vary greatly in the best irrigated tracts the normal yield is about 200 lbs of ginned cotton per acre and yields much above these have been recorded whilst in the poorest unirrigated tracts 80 lbs per acre is a good crop. Of recent years, as the result of the work of the Agricultural Departments and the Indian Central Cotton Committee the quality and yield of the staple cottons has improved and also the yield and cleanliness of the short-staple tracts.

The Cotton Transport Act, the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act and the Bombay Cotton Markets Act have all been passed at the instance of the Committee and are doing much to check the abuse of adulteration and promote better marketing. Agricultural Departments have continued their campaign of cotton improvement and, apart from improvements in methods of cultivation improved varieties of cotton now covers over 4 million acres.

Exports—The exports of raw cotton from India by sea to foreign countries for the last 5 fiscal years (ending March 31st) were as follows in thousands of bales of 400 lbs each) —

Countries	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
United Kingdom	225	87	160	241	270
Other parts of the British Empire	16	6	7	7	5
Japan	2,064	1,842	1,235	1,610	1,530
Italy	456	505	380	384	398
France	193	123	185	204	233
China (exclusive of Hong Kong, etc)	538	391	112	404	566
Belgium	243	159	230	347	341
Spain	73	54	61	76	80
Germany	218	145	256	324	344
Other countries	127	96	110	115	179

Total exports from the six principal ports (Bombay, Karachi, Madras, Tuticorin, Calcutta and Rangoon) for the cotton season ending August 31st, 1930 totalled 3,959,849 bales as compared with 3,971,440 bales in 1929-30.

Sugarcane—India, though a large importer of sugar is nevertheless one of the most important sugarcane growing countries in the world the area under the crop being above 3 million acres. The crop is mainly grown in the sub-montane tracts of Northern India. The common varieties are thin and hard yielding a low percentage of juice of fair quality, but these are now being rapidly replaced by seedling canes of high merit compared to those of other sugarcane-growing countries. The area under such improved varieties in Northern India has already reached about 700,000 acres and is rapidly extending. By change of variety alone an increase of 50 per cent in the yield per acre is attained by using improved cultural methods also the yield in many cases is trebled. The greater part of the Indian sugarcane crop is converted into gur in which form it is consumed. A considerable amount of crystallised sugar is still made by the old indigenous process and modern factories in the year 1928-29 produced 99,000 tons, the net imports of sugar in 1929-30 averaged 239,000 tons mainly from Java. The Coimbatore cane breeding station has produced seedling canes of high merit both in regard to tonnage and quality. These are rapidly spreading in the principal portions of the sugarcane belt and improved methods of cultivation are being adopted. The agricultural side of the problem is practically solved though continuous effort is necessary. Certain well-equipped factories are obtaining a recovery of sugar on cane which compares very favourably with that in other countries. In some portions of the sugarcane belt cane of good quality can be produced as cheaply as in any country in the world. There is no reason why India should not be self-supporting in sugarcane products once the industry is properly organised and the question of protection for the Indian sugar industry was referred to the Tariff Board by the Government of India and its report was published in 1931.

Oilseeds—The crops classified under this heading are chiefly sesamum, linseed and the cruciferous oilseeds (rape, mustard, etc.). Although oilseeds are subject to great fluctuation in price and the crops themselves are more or less precarious by nature—they cover an immense area.

Linseed requires a deep and moist soil and is thus grown chiefly in Bengal, Bihar, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The crop is grown for seed and not for fibre and the common varieties are of a much shorter habit of growth than those of Europe. The yield varies greatly from practically nothing up to 500 or 600 lbs of seed per acre. The seed is mainly exported whole but a certain amount of oil pressing is done in the country.

Sesamum or (Glugelly) is grown mostly in Peninsular India as an autumn or winter crop. About 10 per cent of the production is exported and the rest consumed locally.

The Cruciferous Oilseeds form an important group of crops in Northern India where they grow freely and attain a fair state

of development. They are one of the most useful crops in the rotation. They occupy the land for a few months only and owing to their dense growth leave the soil clean and in good condition after their removal. A number of varieties are grown differing from each other in habit of growth, time of ripening, and size and quality of seed. The best known are rape, toria, and sarson. The crop is generally sown in September or early October and harvested from December to February. The crop is subject to the attack of aphids (green fly) at the time of flowering and sometimes suffers considerable damage from this pest. The seed is subject to injury from rain and great care has to be taken in the drying. Though the export of rape and mustard seed exceed a million tons annually, exports represent less than one fifth of the crop the bulk of which is crushed locally, both the cake and the oil are needed for local consumption.

Jute—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, *Capularia* and *Olliorius*. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After about three weeks submersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. The production of jute in 1930 was 11½ million bales on an area estimated at 2½ million acres. The area under improved varieties was about 1½ million acres. The world depression in trade has led to a fall in demand and slump in prices and a considerable reduction in jute production may be expected.

Tobacco is grown here and there all over the country chiefly, however, in Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madras and Burma. Of two varieties cultivated *Nicotiana glauca* is by far the most common. Maximum crops are obtained on deep and moist alluvium soils and a high standard of cultivation including liberal manuring is necessary. The crop is only suited to small holdings where labour is plentiful as the attention necessary for its proper cultivation is very great. The seed is germinated in seed beds and the young plants are transplanted when a few inches high, great care being taken to shield them from the sun. The crop is very carefully weeded and hoed. It is topped after attaining a height of say, 2 ft., and all suckers are removed. The crop ripens from February onwards and is cut just before the leaves become brittle. The greater part of the tobacco grown in India is intended for *hookah* smoking and is coarse and heavy in flavour. Lighter kinds are also produced for cigar and cigarette manufacture of recent years there has been important development in the production, in

commercial quantities, of better quality cigarette tobacco both in Madras and in Bihar. The flue cured tobacco from the new Fusa hybrids yields very satisfactory results and as these new strains come into general cultivation a further advance will be possible.

Livestock—The livestock population of British India consists mainly of about 130 million cattle, 21 million buffaloes, 23 million sheep, 39 million goats and 3 million horses, mules and donkeys and half-a-million camels and in the 51 Indian States for which figures are available, there are 36 million cattle and buffaloes, 25 million sheep and goats, a million horses, donkeys and mules and quarter-of-a-million camels. For draught purposes cattle are mainly used everywhere though male buffalo are important as draught animals in the rice tracts and damper parts of the country. Horses and mules are practically never used for agricultural purposes. For dairy purposes, the buffalo is important the milk yield being high and the percentage of butter fat considerably above that in cow's milk. The best known breed is the Murra buffalo of the Punjab. The cattle and buffalo population in India is abnormally high amounting to over 60 per cent. of the human population. The spread of cultivation has diminished the grazing grounds insufficient fodder crops are raised and many of the cattle are small, ill fed and inefficient. Nevertheless the best Indian breeds have many merits. Of draught types, the best known breeds are the Hissar, Nellore, Anand-mahal, Gujrat (Kankrej), Kharigarh and Malvi, the Sauriwal (Punjab), Gir (Kathiawar) Sindhi and Hansi are amongst the best milking breeds. On the Government cattle breeding farms pedigree herds are being built up and from these selected bulls are issued, preference being given to special breeding areas, to villages which undertake to exclude scrub bulls and where serious efforts to maintain a good strain of cow are made. Once established such breeding areas rapidly produce a supply of superior bulls for general distribution and in this way the valuable bulls from Government herds are used to advantage. The premium bull system is also working well in some tracts. Cattle improvement is a slow process at the best and though a start on sound lines has been made in all provinces, continued efforts and persistent endeavour is essential. There is no branch of agricultural improvement where the landowners of India could render greater service.

Dairying—Though little noticed, dairying forms a very large indigenous industry throughout India. The best known products are native butter (ghee) and cheese (dahi). During recent years a considerable trade in tinned butter has sprung up in Gujrat (Bombay Presidency). While pure ghee and milk can be procured in the villages, in the towns dairy products can scarcely be bought unadulterated. The Government of India have opened an up-to-date Creamery and Butter Factory at Anand and an Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore where students are given courses for the Indian Dairy Diploma.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS

Agricultural Progress—The historical aspect of agricultural development in India has recently been fully dealt with in the report of the Lallithgou Commission. The Famine Commission as long ago as 1866 made the first proposal for a separate Department of Agriculture but little resulted except the collection of agricultural statistics and other data with the object of throwing light on famine problems. The Famine Commission of 1880 by their masterly review of the possibilities of agricultural development revived interest in the matter and their proposal for a new Department for Agriculture and allied subjects in the Government of India and for provincial departments of agriculture bore fruit eventually. Dr J. A. Yoelker (Consulting Chemist to the Royal Agricultural Society) was invited to visit India and his book *Improvement of Indian Agriculture* is still a valuable reference book. In 1892 an agricultural chemist to the Government of India was appointed. Provincial Departments mainly concerned themselves at first with agricultural statistics but experimental farms were opened at Saidapet in 1871, Poona in 1880, Cawnpore in 1881 and Nagpur in 1883, there were various sporadic attempts at agricultural improvement but no real beginning was made until technical agricultural officers were appointed. Of these the earliest were Molison in Bombay (subsequently Inspector General of Agriculture), Barber and Benson in Madras, Hayman in the United Provinces and Milligan in the Punjab. In 1901 the first Inspector General of Agriculture was appointed and in the same year an Imperial Mycologist was added followed by an Imperial Entomologist in 1903. The present departments of agriculture however owe their existence to the foresight and energy of Lord Curzon whose famous despatch of 1903 marked the commencement of the reorganisation which took place in 1905. That scheme provided for a central research institute at Pusa, completely staffed provincial departments of agriculture with agricultural colleges and provincial research institutes and an experimental farm in each important agricultural tract. To the establishment of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa Lord Curzon devoted the greater part of a generous donation of £30,000 given by Mr Henry Phipps of Chicago to be applied to some object of public utility preferably connected with scientific research. The Indian Agricultural Service was constituted in 1906. Since that date progress has been steady and continuous. With the advent of the reforms of 1919 agriculture became a provincial transferred subject but the Government of India retained responsibility for central research institutions and for certain matters connected with the diseases and pests of plants and animals. The addition of the Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying (with a branch farm at Wellington), the Imperial Cattlebreeding Farm at Karnal and the Anand Creamery enabled livestock work to be carried out on a scale not possible at Pusa. The Imperial Sugarcane-breeding station at Coimbatore is yet another branch of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute. Provincial Governments have steadily developed and strengthened their agricultural departments. The total net ex-

penditure of provincial agricultural departments now exceeds 105 lakhs rupees annually the net annual expenditure on the Imperial Department of Agriculture is in the neighbourhood of 11 lakhs.

Parallel developments took place in the provision made for matters connected with animal health. The now world famous Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research at Muktesar started in 1893 as a modest hill laboratory for research on rinderpest. It is now a fully equipped research institute which also manufactures protective sera and vaccines of which some 8 million doses are issued annually. The Civil Veterinary Department was formed in 1891 and until 1912 was under the control of the Inspector General. The departments were completely provincialised in 1919. The Government of India continues to finance and control the Muktesar Research Institute and its branch station at Izatnagar (Barilly).

Recent Progress—As now constituted the Agricultural Departments include a complete organisation for bringing the results of the application of science to agriculture into the village. At one end of the scale are the agricultural colleges and research institutes—at the other thousands of village demonstration plots where the issue of improved seed methods implements and manures is shown under the cultivators own conditions. Intermediate links in the chain are the experimental farms, where scientific research is translated into field practice demonstration and seed farms and seed stores. The ascertained results of the work of the agricultural department are striking enough. More than 12 million acres are known to be under improved crops—the further area due to natural spread is indeterminate. Twenty-seven thousand improved ploughs were sold through Agriculture Departments in 1924-25 and sales through private agencies were still greater. Improved methods of cultivation and manuring are steadily spreading work is in progress on most of the major crops and each year brings new triumphs. The present position has been authoritatively reviewed by the Royal Commission on Agriculture which reported in 1928. Recognising how much has already been done in the 20 years since the agricultural departments were created the Commission also emphasised the enormous field for future work to which all witnesses had drawn their attention. The agricultural departments having shown that the application of science to Indian agriculture is a practical proposition and further that the individual cultivator can be reached and his methods improved the problem is now to develop and intensify such work so that a general advance in agricultural practice will result. The many far reaching proposals of the Commission are still under the consideration of Local Governments but many have already been acted upon. At no time has there been a greater need for co-ordinated effort directed towards the solution of agricultural problems. Only by increased efficiency in production can India meet the situation caused by low prices for all agricultural commodities and the intense competition in world markets arising from production in excess of effective demand.

GOVERNING BODY

Member of the Council of His Excellency the Governor General in the Department of Education, Health and Lands (Chairman)	(The Honble. Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazil Hussain K C I E Kt Barrister-at Law)
Principal Administrative Officer (Vice Chairman)	(Dewan Bahadur Sir T. Vijayaraghavachari K B E)
Minister for Agriculture, Madras	(The Honble Mr P. J. Rajan)
Minister for Agriculture, Bombay	(The Honble Rao Bahadur S. T. Kambh, B.A. J I B)
Minister in charge of Portfolio of Agriculture, Jaipur	(The Honble Khan Bahadur Maulvi Fazl Gohar Mohiuddin Ismail)
Minister for Agriculture, United Provinces	(The Honble Mahraj Kumar Major Mahipal Singh)
Minister for Agriculture, Punjab	(The Honble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh Kt)
Minister for Agriculture, Burma	(The Honble Sir Lee Ah Yain, Kt)
Minister for Agriculture, Bihar and Orissa	(The Honble Sir Sayid Mohammad Fakhruddin, Khan Bahadur, Kt)
Minister for Agriculture, Central Provinces and Bihar	(The Honble Dr P. B. Dasgupta)
Minister for Agriculture, Assam	(The Honble Maulavi Abdul Hamid, B L)
Representative of the Council of State	Vacant
Representatives of the Legislative Assembly	Vacant
	Vacant
Representative of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon	(Sir Joseph Kay Kt)
Representative of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry	(Walchand Hirchandani, Esq.)
Nominated by the Advisory Board	(K. Hewitt Esq., O B E and P. K. Carpenter Esq.)
Revenue Minister of H. E. H. the Nizam's Executive Council	(Lt Col. Sir Chevenix Trench, Kt., C I I O B E)
Additional Member nominated by the Governor General in Council	(Sir Frank Noyce Kt, C S I, C B E, I C S)

THE ADVISORY BOARD

Vice Chairman of the Society	(Dewan Bahadur Sir T. Vijayaraghavacharya, K B E)
Agricultural Expert	(Mr B. C. Burt C I E M B E, B Sc, I A S)
Animal Husbandry Expert	(Col. A. Oliver C B C M G F R C V S)
Director, Imperial Institute of Agricultural Research	(Dr B. A. Keen, D Sc., F Inst P)
Director, Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar	(F. Ware Esq., F R C V S, I V S Offg on leave) (W. Taylor Esq., M R O V S I V S Offg)
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Director of Agriculture, Madras	(G. R. Hillson, Esq. B Sc Offg)
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THE IMPERIAL COUNCIL OF AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH.

In Chapter III of their Report, the Royal Commission on Agriculture stated that the most important problem with which they had been confronted was that of devising some method of infusing a different spirit into the whole organisation of agricultural research in India and of bringing about the realisation on the part of research workers in this country that they are working to an end which cannot be reached unless they regard themselves as partners in a common enterprise. They had found not only a lack of sufficiently close touch between the Pusa Research Institute and the provincial agricultural departments but also between the provincial departments themselves. After describing the way in which similar difficulties had been overcome in Canada, the United States and Australia and dismissing as inadequate the constitution of crop committees on the model of the Indian Central Cotton Committee or the constitution of a quasi independent governing body for Pusa on which the provincial agricultural departments and non-official interests would be represented, the Commission proposed the establishment of an Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

The primary function of the Council would be to promote guide and co-ordinate agricultural including veterinary, research in India and to link it with agricultural research in other parts of the British Empire and in foreign countries. It would make arrangements for the training of research workers, would act as a clearing house of information in regard not only to research but also to agricultural and veterinary matters generally and would take over the publication work at present carried out by the Imperial Agricultural Department. The Commission proposed that the Council should be entrusted with the administration of a non-lapsing fund of Rs. 50 lakhs to which additions should be made from time to time as financial conditions permit. Its Chairman should be an experienced administrator with a knowledge if possible, of Indian conditions and in addition, there should be two other whole-time members of the Council for agriculture and animal husbandry respectively. The Commission suggested that the Council should consist of thirty-six members in addition to the Chairman and the two whole time members. Of these, eight would be nominated by the Government of India, eighteen would represent the provincial, agricultural and veterinary departments, three would represent the Indian Universities, two would represent the Indian Central Cotton Committee and the planting community respectively and five would be nominated by the Council for the approval of the Government of India. The Council would largely work through a Standing Finance Committee and sub-committees. A provincial committee should be established in each major province to work in close co-operation with it. The advisory duties of the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India would be taken over by the Chairman and whole-time members of the Research Council his administrative duties being taken over by a whole time Director of the Pusa Institute,

Constitution of the Council.—In a Resolution issued on May 28rd, 1929 the Government of India stated that whilst they were of opinion that the proposals of the Royal Commission were, on the whole, admirably designed to secure the objects for the attainment of which the establishment of the organisation outlined above was recommended, they considered a Council of thirty nine members would be too large to be really effective and that it was not desirable that the Legislative Assembly should be deprived of its normal constitutional control over an activity which affects the staple industry of India. They had therefore decided that the central organisation should be divided into two parts, a Governing Body which would have the management of all the affairs and funds of the Council subject to the limitation in regard to the control of funds which is mentioned below and an Advisory Board the functions of which would be to examine all proposals in connection with the scientific objects of the Council which might be submitted to the Governing Body, to report on their feasibility and to advise on any other questions referred to it by the Governing Body. The Governing Body would consist of the Member of the Governor General's Council in charge of the portfolio of Agriculture who would be *ex-officio* Chairman, the Principal Administrative Officer of the Council, who would be *ex-officio* Vice-Chairman, one representative of the Council of State, two representatives of the Legislative Assembly, one representative of the European business community elected by the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon one representative of the Indian business community elected by the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry the nine Provincial Ministers of Agriculture two representatives elected by the Advisory Board and such other persons as the Governor General in Council might from time to time appoint.

The Advisory Board would consist of all those whose inclusion in the Council was recommended by the Royal Commission with the exception of the representatives of the Central Legislature and the representatives of the European and Indian commercial communities who, under the modified scheme would be members of the Governing Body. In view of their exclusion from the Advisory Board, the university representation would be increased from three to four and the scientific representation by the addition of the Director of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore a representative of the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun and a representative elected by the Indian Research Fund Association. A representative of the Co-operative Movement would also be added. The Principal Administrative Officer to the Council would be *ex-officio* Chairman of the Advisory Board.

The Government of India further announced that for the lump grant of Rs. 50 lakhs recommended by the Royal Commission, they had decided to substitute an initial lump grant of Rs. 25 lakhs, of which Rs. 15 lakhs would be paid in 1929-30 supplemented by a fixed

minimum grant annually. The annual grant would be Rs. 7.25 lakhs of which Rs. 5 lakhs would be devoted to the furtherance of the scientific objects of the Council and the remaining Rs. 2.25 lakhs to the cost of its staff and secretariat. The Council would have an entirely free hand in regard to the expenditure of the grants made to it for scientific purposes subject to the condition that no liability in respect of such matters as leave or pension contributions after the research for which the grant had been given would be incurred. In regard to the grant to meet the cost of staff establishment etc. the Council would be in the same position as a Department of the Government of India Secretariat.

The Council has since been constituted a separate Department of the Government of India for the purpose of administering this grant.

The Government of India also stated their decision that the Council should not be constituted under an Act of the Imperial Legislature as recommended by the Royal Commission but should be registered under the Registration of Societies Act, XXI of 1900. In pursuance of this decision a meeting of those who would constitute the Society was held at Simla in June 1929 to consider the terms of a memorandum of association and the Rules and Regulations. At that meeting it was announced that His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Government had offered a donation of Rs. 2 lakhs to the funds of the Council. This offer was gratefully accepted and the Revenue Member of the Nizam's Government has been added to the Governing Body. The Directors of Agriculture and of Veterinary Services becoming members of the Advisory Board. The three last named members vacated their seats owing to the dissolution of the Council of State and the League Assembly and their places will be filled up by the election of new members.

Other additions have since been made to the Advisory Board and the present constitution of the Council is now as shown below —

The Vice Chairman of the Council is Sir T. Vijayaraghavacharya KBE late member of the Public Service Commission. The Agricultural Expert is Mr. B. C. Burt OBE MBE late Director of Agriculture Bihar and Orissa and the Animal Husbandry Expert Col. A. Oliver CMG FRCVS. The Secretary to the Council is Mr. M. S. A. Hydrari ICS (Madras).

Work of the Council.—The first important step taken by the Council after its formal constitution was the appointment of a Committee to examine and report on the measures to be taken for strengthening and developing the sugar industry. This Committee has presented an *interim* report, which was considered at the first meeting of the Council which was held at Poona from the 2nd to the 7th December 1929. The Governing Body then decided that the Government of India should be asked to refer the general question of the import duties on sugar for investigation by the Indian Tariff Board and to take immediate action for the conversion of the present *ad valorem* duty on lower trade sugar into a

specific duty in order to prevent unfair competition with Indian gur. The first of these recommendations has been accepted by the Government of India and an investigation by the Tariff Board is now in progress. Other decisions on this subject were that Rs. 8,000 should be granted to the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and the Punjab for experiments, in devising satisfactory small power sugarcane crushing mill, that a prize of Rs. 20,000 should be awarded to any individual or firm for the invention of a satisfactory small power sugarcane crushing power mill and that the appointment of a Technologist should be sanctioned.

On the recommendation of the Advisory Board a special sub-committee of that Board was constituted to investigate the measures required to deal with the locust problem. Another sub-committee was appointed to investigate the problems relating to the conservation of indigenous manual resources and the development of the use of indigenous fertilisers and the preparation of a programme of research on fertilisers. The Governing Body accepted a Resolution of the Advisory Board that a whole time officer should be employed to study and report on the conditions under which hemp is marketed in the Provinces concerned. It was decided to recommend to the Government of India that the Board of Agriculture a meeting of which was held at Poona after the meeting of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, should be known in future as the Board of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, that it should be convened under the auspices of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and that it should be divided into two branches (a) crops and soils and (b) animal health and husbandry each branch meeting biennially. This recommendation has been accepted by the Government of India and the Board of Agriculture has been reconstituted accordingly. A grant of Rs. 45,000 to Dr. K. C. Mehta Professor of Botany Agricultural College for an investigation into Rusts of wheat and barley was sanctioned and it was also decided that two Indians should be selected and sent at once to England for training in cinema production at the expense of the Empire Marketing Board provided the men selected agreed to serve the Council for a period of three years after their return to India.

The first business at the second meeting of the Governing Body which was held at Simla on July 29th and 30th, 1930 was to lay down the principles which should govern the grants made by the Council. It was decided that schemes sanctioned by the Council should be of all India importance, that ordinarily the land and buildings required for them should be provided by the Government or Governments concerned, the Council making a grant for equipment and staff alone, that ordinarily the Government or Governments interested should bear a part of the recurring expenditure involved, that assistance should normally be limited in the first instance to five years and that a scheme other than one submitted by the Government of India or a local Government should normally have the support of the Government of the Province from which it emanates. On the *agricultural side* schemes for the establishment

at Karnal of a sub-station of the Coimbatore Imperial Sugarcane Station, for the establishment of a sugarcane research station in Bihar and the appointment to it of a sugarcane specialist and for the appointment to the Imperial Institute of Agricultural Research at Pusa of a Mycologist for work on mosaic and other cane diseases were sanctioned. Important schemes for rice research in Assam, Bengal, Bihar and Madras were considered and accepted in principle but, before sanctioning detailed estimates, the Governing Body resolved to make enquiries from the Empire Marketing Board whether it would make any contribution towards the cost. Schemes for the establishment of a new branch of Agricultural Meteorology under the Indian Meteorological Department at Poona and of a sub-station of the Botanical Section of the Pusa Institute at Karnal were also accepted. Grants to Professor Parjia of Cuttack for research work on water hyacinth, to Dr J N Mukerjee of the University of Calcutta for research into the properties of colloidal soil constituents, Professor P C Mahalanobis of the University of Calcutta for statistical investigations on experimental errors in field trials and to Provincial Agricultural Departments for the collation of data on manurial experiments were sanctioned. Proposals for the award of an annual prize and of medals

for improvements in agriculture and animal husbandry generally and also for the award of a prize for a bone crusher worked by animal power and by mechanical power were accepted but the proposal that a prize of Rs 20,000 should be awarded to any individual or firm for the invention of a satisfactory, small power sugarcane crushing mill which had been sanctioned by the Governing Body at its first meeting was reconsidered and dropped. On the *Privy Council*, the Governing Body sanctioned schemes for the appointment of a protozoologist and of a special officer for the investigation of tuberculosis and John's disease among animals at the Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar. As regards dissemination of information the Governing Body decided that the Sugar Bureau at Pusa should be transferred to the control of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and it is being taken over with effect from April 1st 1931 when it will be transferred to Cawnpore and placed in charge of the Council's Sugar Technologist. The proposal of the Advisory Board that a Bureau of Agricultural Intelligence in India should be established under the Council was accepted as was one for the Extraction, Summarising and Publication of material on the research and experimental work carried out by the Imperial and Provincial Agricultural Departments in India.

AREA, CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED, in 1928-29 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	Area according to Survey	Deduct Indian States	NET AREA	
			According to Survey	According to Village Papers
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	91,684,310		91,684,310	91,166,718
Bombay	97,488,247	18,568,960	78,919,287	78,849,87
Bengal	52,604,669	3,477,700	49,126,969	49,126,960
United Provinces	72,648,741	4,318,232	68,330,509	67,980,190
Punjab	66,646,286	286,700	66,359,586	66,25,81
Burma	155,652,668		155,652,668	155,652,668
Bihar and Orissa	71,507,819	18,834,720	52,673,099	53,17,99
Central Provinces and Berar	83,929,098	19,900,727	64,028,371	61,171,9
Assam	43,361,410	8,061,440	35,299,970	35,299,970
North West Frontier Province	8,578,211	140,800	8,437,411	8,566,159
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	1,802,274		1,802,274	1,802,274
Coorg	1,512,280		1,512,280	1,512,280
Delhi	370,001		370,001	370,001
TOTAL	746,226,204	78,170,339	670,045,865	667,536,271

Provinces.	CULTIVATED		UNCULTIVATED		Forests
	Net Area actually Sown	Current Fallows	Culturable Water other than Fallow	Not available for Cultivation	
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	34,067,941	1,06,097	13,346,040	20,414,647	13,231,118
Bombay	32,113,022	10,816,400	6,819,351	19,910,668	9,239,851
Bengal	23,826,700	4,793,700	6,013,218	10,073,232	4,579,980
United Provinces	34,597,345	3,420,595	10,793,769	10,006,495	9,267,992
Punjab	28,810,628	3,478,205	10,286,289	12,607,083	2,067,833
Burma	17,535,484	3,991,168	59,760,206	53,986,367	23,420,245
Bihar and Orissa	24,779,100	5,987,728	6,999,304	8,116,448	7,310,519
Central Provinces and Berar	25,184,780	3,290,213	14,330,094	4,609,849	10,461,873
Assam	6,888,090	1,77,231	18,217,849	5,142,400	3,830,900
North West Frontier Province	2,215,157	1,003	2,838,698	2,639,915	358,386
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	350,646	17,170	296,602	868,092	115,758
Coorg	137,349	171,991	11,590	534,045	3,57,155
Delhi	209,154	19,493	68,768	74,783	
TOTAL	228,166,096	48,432,508	154,679,991	149,084,262	87,223,719

AREA UNDER IRRIGATION IN 1922-23 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	Total Area Sown.	AREA IRRIGATED				
		By Canals.		By Tanks	By Wells	Other Sources
		Government	Private			
	Acree	Acree	Acree	Acree	Acree	Acree
Madras	38,779,144	3,723,933	264,180	3,216,369	1,442,333	463,040
Bombay	33,441,324	3,234,802	85,818	121,172	587,187	93,980
Bengal	28,702,700	91,534	101,477	811,965	12,080	328,403
United Provinces	43,107,786	2,928,292	19,504	56,457	5,806,799	1,023,822
Punjab	31,961,745	10,381,745	405,671	26,622	4,122,194	129,060
Burma	18,291,516	636,009	320,427	210,546	13,586	321,585
Bihar and Orissa	30,057,000	372,987	994,224	1,300,037	615,668	1,447,332
Central Provinces & Berar	27,513,844	Included under private canals	925,766	Included under private canals	93,243	40,763
Assam	6,988,042	11,172	267,166	1,087		269,829
North-West Frontier Province	2,604,671	382,427	406,496		98,314	92,684
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana	473,880			40,584	107,343	
Coorg ..	138,300	2,157		1,331		
Delhi . .	268,846	36,986		2,659	36,075	.
Total .	252,323,159	22,306,944	2,690,731	5,798,579	12,964,992	4,621,448

Provinces	AREA IRRIGATED	CROPS IRRIGATED * 1923-29				
	Total Area Irrigated	Rice	Wheat	Barley	Jowar or Cholam (great millet)	Bajra or Cumbu (spiked millet.)
	Acres	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras .	9 115,765	7,744,827	2 757	1	488,373	354,292
Bombay	4 122,959	1 376 271	448,307	16,221	751,821	458,485
Bengal ..	1,435,499	1,319,001	14,399	5,544		20
United Provinces	10,489 874	7,1,830	3,819 608	1 907,676	206,983	87,299
Punjab,	15 065 292	707,789	5,332,636	390,906	238,894	352,323
Burma	1,500,153	1,458,572	28	.	54	.
Bihar and Orissa	5,270 068	3,290,734	250,290	103,024	750	455
Central Provinces and Berar	1,059 772	939 932	19 574	1,244	65	
Assam .	549 2,34	547 238			.	—
North-West Frontier Province	964 923	40 348	316,382	92,963	19,375	5 886
Ajmer-Marwar and Munpur Pargana	145,027	17	18,731	36,417	1,803	2,027
Oceang ..	3,488	3,488				
Delhi	77,720	22	31,662	10 735	4,116	1,925
TOTAL	49,751,694	18 180 229	10,264 880	2,564 731	1 712,234	1,264,208

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

Provinces	CROPS IRRIGATED *						
	Maize	Other cereals and pulses	Sugar-cane	Other Food crops	Cotton	Other Non-food crops	Total
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	4,671	1,260,817	85,439	289,954	234,410	473,621	10,941,271
Bombay	27,270	288,202	63,938	210,405	423,147	368,023	4,432,680
" "	8,319	46,388	61,335	142,269	2,200	62,810	1,657,393
United Provinces	475,375	2,369,219	894,014	405,134	431,448	398,129	11,783,500†
Punjab	422,236	1,308,816	326,113	267,760	2,378,418	3,506,911	15,392,797
Eurma	63	2,607	3,112	66,761	103	17,817	1,549,189
Bihar and Orissa	87,215	1,145,893	138,995	169,842	1,675	122,677	5,320,850
Central Provinces and Berar	111	1,239	20,811	70,815	57	5,824	1,069,772
Assam		66		1,900			549,254
North-West Frontier Province	254,444	26,353	48,005	26,428	14,153	122,269	966,106
Ajmer Merwara and Manipur Pargana	21,208	18,790	8,234	14,144	27,155	11,643	100,164
Coorg			..				8,488
Delhi ..	827	6,333	4,816	6,617	1,501	9,131	77,720
TOTAL	1,856,744	6,474,426	1,656,742	1,672,159	3,514,173	5,189,260	53,984,189

* Includes the area irrigated at both harvests.

† Includes 35,000 acres for which details are not available

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1928-29 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	FOOD GRAINS				
	Rice	Wheat	Barley	Jowar or Chulam (great millet)	Rajra or Chulm (spiked millet)
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	11,018,981	16,258	2,574	4,614,579	3,007,294
Bombay	3,111,472	2,067,411	14,247	7,771,021	5,024,260
Bengal	21,408,900	122,040	81,700	4,200	2,000
United Provinces	7,057,101	7,176,219	4,381,736	2,263,936	1,973,812
Punjab	883,900	9,958,964	1,339,960	948,773	2,479,600
Burma	12,732,636	46,770		516,011	
Bihar and Orissa	14,852,200	1,212,300	1,597,800	78,900	74,700
Central Provinces and Berar	5,444,753	3,183,585	17,479	4,168,916	123,998
Assam	4,981,900				
North West Frontier Province	40,442	1,055,690	232,408	63,440	130,664
Ajmer Merwara and Manipur Pargana Coorg	1,011 88,228	31,096	61,652	71,622	24,782
Delhi	27	53,280	38,230	32,483	51,620
TOTAL	81,131,743	24,025,478	7,582,695	20,534,300	12,951,651

Provinces	FOOD GRAINS				
	Ragi or Manna (Millet)	Maize	Gram (pulse)	Other Food Grains and Pulses	Total Food Grains
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	2,254,014	118,921	74,110	4,798,353	27,965,492
Bombay	680,812	188,640	774,343	3,077,089	22,736,897
Bengal	9,000	94,400	142,800	972,000	22,832,000
United Provinces	184,960	2,006,846	5,424,125	6,863,366	37,204,171
Punjab	22,090	1,048,220	4,158,054	1,242,517	22,003,796
Burma		220,479	212,099	596,861	14,326,856
Bihar and Orissa	732,000	1,620,100	1,988,000	4,880,800	25,553,400
Central Provinces and Berar	10,913	154,131	1,298,356	5,047,744	19,449,956
Assam				192,289	5,174,189
North-West Frontier Province		463,170	192,647	77,787	2,256,257
Ajmer-Merwara and Manipur Pargana Coorg	180 3,424	90,483	44,403 173	58,940 1,043	385,168 87,826
Delhi	5	2,080	14,698	10,669	198,762
TOTAL	3,908,457	6,012,870	13,626,571	20,651,242	200,208,422

* Included under "other food grains and pulses"

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1928-29 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	OIL-SEEDS							
	Linseed.	Sesamum (oil or linh).	Rape and Mustard	Ground- nut	Coconut	Castor	Other Oil- Seeds.	Total Oilseeds
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	3,662	759,716	13,417	8,579,349	5,03,330	244,878	144,587	5,515,644
Bombay	118,467	246,697	201,036	999,523	26,640	73,784	266,624	1,938,078
Bengal	131,700	158,400	699,600	500	13,607	100	38,800	1,037,700
United Provinces	209,660	391,506	842,169	19,558		10,966	102,028	1,076,093
Punjab	28,242	127,525	1,721,619			90	3,023	1,881,309
Burma	18	1,101,966	4,804	598,870	10,695		7,519	1,723,366
Bihar and Orissa	658,200	207,800	728,500	300	28,500	51,400	29,800	1,070,000
Central Provinces and Berar	929,478	617,878	70,265	103,099		47,258	396,802	2,182,777
Assam	11,297	22,085	359,833			4,685		397,860
North West Frontier Province	27	4,803	111,044				62	115,496
Ajmer-Merwara and Mauipur Pargana	614	16,350	533				93	17,590
Coorg		117	11				2	130
Delhi	17	12	8,162				58	36,240
TOTAL	2,091,800	3,668,865	4,287,490	5,401,499	649,766	532,656	1,204,797	17,886,374

Provinces	Condi- ments & Spices	Sugar- cane	Sugar Others *	FIBRES			
				Cotton	Jute	Other fibres	Total Fibres
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	556,374	69,075	84,750	2,464,775		176,252	2,641,027
Bombay	214,291	64,748	1,152	5,191,194		102,629	5,293,823
Bengal	131,100	195,800	81,000	59,000	2,667,800	68,570	2,794,600
United Provinces	166,398	1,344,569		701,477	1,178	167,420	869,075
Punjab	41,950	400,904		2,508,911		38,818	2,647,729
Burma	89,783	21,158	21,171	817,757		1,414	19,171
Bihar and Orissa	59,800	287,400	200	77,700	198,700†	24,800	301,200
Central Provinces and Berar	111,783	22,787		5,078,322		84,947	5,163,269
Assam		36,709		44,485	105,124		239,559
North-West Frontier Province	1,701	48,038		17,084		759	17,843
Ajmer-Merwara and Mauipur Pargana	2,708	511		44,491		165	544,65
Coorg	3,494	24				400	645
Delhi	1,201	4,990		2,000		355	2,806
TOTAL	1,480,583	2,516,662	186,278	18,807,146	3,062,302	656,519	20,226,067

* Area under sugar-yielding plants other than sugarcane

† Revised to 247,000 Acres, by the Director of Agriculture

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1928-29 IN EACH PROVINCE

Provinces	Dyes and Tanning materials		Drugs and Narcotics					Fodder Crops.
	Indigo.	Others	Opium.	Tea.	Coffee.	Tobacco	Other Drugs and Narcotics.	
	Acres	Acres.	Acres.	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres.	Acres
Madras	49,578	6,710	26	64,922	47,275	255,229	140,951	407,426
Bombay	522	520,267		19	8	108,128	27,684	2,190,201
Bengal				193,000		291,204	4,400	98,100
United Provinces	5,711	1,596	47,669	6,193		81,934	2,168	1,233,091
Punjab	19,805	9,984	1,624	9,608		68,730	686	4,478,890
Burma	487			65,644	38	118,807	66,582	169,856
Bihar and Orissa	5,900	500		2,100		145,700		37,200
Central Provinces and Berar	1	42				18,006	1,381	440,713
Assam				427,329		10,195		
North West Frontier Province		49				10,724	3	94,796
Ajmer-Merwara and Maudpur Fargana.	5					56		1,091
Coorg		4		412	40,020	6	273	
Delhi						687		17,458
TOTAL	80,504	589,152	49,819	759,918	87,341	1,149,402	244,183	9,177,821

Provinces.	Fruits and Vegetables including Root Crops	Miscellaneous Crops		Total Area Sown	Deduct Area Sown more than once	Net Area Sown
		Food	Non-Food			
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Madras	677,772	42,644	185,238	88,779,144	4,711,203	34,067,941
Bombay	289,147	2,932	10,402	33,441,384	1,328,312	32,113,022
Bengal	704,600	206,100	101,500	28,702,700	4,876,000	23,826,700
United Provinces	548,682	188,063	7,041	643,107,786	6,510,391	34,897,345
Punjab	232,556	111,559	6,907	31,961,745	5,151,117	26,810,628
Burma	1,116,891	24,430	243,782	18,291,516	4,765,832	17,525,684
Bihar and Orissa	688,600	689,300	312,700	30,067,000	5,277,900	24,789,100
Central Provinces & Berar	119,251	3,327	551	27,513,844	2,379,064	25,134,780
Assam	515,293	(a)	156,968	6,988,042	199,452	6,788,590
North-West Frontier Province	21,691	31,850	6,228	2,004,671	389,514	2,215,157
Ajmer-Merwara and Maudpur Fargana	2,071	16,072	5,852	478,830	129,234	350,546
Coorg	5,643			123,300	551	122,749
Delhi	6,910	169	431	268,246	59,092	509,154
TOTAL	5,006,349	1,365,966	990,190	262,328,158	34,162,062	228,166,096

(a) Included under non food crops. (b) Includes 248,192 acres for which details are not available

(c) Includes Cinchona and Indian Hemp also

(d) Includes an area of 21 acres for the second time owing to triple cropping during the year

**IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION EMBANKMENT & DRAINAGE
PRINCIPAL RESULTS OF OPERATIONS IN IRRIGATION WORKS, 1923-29**

Provinces	MILEAGE IN OPERATION		Area Irrigated	Total Capital Outlay	Gross Receipts	Working Expenses	NET REVENUE		Interest Capital	Net Profit
	Miles	Canals					Amount	Percentage on Capital Outlay		
Productive Irrigation Works.										
Madras	15,122	88,636	21 870,101	77 70 08,046	9,87,44,962	8,07,84,763	6,19 14 508		2,61 52 927	3,57 81 578
Bombay	717	667	153,870	4 00,17,186	7 61,603	4,43 971	3 27 532	0 82	18 26 960	-9,90,419
United Provinces	2,981	1,890	1,011,686	12,09 06 906	58,76,776	33 52,804	20,24,572	1 61	48,65,017	-28,27,441
Punjab	70	258	64,842	84 93,658	2,46 134	1,94,929	58 406	0 68	2,79,217	-2,23,818
Bihar and Orissa	447	1,410	3,24 678	8,08,45,140	4 10,045	10 25,147	-6,19 102		10 78,618	-19 98,717
Central Provinces	901	480	354 692	1 21 93,458	8,76,097	6,83,546	1,92,551	8 79	5,47 381	-1,42,719
Y. W. P. Provinces	738	876	66,623	1 21 93,458	10 48 031	6,83,546	1,92,551	8 79	5,47 381	-1,42,719
Madras	717	667	153,870	4 00,17,186	7 61,603	4,43 971	3 27 532	0 82	18 26 960	-9,90,419
Bombay	2,981	1,890	1,011,686	12,09 06 906	58,76,776	33 52,804	20,24,572	1 61	48,65,017	-28,27,441
United Provinces	70	258	64,842	84 93,658	2,46 134	1,94,929	58 406	0 68	2,79,217	-2,23,818
Punjab	447	1,410	3,24 678	8,08,45,140	4 10,045	10 25,147	-6,19 102		10 78,618	-19 98,717
Bihar and Orissa	901	480	354 692	1 21 93,458	8,76,097	6,83,546	1,92,551	8 79	5,47 381	-1,42,719
Central Provinces	738	876	66,623	1 21 93,458	10 48 031	6,83,546	1,92,551	8 79	5,47 381	-1,42,719
Y. W. P. Provinces	146	710	195,226	6 19 93,083	7,93 083	11 82 703	1,73 713	3 18	20,41 788	-1,42,719
Tamil Nadu	0	71	21,888	35,47 983	1,46 082	74 080	2,61 572	1 21	7,43 192	-4,76,328
Total	6,225	10,766	3,444,844	37,90 81,104	1,47 69,869	1,03,81 782	43,84 887		1,38 25 134	-94 70,247
Embankment and Drainage Works										
Total Productive, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	32		899,988	1,05,08,239	21,31,717	8,18,082	15,09 63-	9 19	4 39,982	10,63 663
Total unproductive, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	1 807		91 541	6 43 51 086	17 19 089	20,62 545	-9 82,456		22,10,424	-91,49 880

(a) Excludes Rs. 45,704 on account of direct receipts relating to Central workshop Division (Commercial concerns)

Agricultural Produce

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AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE

The following table shows the area under the principal crops in British India, and their territorial distribution for 1928-29. The sown area is always greater than the area of cultivated land, owing to double cropping. The figures represent acres—

Province	Rice	Wheat	Barley	Other Food Grains and Pulses	Total Food Grains and Pulses	Oilseeds	Sugar	Cotton	Jute	Total Area Sown	Net area reported for deducting Area sown more than once
Madras	11,018,984	15,235	2,074	16,027,276	27,965,492	5,510,674	178,881	2,464,775		38,779,141	34,087,911
Bombay	3,131,472	2,037,111	74,247	17,310,387	24,789,097	1,933,073	6,000	3,191,194		33,441,334	32,113,022
Bengal	21,408,900	123,000	81,700	1,224,400	22,832,900	1,037,700	246,800	59,000	2,607,800	28,702,700	23,883,700
United Provinces	7,067,151	7,176,219	4,484,736	18,360,085	37,304,171	1,076,088	1,341,500	701,477	1,178,433	43,107,736	34,507,345
Punjab	893,999	9,965,964	1,339,969	9,900,801	22,038,736	1,581,309	400,904	2,308,911		31,961,743	26,870,628
Burma	12,732,636	46,770		1,347,490	14,326,856	1,723,366	42,824	317,727		19,191,516	17,535,684
Bihar and Orissa	14,352,200	2,212,300	1,233,600	8,890,300	25,233,400	1,970,000	297,600	77,700	198,700	30,037,000	24,779,100
Central Provinces and Berar Assam	5,444,753	3,188,685	17,479	10,804,139	19,449,056	2,182,777		22,787,507	822	27,513,841	24,134,760
N W Frontier Pro- vinces Minor Areas	4,081,000	40,442	1,055,890	232,408	927,717	2,256,257	397,850	16,709	44,430	6,988,042	6,788,400
	84,306	85,376	95,387	400,494	671,758	110,486	48,038	17,084		2,604,671	2,215,167
						5,199	5,52	43,491		860,326	307,149
Total	81,181,743	24,925,479	7,533,692	96,678,311	200,268,422	17,860,377	8,074,972	16,717,146	3,042,302	302,323,138	228,674,036

* Includes 843,102 acres for which details are not available

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

	1924-24.	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres (In thou- sands)	Acres (In thou- sands)	Acres (In thou- sands)
Net Area by professional survey	867,744,677	867,846,293	867,610,031	867,750	870,038	870,047
Area under forest	86,979,312	86,514,012	86,587,008	87,080	86,085	87,224
Area not available for cultivation	151,846,017	150,971,049	150,194,444	149,014	149,613	149,994
Deliverable waste other than fallow	254,802,597	253,823,848	253,871,022	253,531	255,477	254,080
Fallow land	49,619,708	47,178,944	49,805,848	49,068	51,039	49,432
Net area sown	229,435,277	226,980,348	225,840,051	226,012	228,862	228,166
Area irrigated	44,924,626	45,598,891	47,505,781	47,785	48,321	49,762
Area under Food-crops—						
Rice	77,200,711	79,806,239	80,171,588	78,502	76,807	81,132
Wheat	24,394,647	24,948,067	23,079,087	24,181	24,899	24,925
Barley	7,181,144	6,969,792	6,610,072	6,887	6,886	7,538
Jowar	21,138,172	22,470,373	20,616,754	21,121	21,248	20,524
Bajra	12,674,070	11,965,420	12,869,851	13,601	14,062	12,862
Muga	4,250,442	3,980,063	3,881,597	3,854	3,852	3,804
Maise	5,841,698	5,427,044	5,504,097	5,555	5,043	6,012
Gram	16,437,712	16,557,201	14,325,194	16,684	18,973	18,085
Other food grains and pulse	29,010,771	28,887,797	28,711,564	29,154	29,800	29,861
Total Food-grains	197,000,162	200,827,018	194,069,074	197,219	196,879	200,268
Area under other food-crops (including fruits, vegetables, spices, condiments, fibres & miscellaneous food-crops)	7,954,130	7,671,350	7,754,194	7,537	7,844	7,853
Sugar	3,044,711	2,454,670	2,805,862	3,041	3,046	3,075
Coffee	95,995	94,598	95,164	91	92	87
Tea	713,161	715,836	728,857	738	748	760

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF PUNJAB INDIA

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF PRADESH, INDIA												
	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29					
	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres (in thou mnds)	Acres (in thou mnds)	Acres (in thou mnds)					
Area under Oilseeds—												
Linseed	2,372,649	2,645,120	2,559,473	2,524,078	2,525	2,912	2,092					
Sesamum (oil)	3,155,442	3,226,249	3,525,417	3,409,889	3,172	3,541	3,668					
Rape and Mustard	3,809,186	3,952,041	3,970,045	3,988,948	4,280	3,277	4,287					
Other Oilseeds *	4,576,280	4,725,107	5,008,894	6,133,854	6,222	7,063	7,840					
..												
Total Oilseeds	18,913,557	14,254,516	15,019,819	15,156,819	14,999	16,123	17,887					
Area under—												
Cotton	18,567,620	15,381,447	17,414,249	18,154,190	15,087	14,804	14,507					
Jute	1,446,427	2,329,232	2,737,831	2,582,408	8,611	3,503	8,042					
Other fibres	677,645	703,632	879,630	813,027	505	713	637					
Indigo	277,132	145,152	107,282	139,318	159	173	81					
Opium	1,67,132	145,152	127,482	83,030	59	54	49					
Tobacco	1,032,651	1,025,474	1,026,438	1,064,842	1,055	1,145	1,180					
Rubber crops	3,711,642	5,764,838	5,586,438	5,032,158	8,940	9,162	9,177					
Yields of—												
Rice (Cleared)	33,703,000	28,196,000	31,072,000	30,737,000	30,769†	29,102†	33,187†					
Wheat	9,974,000	9,660,000	8,966,000	8,696,000	8,973	7,791	8,491					
Coffee	25,459,000	19,145,000	30,476,000	22,107,000	34,242	35,568	27,767					
Tea †	811,689,000	875,356,000	375,256,000	383,507,000	392,893	380,820	404,188					
Cotton	5,073,000	6,161,000	6,068,000	6,215,000	5,024	5,965	5,782					
Jute †	5,408,000	8,401,000	8,062,000	8,940,000	12,132	10,188	9,900					
..												
Linseed	523,000	463,000	501,000	412,000	406	44	322					
Rape and Mustard	1,208,000	1,149,000	1,220,000	969,000	1,004	840	910					
Sesamum (oil)	482,000	441,000	513,000	421,000	414	543	695					
Groundnut	1,226,000	1,084,000	1,486,000	1,999,000	2,146	2,714	3,211					
Indigo	53,000	45,600	22,000	28,000	19	327	270					
Guano-manur (Guar)	3,045,000	3,317,000	2,566,000	2,877,000	8,267	2,042	26,889					
Rubber †	11,913,000	14,465,000	15,601,000	19,970,000	28,004	26,042	26,889					

* The acres of crops given in this table is for British India only but the yield includes the crop in certain Indian States also
 † Groundnut, coconut, castor and other oil seeds
 ‡ Includes yield of other tracts for which no forecast is made.

The following is a summary of the various crop forecasts relating to the season 1929-30 issued by the Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, India —

Crop and Forecast	Tracts comprised in the figures and percentage of total Indian crop represented by them	Estimated Area	Per cent. of preceding year (100-figure of same date preceding year)	Estimated output	Per cent. of preceding year (100-figure of same date preceding year)
Jute*— Final	Bengal (b) Bihar and Orissa, and Assam (100 per cent. of the total jute area in India)	3,317,000	106	9 767,000 bales (a)	98
Cotton— Supplementary groundnut— Final	All cotton-growing tracts	25,692 000	95	5,260 000 bales	91
Sugarcane— Final	Madras, Bombay † Burma and Hyderabad (about 93 per cent. of total groundnut area of India)	5,643,000	89	2 475 000 tons	77
Sugarcane— Final	U P † Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Madras, Bombay † N W P Province Assam † P and Berar Delhi Hyderabad, Mysore and Baroda (a little over 96 per cent. of total sugarcane area of India)	2,504 000	(c) 96	2,766 000 tons	(c) 101
Sesamum— Supplementary	Burma, United Provinces, Madras, Bombay †, C P and Berar, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal Punjab Ajmer-Merwara, Hyderabad, Baroda and Kotaht (a little over 89 per cent. of total sesamum area of India)	5 318 000	96	460,000 tons	13
Indigo— Final	Madras Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, United Provinces, and Bombay, (including Sind) † (89 per cent. of total indigo area of India)	67,300	94	14,000 cwts	111
Rice— Final	Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma, Madras, United Provinces, C P and Berar, Assam, Bombay, Coorg, Hyderabad Mysore, and Baroda (97 per cent. of total rice area of India)	79,906,000	96	30 849 000 tons	96
Rape and Mustard— Final	United Provinces, Punjab Bihar & Orissa, Bengal, Assam, Bombay, North West Frontier Province, Delhi, Alwar, Baroda and Hyderabad (about 95 per cent. of total rape and mustard area of India)	5,840 000	83	1,088,000 tons	120
Linseed— Final	Central Provinces and Berar, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Bengal, Punjab Hyderabad and Kotaht (92 per cent. of the total linseed area of India)	2,801,000	90	374 000 tons	116
Wheat— Final	Punjab, United Provinces, Central Provinces and Berar, Bombay † Bihar and Orissa, North West Frontier Province, Bengal, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Central India, Gwalior, Rajputana, Hyderabad, Baroda and Mysore (a little over 98 per cent. of total wheat area of India)	81,349,000	98	10,353 000 tons	120
Castor Seed—	(Practically all castor-growing tracts)	1,251 000	89	106 000 tons	88

* Issued by the Director of Agriculture Bengal † Including Indian States. ‡ Rajputana.

(a) Includes figures for Nepal (b) Including Cochin Bihar and Tripura States

(c) Excluding Hyderabad for which information is available only from this year.

Irrigation.

The chief characteristics of the Indian rainfall are its unequal distribution over the country, its irregular distribution throughout the seasons and its liability to failure or serious deficiencies. The normal annual rainfall varies from 460 inches at Cherrapunji in the Assam hills to less than three inches in Upper Sind. The greatest rainfall actually measured at any station in any one year was 905 inches recorded at Cherrapunji in 1861, while at stations in Upper Sind it has been nil. There are thus portions of the country which suffer as much from excessive rainfall as others do from drought.

The second important characteristic of the rainfall is its unequal distribution throughout the seasons. Except in the south-east of the peninsula, where the heaviest precipitation is received from October to December by far the greater portion of the rainfalls during the south west monsoon between June and October. During the winter months the rainfall is comparatively small the normal amount varying from half an inch to two inches while the hot weather, from March to May or June is practically rainless. Consequently it happens that in one season of the year the greater part of India is deluged with rain and is the scene of the most wonderful and rapid growth of vegetation in another period the same tract becomes a dreary, sun burnt waste. The transition from the latter to the former stage often occurs in a few days. From the agricultural point of view the most unsatisfactory feature of the Indian rainfall is its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The average annual rainfall over the whole country is about 45 inches and there is but little variation from this average from year to year the greatest recorded being only about seven inches. But if separate tracts are considered, extraordinary variations are found. At many stations annual rainfalls of less than half the average are not uncommon, while at some less than a quarter of the normal amount has been recorded in a year of extreme drought.

Scarcity.—Classing a year in which the deficiency is 25 per cent as a dry year and one in which it is 40 per cent, as a year of severe drought, the examination of past statistics shows that, over the precarious area, one year in five may be expected to be a dry year and one in ten a year of severe drought. It is largely in order to remove the menace of these years that the great irrigation systems of India have been constructed.

Government Works.—The Government irrigation works of India may be divided into two main classes, those provided with artificial storage, and those dependent throughout the year on the natural supplies of the rivers from which they have their origin. In actual fact, practically every irrigation work depends upon storage of one kind or another but, in many cases, this is provided by nature without man's assistance. In Northern India, upon the Himalayan rivers, and in Madras, where the cold weather rains are even heavier than those of the south-west monsoon, the principal non-storage systems are found.

The expedient of storing water in the monsoon or utilization during the subsequent dry weather

has been practised in India from time immemorial. In their simplest form, such storage works consist of an earthen embankment constructed across a valley or depression, behind which the water collects and those under Government control range from small tanks irrigating only a few acres each to the huge reservoirs recently completed in the Deccan which are capable of storing over 20,000 million cubic feet of water. By gradually escaping water from a work of the latter type a supply can be maintained long after the river on which the reservoir is situated would otherwise be dry and useless.

The Three Classes.—Previously all irrigation works were divided into three classes, Productive Protective and Minor but during the triennium 1921-24 the method of determining the source from which the funds for the construction of Government works was provided was changed and now all works, whether major or minor, for which capital accounts are kept, have been re-classified under two heads, Productive and Unproductive with a third class embracing areas irrigated by non-capital works. The main criterion to be satisfied before a work can be classed as productive is that it shall, within ten years of the completion of construction produce sufficient revenue to cover its working expenses and the interest charges on its capital cost. Most of the largest irrigation systems in India belong to the productive class. The total capital outlay direct and indirect on irrigation and navigation works including works under construction, amounted at the end of the year 1927-28 to Rs. 115 crores.

Unproductive works are constructed primarily with a view to the protection of precarious tracts and to guard against the necessity for periodical expenditure on the relief of the population in times of famine. They are financed from the current revenues of India, generally from the annual grant for famine relief and insurance and are not directly remunerative, the construction of each such work being separately justified by a comparison of the value of each acre protected (based upon such factors as the probable cost of famine relief the population of the tract, the area already protected and the minimum area which must be protected in order to tide over a period of severe drought) with the cost of such protection.

Nearly one-eighth of the whole area irrigated in India from Government works is effected by minor works for which no capital account is kept.

Growth of Irrigation.—There has, during the last fifty years, been a steady growth in the area irrigated by Government irrigation works. From 10½ million acres in 1878-79 the area annually irrigated rose to 19½ million acres at the beginning of the century and to 23 million acres in 1919-20 the record year up to that date. This record was, however, again surpassed in the year 1922-23 when the total area irrigated by all classes of works in India, excluding the Indian States, amounted to 28½ million acres. During the year 1927-28 the total area irrigated by Government works of

all classes in British India amounted to some 27.5 million acres

The main increase has been in the class of productive works, which irrigated 4½ million acres in 1878-79 and rose to 20,756,209 acres in 1926-27. During the year 1927-28 the areas irrigated by productive and unproductive works amounted to 19,146,298 acres and 3,669,024 acres respectively.

The area irrigated in 1927-28 was largest in the Punjab, in which province 10,381,000 acres were irrigated during the year. In addition about 665,000 acres were irrigated from channels which although drawing their supplies from British canals, lie wholly in the Indian States. The Madras Presidency came next with an area of 7 million acres, followed by Sind with 3.5 million acres and the United Provinces with nearly 2½ million.

Capital and Revenue.—The total capital invested in the works has risen from Rs. 42.36 lakhs in 1900-01 to Rs. 115 crores in 1927-28. regards revenue, the Government irrigation works of India, taken as a whole, yield a return of nearly 6½ per cent. on the capital invested in them, this is a satisfactory result as Rs. 42.23 lakhs of the total have been spent on unproductive works, most of which return less than 1 per cent. The capital outlay also includes expenditure on a number of large works under construction which have not yet commenced to earn revenue.

Charges for Water.—The charges for water are levied in different ways in the various provinces. In some, notably in Sind, the ordinary land revenue assessment includes also the charge for water, ½/100th of this assessment being regarded as due to the canals. In others, as in parts of Madras and Bombay, different rates of land revenue are assessed according to whether the land is irrigated or not, and the assessment upon irrigated land includes also the charge for water. These methods may however be regarded as exceptional. Over the greater part of India water is paid for separately, the area actually irrigated is measured, and a rate is charged per acre according to the crop grown. Lower rates are often levied in cases where irrigation is by "lift" that is to say where the land is too high for the water to flow on to it by gravity and consequently the cultivator has to lift it on to his field.

Various other methods of assessment have

been tried, such as by renting outlets for an annual sum, or by charging according to the volume of the water used, but these have never been successful. The cultivator fully understands the principle of "No crops, no charges" which is now followed as far as possible in canal administration, but has no confidence in a system under which his liability for water rates is independent of the area and quality of his crop.

The rates charged vary considerably with the crop grown, and are different in each province and often upon the several canals in a single province. Thus in the Punjab, they vary from Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12 per acre for sugarcane, from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7-6-0 per acre for rice, from Rs. 5-4-0 to Rs. 6-4-0 per acre for wheat, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4-4-0 per acre for cotton and from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3-4-0 per acre for millets and pulses. In addition water charges are made for additional water. Practically speaking, Government guarantee sufficient water for the crop and give it as available. If the crop fails to mature, or if its yield is much below normal, either the whole or part of the irrigation assessment is remitted.

A somewhat different system, the long lease system, is in force in parts of Bengal and the Central Provinces under which the cultivators pay a small rate for a term of years whether they take water or not. In these provinces where the normal rainfall is fairly high, it is always a question whether irrigation will be necessary at all, and if the cultivators have to pay the full rate, they are apt to hold off until water becomes absolutely essential, and the sudden and universal demand then usually exceeds the supply. By paying a reduced rate every year for a term of years they become entitled to water when required, consequently there is no temptation to wait till the last possible moment, and the demand is much more evenly distributed throughout the season.

Taken as a whole, irrigation is offered on extremely easy terms, and the water rates represent only a very small proportion of the extra profit which the cultivator secures owing to the water he receives.

Triennial Comparisons.—The average area irrigated in British India by Government works of all classes during the triennium 1924-27 was nearly 28 million acres, which is slightly more than in the previous triennium. The areas for each of the three years were 27,156,399 acres in 1924-25, 28,135,122 acres in 1925-26 and 28,243,879 acres in 1926-27.

The results obtained in each province are given in the table below:—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1925-28	Area irrigated in 1928-29
Madras	7,205,587	7,262,096
Bombay (Deccan)	440,536	408,222
Sind	3,886,373	3,580,764
Bengal	37,152	85,195
United Provinces	2,668,266	4,092,955
Punjab	10,442,780	11,536,502
Burma	1,989,022	1,977,841
Bihar and Orissa	560,112	894,833
Central Provinces	417,850	410,319
North-West Frontier Province	269,843	369,145
Rajputana	24,520	35,697
Baluchistan	22,819	31,659
Total	27,078,152	30,667,340

Productive Works.—Taking productive works only a triennial comparison is given in the following table. It will be seen that the average area irrigated by such works during the triennium was nearly a million acres more than in the previous period.

Provinces	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1921-24	Average area irrigated in triennium 1924-27
Madras	3,081,946	3,732,211
Bombay Deccan	2,831	2,699
Sind	2,545,065	2,894,466
United Provinces	2,243,989	2,462,061
Punjab	9,714,815	9,755,749
Burma	1,350,710	1,531,403
Central Provinces	181,632	163,942
North West Frontier Province	216,814	200,413
Total	19,937,892	20,732,907

Taking the productive works as a whole, the capital invested in them was, at the end of 1927-28, Rs. 78.08 lakhs. The net revenue for the year was Rs. 696 lakhs giving a return of 9.55 per cent as compared with 9 per cent in 1918-19 and 9½ per cent in 1919-20. In considering these figures it must be remembered that the capital invested includes the expenditure upon several works which have only lately come into operation and others which are under

construction, which classes at present contribute little or nothing in the way of revenue, moreover only receipts from water rates and a share of the enhanced land revenue due to the introduction of irrigation are credited to the canals, so that the returns include nothing on account of the large addition to the general revenue of the country which follows in the wake of their construction.

Unproductive Works.—Turning now to the unproductive works, the areas irrigated in the various provinces during the triennium were as below —

Provinces	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1921-24	Average area irrigated in triennium 1924-27
Madras	290,654	271,455
Bombay-Deccan	268,963	277,709
Sind	838,801	527,787
Bengal	79,121	73,381
United Provinces	180,838	207,812
Punjab	65,844	243,613
Burma	203,863	283,110
Bihar and Orissa	958,607	889,789
Central Provinces	202,220	230,280
North-West Frontier Province	174,035	156,911
Rajputana	19,422	28,272
Baluchistan	22,636	22,070
Total	3,305,993	3,191,588

Non-capital Works—The results obtained from the non-capital works are given below.—

Provinces	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1921-24	Average area irrigated in triennium 1924-27
Madras	3 170 384	3 174 731
Bombay Deccan	1 57 038	1 57 025
Sind	52,363	87 270
Bengal	21 371	22 185
United Provinces	8 708	8 808
Punjab	684,746	349 768
Burma	78 151	72 870
Bihar and Orissa	1 898	2,246
Central Provinces	47,728	45,689
Total	4 229 450	3 920 543

Capital Outlay—The total capital outlay, direct and indirect, on irrigation and navigation works, including works under construction amounted at the end of 1927-28 to Rs 115 crores. The gross revenue for the year was Rs 12.10 lakhs and the working expenses Rs 4.75 lakhs the net return on capital was therefore 8.37 per cent. Of the several provinces the return on the capital outlay invested in productive works was highest in the Punjab, where the canals yielded 15.08 per cent.

In Madras the percentage of return was 8.90 while in the United Provinces a return of 5.56 per cent. was realised. In considering these figures it must be remembered that the capital invested includes considerable expenditure upon four projects of the first magnitude viz. the Sarda Oudh canals the Sutlej Valley project, the Lloyd Barrage project and the Cauvery (Mettur) project which were under construction and contributed little or nothing in the way of revenue.

Irrigated Acreage—A comparison of the acreage of crops matured during 1927-28 by means of Government irrigation systems with the total area under cultivation in the several provinces is given below.—

Provinces	Net area cropped	Area irrigated by Government irrigation works	Percentage of area irrigated to total cropped area	Capital cost of Government irrigation & Navigation works to end of 1928-29 in lakhs of rupees	Estimated value of crops raised on areas receiving State irrigation in lakhs of rupees
Madras	33 779 000	7,262,000	18.7	15.56	31,99*
Bombay Deccan	84,811,000	403,000	1.1	10.07	3.35
Sind	8 951,000	3 081,000	98.6	15.39	10.54
Bengal	28,708 000	86,000	0.3	4.46	69
United Provinces	42 404 000	4 093 000	9.6	22.92	23.68
Punjab	31 960 000	11 527,000†	36.1	32.15	49.21
Burma	17 537 000	1 977,000	11.3	6.40	8.62
Bihar and Orissa	30 057 000	894 000	2.9	6.28	8.17
Central Provinces	20,559 000	410,000	2.0	6.20	2.90
North West Frontier Provinces	2 805,000	399,000	15.3	2.90	2.40
Rajputana	488 000	35,000	7.0	26	15
Beluchistan	367,000	25,000	6.1	33	6
Total	252,189,000	30 687,000	12.1	1,23.02	1,41.06

* Exclusive of the value of crops raised on some 3 million acres irrigated by non-capital works.

† In addition 1,498,000 acres were irrigated in Indian States.

New Works.—There major works of exceptional importance are now under construction, namely the Sukkur Barrage, and Canals in Sind the Cauvery (Kettur) project in Madras, and the Sutlej Valley Canals in the Punjab. The Sukkur Barrage, when completed, will be the greatest work of its kind in the world, measuring 4,725 feet between the faces of the regulators on either side. The total cost of the scheme is estimated at Rs. 1,835 lakhs, of which the barrage accounts for about Rs. 569 lakhs and the canals for Rs. 1,266 lakhs. A gross area of 7½ million acres is commanded, of which 6½ million acres is culturable and an annual area of irrigation of 6½ million acres is anticipated, of which 2 million acres represent existing inundation irrigation which will be given an assured supply by the new canals. The ultimate annual net revenue forecasted as obtainable from the project, after paying working expenses, is Rs. 184 lakhs, which represents a return of 10½ per cent on capital. This is the return from water rates alone, but a further large increase in general revenues may safely be reckoned upon from the area of 3 million acres of waste which will be brought under cultivation. There will be increases on this account under practically every head of revenue, such as railways, customs, stamps, excise and the like, not to mention the addition to the country's wealth owing to the production, on land at present barren, of crops to the value of Rs. 2,500 lakhs per annum.

The Sutlej Valley Works consist of four wells three on the Sutlej and one on the Punjab, as the Chenab is called below its junction with the Sutlej, with twelve canals taking off from above them. The total area to be irrigated is 5,108,000 acres, or nearly 8,000 square miles. Of this, 2,076,000 acres are perennial and 3,083,000 acres non-perennial. Irrigation 1,942,000 acres are in British territory, 2,826,000 acres in Bahawalpur and 341,000 acres in Bikaner.

The total cost of the scheme was estimated at

Rs. 1,460 lakhs. Upon this a return of 12½ per cent is anticipated from water rates alone. But the scheme has another and even more important source of revenue. On the introduction of irrigation no less than 8½ million acres of desert waste, the property of the three parties concerned, at present valueless will become available for colonisation and sale. It is customary in the *pro-forma* accounts of irrigation projects, to credit a scheme with the interest on the sale proceeds of Crown waste lands rendered culturable by its construction, if this is included, the annual return on the works will amount to nearly 33 per cent. It bids fair, indeed, to rival the Lower Chenab Canal, the return from which was nearly 54 per cent in 1927-28. These anticipations may need modification, however in view of the fact that a revised estimate for the project amounts to Rs. 2,876 lakhs.

The Cauvery Reservoir project, which will cost over 6 crores of rupees and will extend irrigation to a new area of 301,000 acres, is making satisfactory progress. In Bombay Presidency the Bhandardara Dam, 270 feet in height was completed at the end of 1925 and the Bhatgar Dam at the end of 1926. The Damodar River (Canal) project which will irrigate 180,000 acres of rice lands in the Burdwan and Hooghly Districts of Bengal was commenced during the year 1924-27. Excellent progress has been made with the Sardar Bhatgar Canals in the United Provinces and the system was inaugurated by H. E. the Viceroy in the autumn of 1928. This project will irrigate more than a million acres.

A comprehensive irrigation programme extending over a period of 14 years is under investigation in the Central Provinces. The possibility of increasing irrigation in the North West Frontier Province is receiving attention whilst in Bombay Presidency there is a proposal to increase the supply in Lake Fife either by raising the present dam or by constructing subsidiary storage dams in branch valleys.

WELLS AND TANKS

So far we have dealt only with the great irrigation schemes. They are essentially exotic the products of British rule, the real eastern instrument is the well. The most recent figures give thirty per cent of the irrigated area in India as being under wells. Moreover the well is an extremely efficient instrument of irrigation. When the cultivator has to raise every drop of water which he uses from a varying depth, he is more careful in the use of it, well water exerts at least three times as much duty as canal water. Again, owing to the cost of lifting, it is generally used for high grade crops. It is estimated that well-irrigated lands produce at least one-third more than canal watered lands. Although the huge areas brought under cultivation by a single canal scheme tend to reduce the disproportion between the two systems, it must be remembered that the spread of canals increases the possibilities of well irrigation by digging, through seepage, to the store of subsoil water and raising the level.

Varieties of Wells.—Wells in India are of every description. They may be just holes in the ground, sunk to subsoil level, used to

a year or two and then allowed to fall into decay. These are temporary or kacha wells. Or they may be lined with timber, or with brick or stone. They vary from the kacha well costing a few rupees to the masonry well, which will run into thousands, or in the sandy wastes of Bikaner where the water level is three hundred feet below the surface, to still more. The means of raising the water vary in equal degree. There is the *picotiah*, or weighted lever, raising a bucket at the end of a pivoted pole, just as is done on the banks of the Nile. This is rarely used for lifts beyond fifteen feet. For greater lifts bullock power is invariably used. This is generally harnessed to the *mot*, or leather bag, which is passed over a pulley overhanging the well, then raised by bullocks who walk down a ramp of a length approximating to the depth of the well. Sometimes the *mot* is just a leather bag, more often it is a self acting arrangement, which discharges the water into a sump automatically on reaching the surface. By this means from thirty to forty gallons of water are raised at a time, and in its simplicity, and the ease with which the apparatus can be constructed and repaired by village labour, the *mot* is

unimpaired in efficiency. There is also the Persian wheel, an endless chain of earthenware pots running round a wheel. Recently attempts have been made, particularly in Madras, to substitute mechanical power, furnished by oil engines, for the bullock. This has been found economical where the water supply is sufficiently large, especially where two or three wells can be linked. Government have systematically encouraged well irrigation by advancing funds for the purpose and exempting well watered lands from extra assessment due to improvement. These advances, termed *intaid*, are freely made to approved applicants, the general rate of interest being 6½ per cent. In Madras and Bombay ryots who construct wells, or other works of agricultural improvement, are exempt from enhanced assessment on that account. In other provinces the exemption lasts for specific periods, the term generally being long enough to recoup the owner the capital sunk.

Tanks.—Next to the well the indigenous instrument of irrigation is the tank. The village or the roadside tank is one of the most conspicuous features in the Indian scene. The Indian tank may be any size. It may vary from a great work like Lakes Fife and Whiting in the Bombay Presidency or the Periyar Lake in Travancore, holding up from four to seven billion cubic feet of water, and spreading their waters through great chains of canal, to the little village tank irrigating ten acres. They date back to a very early stage in Indian civilisation. Some of these works in Madras are of

great size, holding from three to four billion cubic feet, with water spreads of nine miles. The inscriptions of two large tanks in the Chingleput district of Madras, which still irrigate from two to four thousand acres are said to be over 1,100 years old. Tank irrigation is practically unknown in the Punjab and in Sind, but it is found in some form or other in all other provinces, including Burma, and finds its highest development in Madras. In the ryotwari tracts of Bombay and Madras all but the smallest tanks are controlled by Government. In the zamindari tracts only the large tanks are State works. According to the latest figures the area irrigated from tanks is about eight million acres, but in many cases the supply is extremely precarious. So far from tanks being a refuge in famine they are often quite useless inasmuch as the rainfall does not suffice to fill them and they remain dry throughout the season.

Bibliography.—Triennial Review of Irrigation in India, 1925-1927. Calcutta, Superintendent of Government Printing. Price One Rupee. The annual irrigation reports in India used to be as arid as the Sahara, consisting of a dull statistical record. They have been greatly improved of recent years and have now assumed a quite satisfactory form. The major review appears once every three years. The first of these triennial reviews was issued in 1922. Between the triennial reviews there is issued a briefer statement recording the progress of each particular year.

Meteorology.

The meteorology of India like that of other countries is largely a result of its geographical position. The great land area of Asia to the northward and the enormous sea expanse of the Indian Ocean to the southward are determining factors in settling its principal meteorological features. When the Northern Hemisphere is turned away from the sun, in the northern winter, Central Asia becomes an area of intense cold. The meteorological conditions of the temperate zone are pushed southward and we have over the northern provinces of India the westerly winds and eastward moving cyclonic storms of temperate regions while, when the Northern Hemisphere is turned towards the sun, Southern Asia becomes a super-heated region drawing towards it an immense current of air which carries with it the enormous volume of water vapour which it has picked up in the course of its long passage over the wide expanse of the Indian Ocean, so that at one season of the year parts of India are deluged with rain and at another persistent dry weather prevails.

Monsoons.—The all-important fact in the meteorology of India is the alternation of the seasons known as the summer and winter monsoons. During the winter monsoon the winds are of continental origin and hence, dry, fine weather, clear skies, low humidity and little air movement are the characteristic features of this

season. The summer rains cease in the provinces of the North West Frontier Province and the Punjab about the middle of September after which cool westerly and northerly winds set in over that area and the weather becomes fresh and pleasant. These fine weather conditions extend slowly eastward and southward so that by the middle of October, they embrace all parts of the country except the southern half of the Peninsula and by the end of the year have extended to the whole of the Indian land and sea area, the rains withdrawing to the Equatorial Belt. Thus the characteristics of the cold weather from October to February over India are:—Westerly winds of the temperate zone over the extreme north of India to the south of these the north-east winds of the winter monsoon or perhaps more properly the north-east Trades and a gradually extending area of fine weather which, as the season progresses, finally embraces the whole Indian land and sea area. Two exceptions to these fine weather conditions exist during this period, viz., the Madras coast and the north-west of India. In the former region the north-east winds which set in over the Bay of Bengal in October coalesce with the damp winds of the retreating summer monsoon, which current curves round over the Bay of Bengal, and blowing directly on to the Madras coast gives to that region the wettest and most disturbed weather of the whole year, for while the total

rainfall for the four months June to September, i.e., the summer monsoon, at the Madras Observatory amounts to 15.36 inches the total rainfall for the three months October to December amounts to 23.18 inches. The other regions in which the weather is unsettled, during this period of generally settled conditions, is North-west India. This region during January, February and part of March is traversed by a succession of shallow storms from the westward. The number and character of these storms vary very largely from year to year; and in some years no storms at all are recorded in normal years, however, in Northern India periods of fine weather alternate with periods of disturbed weather (occurring during the passage of these storms) and light to moderate and even heavy rain occurs. In the case of Peshawar the total rainfall for the four months December to March, amounts to 5.26 inches; while the total fall for the four months, June to September, is 4.78 inches, showing that the rainfall of the winter is absolutely greater in this region than that of the summer monsoon. These two periods of subsidiary rains are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras, as shown above of considerable amount while that of North-west India though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of Northern India.

Spring Months—March to May and part of June form a period of rapid continuous increase of temperature and decrease of barometric pressure throughout India. During this period there occurs a steady transference northward of the area of greatest heat. In March the maximum temperatures, slightly exceeding 100°, occur in the Deccan, in April the area of maximum temperature between 100° and 105°, lies over the south of the Central Provinces and Gujarat, in May maximum temperatures, varying between 105° and 110° prevail over the greater part of the interior of the country while in June the highest mean maximum temperatures exceeding 110° occur in the Indus Valley near Jacobabad. Temperatures exceeding 120° have been recorded over a wide area including Sind, Rajputana, the West and South Punjab and the west of the United Provinces, but the highest temperature hitherto recorded is 129° registered at Jacobabad on June 18th, 1897. During this period of rising temperature and diminishing barometric pressure, great alterations take place in the air movements over India including the disappearance of the north-east winds of the winter monsoon, and the air circulation over India and its adjacent seas, becomes a local circulation, characterised by strong hot winds down the river valleys of Northern India and increasing land and sea winds in the coast regions. These land and sea winds, as they become stronger and more extensive, initiate large contrasts of temperature and humidity which result in the production of violent local storms. These take the forms of dust storms in the dry plains of Northern India and of thunder and hailstorms in regions where there is inter-action between damp sea winds and dry winds from the interior. These storms are frequently accompanied with winds of excessive force, heavy hail and torrential rain and are on that account very destructive.

By the time the area of greatest heat has been established over North-west India, in the last week of May or first of June, India has become the seat of low barometric pressures relatively to the adjacent seas and the whole character of the weather changes. During the hot weather period, discussed above, the winds and weather are mainly determined by local conditions. Between the Equator and Lat. 30° or 35° south the wind circulation is that of the south-east trades, that is to say from about Lat. 31°-35° south a wind from south-east blows over the surface of the sea up to about the equator. Here the air rises into the upper strata to flow back again at a considerable elevation to the Southern Tropics or beyond. To the north of this circulation, i.e., between the Equator and Lat. 20° to 25° North there exists a light unsteady circulation, the remains of the north-east trades, that is to say about Lat. 20° North there is a north-east wind which blows southward till it reaches the thermal equator where side by side with the south-east Trades mentioned above, the air rises into the upper strata of the atmosphere still further to the northward and in the immediate neighbourhood of land there are the circulations due to the land and sea breezes which are attributable to the difference in the heating effect of the sun's rays over land and sea. It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south-west monsoon period. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropics. Hence the thermal equator is also progressing northward and with it the area of ascent of the south-east trades circulation. Thus the south-east trade winds cross the equator and advance further and further northward, as the thermal equator and area of ascent follows the sun in its northern progress. At the same time the temperature over India increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trades circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south-east Trades, with its cool, moisture-laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the Indian land area and the adjacent seas and India is invaded by oceanic conditions—the south-west monsoon proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people of India.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the Indian seas and the Indian land area from Lat. 30° S to Lat. 30° N the southern half being the south-east trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a continuous horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in progress so that where the current enters the Indian seas and flows over the Indian land it is highly charged with aqueous vapour.

The current enters the Indian seas quite at the commencement of June and in the course of the succeeding two weeks spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal up to their extreme northern limits. It advances over India from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats prevails more or less exclusively over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajputana and north Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current blows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards Burma, East Bengal and Assam while another portion curves to south at the head of the Bay and over Bengal and then meeting with the barrier of the Himalayas curves still further and blows as a south-easterly and easterly wind right up the Gangetic plain. The south-west monsoon continues for three and a half to four months, etc., from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During its prevalence more or less general though far from continuous rain prevails throughout India, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater portion of the Arabian Sea current, the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bengal current, blows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range, is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hilly range the total averaging about 100 inches most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional minor rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it coalesces with the local current. The northern portion of the current blowing across the Gujarat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli Hill range but very little to Western Rajputana, and passing onward gives moderate to heavy rain in the Eastern Punjab, Eastern Rajputana and the North-west Himalayas. In this region the current meets and mixes with the monsoon current from the Bay.

The monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal blows from south west and is thus directed towards the Tenasserim hills and up the valley of the Irrawaddy to which it gives very heavy to heavy rain. That portion of this current which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of East Bengal and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances from the southward over Bengal, is then deflected westward by the barrier of the Himalayas and gives general rain over the Gangetic plain and almost daily rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikhim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar

in the Punjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where neither current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is uncertain and would probably be light, but that the storms from the Bay of Bengal exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain.

The total rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast, the amount diminishes eastward is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras, it is over 100 inches on the Tenasserim and South Burma coast and decreases to 20 inches in Upper Burma, it is over 100 in the north Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

The month to month distribution for the whole of India is —

May	2 6	inches
June	3 3	"
July	11 9	"
August	10 5	"
September	7 2	"
October	3 3	"

Cyclonic storms and cyclones are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, viz., May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season. The following gives the total number of storms recorded during the period 1877 to 1901 and shows the monthly distribution —

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Bay of Bengal				1	4	13
	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec.
Bay of Bengal	41	35	45	34	22	8
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Arabian Sea				..	2	15
	July	Aug	Sep	Oct.	Nov	Dec.
Arabian Sea	2		1	1	5	

The preceding paragraphs give an account of the normal procession of the seasons throughout India during the year, but it must be remembered, that every year produces variations from the normal, and that in some years these variations are very large. This is more particularly the case with the discontinuous element rainfall. The most important variations in this element which may occur are —

- (1) Delay in the commencement of the rains over a large part of the country, this being most frequent in North Bombay and North-west India.
- (2) A prolonged break in July or August or both.
- (3) Early termination of the rains, which may occur in any part of the country.

(4) The determination throughout the monsoon period of more rain than usual to one part and less than usual to another part of the country. Examples of this occur every year.

About the middle of September fine and fresh weather begins to appear in the extreme north west of India. This area of fine weather and dry winds extends eastward and southward,

the area of rainy weather at the same time contracting till by the end of October the rainy area has retreated to Madras and the south of the Peninsula and by the end of December has disappeared from the Indian region, fine clear weather prevailing throughout. This procession with the numerous variations and modifications which are inseparable from meteorological conditions repeats itself year after year.

(For monsoon of 1930, see page 355)

INDIA METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

The India Meteorological Department was instituted in 1875 to combine and extend the work of various provincial meteorological services which had sprung up before that date. The various duties which were imposed on the department at the time of its formation were from time to time supplemented by new duties. The main existing functions, more or less in the historical order in which they were assumed, may be briefly summarised as follows—

(a) The issue of warnings to ports and coastal districts of the approach of disastrous storms since the introduction of wireless telegraphy this has been extended to include the issue of storm warnings to ships in Indian seas.

(b) The maintenance of systematic records of meteorological data and the publication of climatological statistics. These were originally undertaken in order to furnish data for the investigation of the relation between weather and disease.

(c) The issue to the public of up-to-date weather reports and of rainfall forecasts. These duties were originally recommended by a Committee of Enquiry into the causes of famine in India.

(d) Meteorological researches of a general character but particularly regarding tropical storms and the forecasting of monsoon and winter rainfall.

(e) The issue of seasonal rainfall forecasts.

(f) The issue of telegraphic warnings of heavy rainfall by special telegrams to district officers on departmental warning lists (e.g. canal and railway engineers) and by means of the ordinary daily weather telegrams to the public in general.

(g) Supply of meteorological, astronomical and geophysical information in response to enquiries from officials, commercial firms or private individuals.

(h) Technical supervision of rainfall registration carried out under the control of provincial Government authorities.

(i) The study of temperature and moisture conditions in the upper air by means of instrument-carrying balloons and of upper winds by pilot balloons.

(j) The issue of weather reports and warnings to air-craft.

(k) Special investigations at the Airship Base Karachi. In addition to these meteorological duties the India Meteorological Department was from time to time made responsible for various other important duties such as—

(l) Determination of time in India and the issue of time signals, also the determination of errors of chronometers for the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Navy.

(m) Observations and researches on terrestrial magnetism at Bombay.

(n) Regular study (mainly by spectroscopic examination) of the sun at the Solar Physics Observatory at Kodakanal.

(o) Maintenance of seismological instruments at various centres.

Organisation prior to the demands of aviation.—It is necessary to note that practical meteorology implies a meteorological organisation not merely individual meteorologists relying upon their own personal and purely local observations. The making of a single forecast in any of the larger meteorological offices of the world requires the organised co-operation of some hundreds of persons. In India some 250 observers co-operate daily to take simultaneous observations at about 200 separate places and hand in their reports to telegraphists who transmit them to centres, where for rapid assimilation clerks decode them and chart them on maps, meteorological experts then draw therefrom the conclusions on which their forecasts are based. There are other observatories, which take observations for climatological purposes but do not telegraph them.

As aviation has been and still is making rapidly increasing demands on meteorologists in India, it is easier to understand the constitution and needs of the department, if we first consider the organisation prior to the demands of aviation. In order to carry out the functions imposed upon it, the department had a central office, five principal sub-offices and 28 pilot balloon observatories and supervised 250 weather observatories, principally of the third class distributed over a region stretching from Persia, Aden and Zanzibar on the west to Burma on

* The actual numbers were 10 first class, and fifth class. A first class weather observatory continuously recording pressure, temperature, rainfall, in addition to instruments read by eye, is taken two or three times daily and centres. A third class observatory takes by telegram to one or more forecasting centres does not telegraph. A fourth class observatory and rainfall or (b) of temperature and rainfall and telegraphs only rainfall amounts.

2 second class, 200 third class, 29 each fourth is furnished with autographic instruments for humidity, wind direction and velocity and. At a second class weather observatory observers are telegraphed to one or more forecasting readings (a) daily at 8 hours and sends the data or (b) twice daily at 10 hours and 16 hours, but records observations (a) of temperature, wind only, while a fifth class observatory records

the east. A brief summary is given below of the work at each of the principal observatories and offices—

Headquarters Office, Poona.—The general administration of the department is carried on by the headquarters office in Poona. It receives the telegraphic reports of morning observations collected at practically all pilot balloon and 1st 2nd 3rd and 5th class observatories and issues daily a telegraphic summary of general weather conditions with forecasts of probable changes in weather during the next twenty four hours. It serves as the main forecasting centre for the Indian area and prepares and publishes the Daily Weekly and Monthly Weather Reports and an Annual volume entitled the India Weather Review. It undertakes the issue of heavy rain warnings for practically the whole country excepting north-east India, and the issue of warnings for storms in the Arabian Sea. It is responsible for practically all climatological work in India and for the design, specification test and supply of special meteorological instruments. On its transfer from Simla to Poona the headquarters office was equipped as an upper air observatory and a first class weather observatory and has also been designed to provide facilities for research in theoretical and practical meteorology.

Meteorological Office and Observatory Alipore, Calcutta.—The Alipore office serves as a regional forecast centre and is responsible for the publication of the Calcutta Daily Weather Report for north-east India, for storm warning in the Bay of Bengal and heavy rainfall warning in north-east India. It has complete charge of all 2nd 3rd 4th and 5th class observatories in north-east India (from Assam to Orissa), while its other duties consist in supplying all weather observatories with ordinary instruments and stores, keeping a stock of such instruments, and supplying time-signals by time ball to the Port of Calcutta and by wireless to shipping at sea. It is also a first class weather observatory, pilot balloon observatory and seismological station.

Upper Air Observatory, Agra.—Agra Observatory is the headquarters of upper air work in India. It is responsible for maintaining all the pilot balloon observatories in India and neighbouring countries and supplying them with necessary equipment for carrying on daily pilot balloon observations and supervising their work. All data from pilot balloon observatories are collected, checked and statistically summarised at Agra. This observatory is also the principal centre of upper air research work in India. There is a seismological station attached to this observatory.

Colaba and Alibon Observatories.—These observatories specialise in the study of geophysics, particularly terrestrial magnetism and seismology, and in addition carry on the duties of a first class weather observatory. They take star and sun observations for the determination of time and are responsible for the time-ball service at the Bombay Harbour and the rating of chronometers belonging to the Royal Indian Marine and Royal Navy.

Kodakkanal.—The Observatory at Kodakkanal specialises in the study of the physics of the sun, and is specially equipped for spectroscopic observations and research. This observatory also undertakes the duties of a first class weather observatory and a seismological station.

Madras.—The most important duty of the Observatory is the supply of time by time ball signal to local shipping and to the whole civil population of India by telegraphic signal throughout the Indian telegraph system. The Observatory issues the Madras Daily Weather Report throughout the year and in addition carries out the duties of a first class surface observatory and of a pilot balloon station.

Special organisation to meet the needs of aviation.—The above represented the activities of the department prior to the introduction of aviation in India. With the development of civil and military aviation and rather rapid expansion of their activities in recent years fresh duties of a different character devolved upon the department and necessitated a more or less complete overhaul of the pre-existing arrangements.

Definite recommendations regarding the nature of information to be supplied to aircraft, the exhibition of current weather information at aerodromes and the meteorological organisation of international airways have been embodied in Annex G of the International Convention of Air Navigation. In accordance with these recommendations expert meteorologists should be stationed at aerodromes at reasonable intervals along the airway to supply on clear to the aviation personnel current information and forecasts of weather conditions along the routes up to the next aerodrome of the same class. Forecast centres should be established at least at each main aerodrome along aerial routes and forecasts prepared at such centres should be transmitted to the other aerodromes for the information of pilots. These recommendations involve the opening up of new forecast centres in India. Other recommendations refer to hours and kind of observations and manner of codifying them.

A comparison of the practices in Europe and the United States of America and various International recommendations with the past Indian programme of telegraphing observations once daily shows that at each observatory in India fuller and more frequent observations should be taken and be made available to aviators in internationally approved codes, and that the number of observatories should be increased.

It has therefore become necessary to arrange for the preparation of two weather charts per day at each regional forecast centres in India as are specially concerned with aviation, to raise to 2nd class status most of the existing weather observatories reporting to these centres and to create some new observatories. Further, on account of the fuller observations required,

* In connection with the Bhubra to Rangoon aviation schemes 10 new pilot balloon observatories and 34 new weather observatories have been started or proposed while a change in the status of more than half the existing 3rd class observatories has been proposed. If these schemes are sanctioned the numbers of observatories will be 13 first, 17 second, 67 third, 29 fourth and 23 fifth class observatories.

new instructions for observers have been drawn up, new registers for the recording of observations and new telegraphic codes more in conformity with international agreement and suited to the changed method of reporting of observations have been prepared. These have been introduced at observatories from the Persian Gulf to northwest India and will be introduced elsewhere as air routes extend.

The forecast centres already started or proposed to meet the needs of aviators are Quetta, Peshawar, Karachi, Delhi and Rangoon while work at the existing offices at Calcutta and Poona will require to be extended.

Quetta and Peshawar.—Aviation on a regular basis was first started in this country by the Royal Air Force in north-west India, and the necessity for opening local forecast centres was first experienced there. Two forecast centres were accordingly started four years ago at Quetta and Peshawar each under an R.A.F. Meteorologist who was entrusted with the charge of issuing forecasts of weather over the Lahore Peshawar-Quetta Karachi air routes for R.A.F. aeroplanes and detailed local forecasts and warnings each for his own immediate neighbourhood. The Meteorological Department supplies instruments for the use of the R.A.F. Meteorologists meets the cost of the staff of clerks and observers at each centre and supplies data by telegram from its observatories. The technical work done at these stations is supervised by the Director General of Observatories.

Karachi.—For civil aviation preparations had to be made for the first time by the department in aid of the Cairo Karachi aeroplane service. A new forecast centre was established at Karachi its initial function being the issue of weather reports and forecasts for the flying sector Karachi to Chabber. In connection with the larger Imperial Airship Scheme which has its own distinctive demands on meteorological services, India was asked to undertake responsibility for supplying information for the section extending from Basra to Karachi. Necessary schemes were drawn up and Government decided that action should be taken in three distinct and separate stages. As a result of the preliminary scheme additional surface observatories were established along the flying route and pilot balloon observatories to determine the upper air currents were started at Bahrain, Muscat and Gwadar, thus enabling the Karachi Office to gather and study an increased supply of weather information from the Arabian and Mekran coasts. Arrangements were made for the preparation of two charts daily at Karachi based on 4 and 14 hours G.M.T. observations telegraphed from stations in the Persian area and parts of north-west India.

In order to meet the requirements of the London Karachi Air Mail Service arrangements were completed for issuing through the Karachi Civil Wireless Station synoptic weather broadcast on short wave at regular intervals also for supplying weather reports by wireless to aeroplanes in flight and for receiving synoptic broadcasts from Baghdad and Egypt. The forecast office is temporarily located in Karachi.

contonment and will be transferred to Drigh Road civil aerodrome, when buildings are provided there. Meanwhile a first class weather observatory and pilot balloon station have been started at Drigh Road. The weather observatories in Persia and Arabia and along the Mekran coast are under the charge of the Meteorologist at Karachi.

On the newly opened Karachi-Delhi air route, the Karachi forecast centre is responsible for weather reports and forecasts between Karachi and Jodhpur.

Delhi.—A forecast centre has recently been opened at Delhi and will be specially responsible for the supply of weather reports and forecasts to aviators between Jodhpur and Allahabad or Gaya. A pilot balloon and first class weather observatory is attached to this office.

Calcutta.—In connection with the Delhi Calcutta and Calcutta-Rangoon air routes proposals have been made to extend the existing duties of this centre. It will become responsible for weather reports and forecasts to aviators between Allahabad or Gaya and Akyab.

Rangoon.—The establishment of a new forecast centre and first class observatory at Rangoon under a trained Meteorologist has been proposed. If sanctioned it will become responsible for weather reports and forecasts to aviators between Akyab and Victoria Point.

Poona.—The Poona office is at present responsible for weather reports and forecasts to aviators on routes outside northern India.

Investigational work.—Besides the routine duties such as issue of weather reports forecasts and warnings of storms and heavy rain, the Indian Meteorological Department has under taken during recent years a number of investigations in theoretical and practical meteorology and other allied subjects the most important amongst them is the study of the free atmosphere over the country by means of various types of balloons. The Agra observatory and its sub-stations the number of which has grown rapidly in the last two or three years and is over 30 at present observe and record wind velocities in the upper layers of the atmosphere. These data are not only of great assistance in connection with weather forecasting and storm warning but have also proved useful for forecasts of seasonal rainfall. A method of forecasting the winter rainfall in northern India from upper air data is being developed and is already in tentative use in the department.

Measurements of pressure, temperature and humidity up to heights of about 15 miles by means of sounding balloons (i.e. with instruments attached) are being made at Agra since 1915 and have recently been started at Poona also. A number of these instruments penetrate into the stratosphere or the region where air temperature ceases to fall with height but remains constant or increases with height. The base of the stratosphere is about 23 miles above sea level in the India latitudes. It appears that although the lowest temperature over the surface of the

earth occurs near the poles the lowest free air temperatures occur at heights of about 12 miles above the equatorial regions, thus giving rise to the apparently paradoxical truism that the coldest air lies over the equator

At the Poona Weather Office modern European theories of meteorology have been applied to the study of Indian weather charts. The physical aspects of weather were studied and attempts were made to recognise masses of air having different histories and physical properties. Diagnosis of weather charts by such means has been frequently successful and the new ideas have been found helpful in forecasting under Indian conditions

Other scientific activities of the Department consist in the seismographic records at various centres magnetic work at Ailbag and Bombay and Solar Physics observations at the Kodalkanal observatory. A careful study has been made at Bombay of microclimates which are believed to be due to sea-waves and appear to furnish early indications of the existence of disturbed weather out at sea. Other interesting experiments on geophysical subjects have been undertaken or completed at Bombay in recent years. Recently the observatory at Kodalkanal has undertaken the collection of spectrograms for the determin-

tion of the amount of ozone in the upper air by means of a Dobson's spectrophotometer which has been loaned to the observatory.

With a view to study the origin and nature of nor' western, the violent local storms which almost every year cause considerable loss of life and property in north east India a scheme for detailed weather observations in that area was drawn up in 1927. The details of the scheme were worked out at Calcutta and the work is in progress since the beginning of last year. A special expedition was arranged to study the upper air conditions over Bengal during the last nor western season.

At Karachi arrangements had to be made for the study of special meteorological problems in connection with airships. The two most important problems for the safe landing and mooring of airships relate to experiments in wind structure and the thermal structure of the air in the first 200 to 300 feet above ground at the air base. For the purposes of studying temperature conditions at the airship base a mast 250 feet high has been erected at Drigh Road and special instruments are being installed at suitable heights on the mast. The information provided by such apparatus is of great importance and its installation at all existing or prospective airship bases is desired by airship authorities.

Average Monthly and Annual Mean of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual Mean
HILL STATIONS.														
Shillong	4,920	48.5	51.8	40.4	45.2	46.5	53.8	70.0	89.2	63.4	64.1	56.5	59.7	61.7
Darjeeling	7,876	40.1	41.6	49.7	56.2	58.3	59.9	61.5	60.9	59.4	55.2	47.8	41.8	52.7
Simla	7,924	38.8	40.6	51.5	59.8	66.0	65.9	64.3	62.8	60.9	54.7	50.1	48.4	53.1
Mussoorie	6,383	40.5	41.1	51.1	61.2	68.8	72.3	69.4	67.2	65.9	61.3	52.8	45.0	58.0
Dehra Dun	5,204	30.7	33.0	45.1	55.7	68.9	69.9	73.0	70.8	64.0	53.2	44.0	36.3	53.3
Mount Abu	8,945	53.2	61.0	69.9	79.0	79.8	74.9	69.8	67.6	69.6	71.6	65.2	59.9	68.8
Ootacamund	7,327	54.0	55.5	58.6	61.5	61.8	68.2	59.9	57.4	57.3	57.2	55.4	54.3	57.3
Kodaikanal	7,859	55.0	56.7	59.6	61.5	61.9	69.4	57.6	57.8	57.6	56.9	54.9	55.0	57.8
COAST STATIONS														
Katool	49	65.3	68.4	75.0	80.6	84.7	86.8	84.3	82.4	82.0	80.0	74.0	67.4	77.6
Vera Val	18	69.4	70.2	74.0	79.1	81.5	82.5	80.0	79.1	79.0	78.5	77.2	72.3	77.0
Bombay	27	74.5	74.8	78.0	82.1	84.6	83.4	79.5	79.4	79.4	80.7	79.3	76.4	79.3
Madras	110	70.2	76.0	78.5	82.6	84.3	80.1	75.3	78.4	78.2	79.8	79.3	77.0	79.2
Mangalore	65	78.2	79.2	81.1	83.9	83.5	78.8	77.1	77.8	77.6	78.9	79.8	79.0	79.6
Calcutta	77	77.8	79.8	81.6	83.6	83.3	78.5	76.7	77.4	78.5	79.1	73.9	73.3	75.9
Kochin	31	75.5	77.4	80.5	84.6	87.7	87.0	85.5	84.4	83.4	80.9	78.3	76.0	81.8
Madras	52	75.3	76.6	79.5	84.1	86.7	86.4	83.7	83.9	80.8	77.9	75.1	75.1	81.8
Madras	15	73.5	76.7	80.3	85.2	89.8	87.8	83.9	83.4	83.0	81.2	77.4	74.0	81.4
Gopalspur	21	70.0	74.8	78.3	81.6	84.1	83.7	81.8	82.0	82.2	79.6	74.3	69.8	78.6
Bombay	57	74.7	77.3	81.2	85.0	82.2	79.5	78.8	78.7	79.1	80.0	78.3	75.6	79.2

* As the average mean figures for Shillong, Ootacamund and Kodaikanal are not available means of normal maximum and minimum temperatures uncorrected for diurnal variation are given

Average Monthly and Annual Means of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India

Stations	Eleva- tion in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Mean.
STATIONS ON THE RAJAH.														
Tanavoo	188	70.0	74.7	81.9	86.7	88.5	81.3	80.1	84.7	81.3	81.4	77.4	71.6	79.3
Mandlay	260	68.8	73.8	82.1	89.2	88.5	85.4	82.5	84.7	83.5	81.4	77.4	71.6	79.3
Calcutta	104	63.8	67.0	73.9	78.0	83.7	81.4	83.6	82.4	81.7	79.7	73.1	68.1	75.9
Calcutta	21	65.2	70.3	78.9	85.0	88.7	84.5	83.0	83.4	82.6	80.0	72.4	66.3	77.9
Pondicherry	90	65.7	70.0	80.4	86.7	88.5	84.9	83.6	83.8	83.1	80.7	72.0	64.3	78.4
Pondicherry	188	60.8	65.3	76.9	83.0	86.4	83.5	83.5	83.1	83.0	79.6	70.1	63.2	77.1
Bombay	287	60.0	66.8	76.6	80.8	81.3	86.4	84.1	83.1	83.0	77.9	67.8	60.3	77.2
Alambad	309	59.5	64.9	76.8	87.6	88.5	84.5	84.5	83.2	83.0	77.6	67.8	60.3	77.3
Lachow	368	58.7	63.7	76.2	86.4	90.6	86.2	85.2	83.4	83.2	77.1	66.3	58.9	76.9
Lachow	555	60.1	64.8	76.7	88.1	94.0	88.4	86.0	84.2	84.2	79.4	68.7	61.2	78.4
Alambad	738	56.0	60.1	71.1	82.7	88.4	84.4	86.0	83.2	81.7	74.7	63.5	56.7	74.4
Pell	718	57.9	62.3	74.1	86.2	91.7	86.4	86.4	83.6	83.9	78.5	67.6	59.6	77.1
Lahore	702	59.0	67.3	80.0	90.9	98.9	89.0	89.1	87.1	84.8	76.7	63.2	54.9	74.7
Multan	480	57.5	69.3	81.8	92.9	91.4	84.9	82.7	80.4	88.0	79.6	67.1	57.7	77.8
Hyderabad (Sind)	196	67.3	72.3	84.6	94.3	97.7	88.0	85.0	83.8	83.8	79.2	67.5	58.9	79.3
Hyderabad (Sind)	80	66.6	67.1	77.6	86.2	91.6	81.7	83.6	85.0	85.0	82.7	73.5	68.0	79.9
Pitambar	771	59.2	63.6	76.8	88.4	94.1	94.7	90.4	87.8	87.4	83.4	70.5	61.4	79.6
Bakho	439	66.8	70.0	77.4	88.1	98.2	87.5	81.7	80.6	80.8	80.4	74.1	68.3	78.1
Alambad	168	70.3	74.0	83.7	91.2	98.9	89.4	88.7	83.0	83.5	84.3	78.5	73.9	82.1
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Atoka	980	63.5	75.7	81.8	90.1	98.5	86.2	80.6	73.9	79.7	77.9	66.8	59.2	79.2
Jabalpur	1,327	61.8	66.8	76.9	86.2	91.9	85.7	79.0	74.8	79.0	74.8	66.6	60.3	75.6
Nagpore	1,025	68.8	74.3	82.4	90.6	94.5	86.6	80.4	73.4	78.4	72.2	67.1	60.0	79.6
Nagpur	970	67.7	73.6	81.9	90.3	98.6	88.0	83.0	79.0	80.3	75.1	66.1	59.0	79.0
Alambad	2,152	67.1	71.3	77.5	83.5	88.8	79.2	76.2	74.9	74.5	75.1	70.5	67.1	76.0
Poon	1,940	69.8	73.9	80.1	83.9	88.8	78.7	74.9	73.7	74.4	76.2	72.6	66.9	76.8
Bhojpur	1,890	72.7	77.7	84.2	88.4	88.9	81.8	78.9	77.7	77.3	77.7	74.6	69.3	79.3
Hyderabad (Deccan)	2,539	69.8	73.0	77.5	79.3	78.0	71.8	70.1	69.7	70.3	70.8	70.9	69.3	72.8
Bangalore	1,680	70.4	77.1	83.1	88.0	90.1	82.6	77.9	77.1	77.4	76.8	72.8	69.1	78.5
Bangalore	5,021	67.5	72.0	79.9	88.6	94.0	74.0	72.0	71.8	71.8	71.8	69.6	68.3	78.9
Bellary	1,476	73.2	79.6	86.6	89.2	89.0	83.4	80.9	80.6	80.2	79.1	75.5	72.3	80.8

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India

Stations.	Evap- tion in feet.	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
INLAND STATIONS														
Amritsar	4,920	0.49	0.81	1.86	4.29	10.06	16.46	13.49	12.78	14.75	8.23	0.96	0.25	82.44
Deerpatna	7,376	0.76	1.08	2.01	4.08	7.85	24.19	31.74	25.06	18.34	8.86	0.24	8.20	131.80
Bikaner	7,284	3.21	3.07	2.48	2.32	3.71	7.84	18.42	17.37	6.17	1.19	0.41	1.28	97.87
Muzee	9,553	3.78	4.14	3.96	3.03	2.99	3.41	12.51	13.40	5.64	1.86	1.57	1.37	87.90
Calcutta	5,204	3.36	4.24	3.10	3.30	2.72	1.77	2.73	1.85	1.18	1.14	0.41	1.06	27.02
Meerut	3,945	0.37	0.31	0.18	0.08	0.97	5.59	23.05	21.61	9.55	1.49	0.26	0.28	62.49
Delhi	7,287	0.35	0.38	1.00	2.46	5.08	8.18	5.94	4.70	4.44	8.57	4.00	1.86	46.60
Krishna	7,586	1.17	1.48	3.59	5.29	4.47	4.01	3.89	5.89	6.70	12.49	3.17	3.37	64.82
COAST STATIONS														
Kanpur	49	0.64	0.30	0.15	0.13	0.08	0.43	3.16	1.77	0.80	0.04	0.14	0.10	7.46
Varanasi	18	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.08	5.31	8.92	7.27	2.40	0.81	0.66	0.16	25.69
Bombay	37	0.12	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.55	20.56	24.56	14.91	10.92	1.76	0.47	0.06	72.89
Madras	110	0.60	0.02	0.05	0.16	1.27	31.33	34.25	20.18	12.53	3.03	0.65	0.06	104.71
Calcutta	65	0.13	0.07	0.11	2.06	7.26	38.47	37.39	22.89	11.09	7.90	1.97	0.80	129.89
Chennai	27	0.17	0.16	0.19	3.70	9.04	36.46	29.36	14.89	7.39	9.12	3.80	1.32	116.50
Madras	31	1.16	0.72	0.82	1.02	1.81	1.30	1.74	3.29	3.65	10.08	15.02	11.22	61.22
Madras	22	0.83	0.28	0.37	0.65	1.90	2.06	3.80	4.00	4.84	10.84	13.30	6.25	48.98
Madras	15	0.17	0.16	0.36	0.40	1.24	4.32	5.97	8.03	9.10	8.85	4.38	0.53	33.30
Madras	21	0.28	0.13	0.56	0.73	2.11	5.76	6.97	7.90	6.86	9.94	3.50	0.78	43.94
Madras	57	0.11	0.23	0.16	1.74	11.73	13.30	21.37	18.65	15.89	7.12	2.59	0.07	83.89

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct	Nov	Dec	Annual Total.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.														
Bombay	188	0.08	0.12	0.08	1.90	5.48	13.65	17.46	18.83	11.46	4.95	1.28	0.16	79.08
Madras	250	0.09	0.08	0.21	1.19	5.48	13.65	17.46	18.83	11.46	4.95	1.28	0.16	79.08
Calcutta	204	0.04	2.32	7.98	13.58	15.72	20.49	13.89	15.08	6.21	2.54	1.87	0.29	82.08
Patna	21	0.29	1.03	1.14	1.84	5.60	11.04	12.51	12.69	10.80	6.87	0.21	0.84	112.43
Secrwan	96	0.39	0.96	1.24	2.30	5.56	10.17	12.38	11.49	8.59	3.89	0.94	0.12	57.54
Patna	188	0.72	0.85	0.35	0.30	1.70	7.76	11.41	10.72	7.28	2.89	0.29	0.14	44.54
Meerut	267	0.74	0.81	0.33	0.15	0.56	5.45	12.54	11.19	6.54	2.24	0.17	0.17	40.58
Aligarh	306	0.82	0.48	0.38	0.14	0.26	5.09	12.24	10.86	6.82	2.40	0.29	0.12	39.52
Lucknow	269	0.90	0.45	0.32	0.11	0.21	5.34	11.39	11.32	6.61	1.33	0.09	0.44	59.20
Aligarh	555	0.55	0.38	0.25	0.10	0.64	2.84	9.67	7.11	4.41	0.89	0.06	0.28	26.70
Meerut	788	1.05	0.85	0.68	0.84	0.70	3.60	9.37	7.04	4.55	0.43	0.09	0.40	29.68
Delhi	718	1.02	0.61	0.67	0.85	0.71	3.15	8.39	7.44	4.42	0.39	0.10	0.48	27.70
Lahore	705	0.87	1.18	0.89	0.21	0.80	1.86	6.65	4.98	2.10	0.43	0.11	0.47	20.70
Meerut	420	0.89	0.36	0.42	0.27	0.39	0.43	2.19	1.66	0.60	0.07	0.06	0.27	7.11
Jaunpore	183	0.28	0.27	0.25	0.17	0.15	0.10	1.18	1.25	0.19	0.01	0.10	0.15	4.10
Hydrabad (Hind)	96	0.24	0.22	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.41	2.61	2.77	0.84	0.00	0.10	0.08	7.22
Bikaner	771	0.83	0.24	0.18	0.14	0.24	1.85	8.29	3.14	1.08	0.09	0.09	0.18	11.27
Meerut	420	0.89	0.36	0.42	0.27	0.39	0.43	2.19	1.66	0.60	0.07	0.06	0.27	7.11
Aligarh	168	0.08	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.37	5.27	10.29	6.41	3.75	0.67	0.23	0.08	27.80
Aligarh	168	0.08	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.37	5.27	10.29	6.41	3.75	0.67	0.23	0.08	27.80
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Amala	980	0.45	0.18	0.43	0.19	0.31	4.13	8.74	6.48	6.24	2.14	0.44	0.38	51.27
Jubbulpore	1,527	0.23	0.53	0.43	0.22	0.47	8.52	15.50	15.18	8.88	1.55	0.27	0.28	45.45
Madras	1,025	0.58	0.43	0.57	0.15	0.83	6.42	13.49	9.78	5.11	2.14	0.51	0.27	45.45
Meerut	970	0.30	0.83	0.59	0.59	0.76	9.35	11.94	12.72	7.75	2.09	0.62	0.20	50.27
Aligarh	2,152	0.27	0.12	0.15	0.40	1.16	4.78	3.08	2.60	6.76	3.12	0.89	0.46	24.94
Poona	1,840	0.18	0.08	0.18	0.53	1.45	5.35	6.90	4.03	4.43	4.11	0.85	0.20	22.92
Sholapur	1,590	0.06	0.08	0.29	0.93	1.09	4.41	4.19	5.42	7.77	3.43	0.87	0.24	29.74
Bangalore	2,559	0.06	0.03	0.49	2.05	2.73	9.32	15.37	6.15	4.05	5.09	1.89	0.24	49.81
Hydrabad (Deccan)	1,690	0.05	0.12	0.67	0.73	0.78	4.44	6.22	6.76	7.10	2.98	1.35	0.17	51.85
Meerut	5,021	0.06	0.22	0.72	1.19	4.58	3.13	4.13	6.00	7.11	6.74	2.61	0.30	36.82
Delhi	1,476	0.10	0.08	0.42	0.85	1.93	1.84	1.41	2.18	4.12	4.04	1.20	0.20	18.30

MONSOON OF 1930.

The S W Monsoon of the year was on the whole fairly normal in its incidence throughout the season except in August when the activity of the current for the month was in the main confined to North East India and Burma.

June.—The Monsoon current on the Arabian Sea side was initially weak and appeared later than usual on the West Coast on the 8th and on the Konkan Coast on the 10th. It gradually gathered strength and in the following week extended inland and on the whole was normally active over its field. Invigorated later under the influence of two depressions in the North Arabian Sea off the Kathiawar Coast—one on the 21st and the other on the 28th—the current particularly intensified in the Konkan, Guzerat and Kathiawar enabling it also to carry strong monsoon pulses into Sind where notably the rainfall gathered for the month was 314 per cent in excess.

The Bay branch of the Monsoon was markedly accelerated in its advance by a storm which formed off the Ceylon Coast about the end of the first week in May. It helped to carry the monsoon into Burma on the 10th May and it remained active in lower Burma throughout that month. The current was well established later in Upper Burma by the 27th May and extended into Assam on the 1st June into Bengal on the 2nd and into Bihar and Orissa by the third week. A Bay storm off the Orissa-Ganjam Coast on the 25th stimulated the activity of the current along the North Madras Coast and in the Central Provinces for the remaining two days of the month. Averaged over the plains of India the rainfall for June was in defect by 3 per cent.

July.—The Bay storm of the 25th June as it moved past the Central Provinces to the West United Provinces gave widespread and heavy rains all along its track during the first week and helped to carry fairly strong monsoon past the United Provinces and East Central India into the Punjab. Three more depressions formed at the head of the Bay respectively in the first, second and fourth week of the month. While the first and third disturbances passing through Chota Nagpur to the East United Provinces weakened over there merging into the seasonal trough of low pressure the second intensified into a storm and traversing the country north westwards reached Sind on the 23rd a week after its development in the Bay. All these disturbances determined heavy rains along and in the vicinity of their tracks. In the Peninsula the monsoon remained generally weak during the first three weeks. It revived later in South Madras and South Deccan and continued fairly active to the end of the month. On the whole the monsoon throughout the month was normally active in Burma, North East India, Central India and North-West India, notably vigorous in Sind, Chota Nagpur, and the Punjab, and markedly weak in the Peninsula. Averaged over the plains of India the month's rainfall was in excess by 4 per cent.

August.—Only one short-lived disturbance formed at the head of the Bay about the 2nd

It passed inland through Orissa into the East United Provinces where it weakened after the 5th. It served to carry strong monsoon between the 8th and the 12th into East Central India and from the United Provinces to North Punjab. It also served to invigorate to a certain extent the Arabian Sea current extending the monsoon rains into Guzerat, West Central India and Rajputana. A general break in the rain set in the Peninsula area from the end of the first week and lasted almost to the end of the month. By the end of the second week the break extended over North West India, and by the end of the following week over the United Provinces. Normal activity of the monsoon was thus in the main confined during this period to North-West India and Burma only. Averaged over the plains of India, the total fall for the month was in defect by 18 per cent.

September.—A general strengthening of the monsoon current started early in the month mainly induced by a Bay depression formed off the Orissa Coast on the 7th. It moved slowly past West Central Provinces into the East United Provinces and after causing widespread and heavy rains along and in the vicinity of its track it became diffused and unimportant after the 17th. In the Peninsula the current remained fairly strong for the first two weeks and also from the 11th to 15th from Guzerat to East United Provinces in the West United Provinces and in East and North Punjab. The monsoon began to recede from North-West India after the 15th. From the 11th to the end of the third week the activity of the Arabian Sea current was confined in the main to the West Coast south of Bombay. The Bay branch remained active on the whole in Burma throughout the month. In North East India it was fairly active for the first fortnight, and a depression which formed on the 21st off the Orissa Coast strengthened the current carrying heavy rains once again into North-East India and East United Provinces upto the 28th. Averaged over the plains of India the month's rainfall was in excess by 1 per cent.

October.—The S W Monsoon began gradually to recede from North-East India early in the month and the N E Monsoon current was established in the south of the Bay about the third week. Thunderstorms more or less severe usually associated with this period of transition occurred all over the country. The weather normally settles after such reversal of the currents but conditions soon became unsettled by the formation of a storm in the Bay off the Orcomandel Coast about the 23rd. It moved westwards, crossed the coast near Nagapatam and cutting across the south of the Peninsula passed out into the Arabian Sea. The storm intensified here and moving northwards almost parallel to the coast recurred inland near the Surat Coast. It took a north-easterly course thereafter and disappeared over the East United Provinces. Widespread and heavy rains were caused all along the track, and gales and squalls were experienced on and off the West Coast during

the northward passage of the storm. The month's rainfall averaged, over the plains of India was 12 per cent in excess.

The total fall for the season—June to September—

been—averaged over the plains of India was 4 per cent in defect. The following table gives detailed information of the seasonal rainfall for the period June to September —

DIVISIONS	RAINFALL JUNE TO SEPTEMBER			
	Actual	Normal.	Departure from Normal	Percentage departure from Normal
	Inches	Inches	Inches	
Burma	81.2	83.8	-2.6	-3
Assam	61.1	61.1	0	0
Bengal	61.5	60.9	+0.6	+1
Bihar and Orissa	42.9	45.7	-2.8	-6
United Provinces	34.7	36.1	-1.4	-4
Punjab	18.1	15.7	+2.4	+15
North West Frontier Province	3.9	5.0	-1.1	-22
Sind	7.7	4.7	+3.0	+64
Rajputana	14.7	18.1	-3.4	-19
Bombay	34.6	36.9	-2.3	-6
Central India	36.4	33.8	+2.6	+8
Central Provinces	37.5	40.5	-3.0	-7
Hyderabad	22.9	26.7	-3.8	-14
Mysore	11.3	15.5	-4.2	-27
Madras	21.9	26.0	-4.1	-16
Mean of India	38.0	39.6	-1.6	-4

INTEREST TABLE.

From 5 to 12 per cent on Rupees 100.

Calculated for 1 Year, 1 Month (Calendar) 1 Week, and 1 Day (365 Days to a Year) the Decimal Fraction of a Pds for the Day being shown for the Day.

Per cent.	1 Day	1 Week.	1 Month.	1 Year
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
5	0 0 2 630	0 1 6	0 5 8	5 0 0
6	0 0 3 156	0 1 10	0 8 0	6 0 0
7	0 0 3 682	0 2 1	0 9 4	7 0 0
8	0 0 4 306	0 2 5	0 10 8	8 0 0
9	0 0 4 734	0 2 9	0 12 0	9 0 0
10	0 0 5 260	0 3 0	0 13 4	10 0 0
11	0 0 5 786	0 3 4	0 14 8	11 0 0
12	0 0 6 312	0 3 8	0 16 0	12 0 0

Famine.

To the student of Indian administration nothing is more remarkable than the manner in which great problems arise, produce a corresponding outburst of official activity to meet them and then fall into the background. This general truth is illustrated by a study of the history of famine in India. For nearly forty years it was the bogey of the Indian administration. The forecasts of the rains were studied with acute anxiety. The actual progress of the rains was followed with no less anxiety, and at the first signs of a bad or poor season the famine relief machinery was furnished up and prepared for any emergency. The reason for this is clear if we examine for a brief space the economic condition of the Indian peasantry. Nearly three-quarters of the people are directly dependent on agriculture for their daily bread. Very much of this agriculture is dependent on the seasonal rains for its existence. Immense areas in the Bombay Presidency, Madras, the United Provinces and Central India are in a region of erratic and uncertain rainfall. The rainy season is short and if for any natural reason there is a weakness, or absence of the rain bearing currents, then there is either a poor harvest or no harvest at all. In Western lands everyone is acquainted with the difference between a good and a poor season but western countries offer no parallel to India, where in an exceptionally bad year wide tracts of thickly populated land may not produce even a blade of grass. In the old days there were no rail ways to distribute the surplus of one part of India to the districts where the crop had failed. There were often no roads. The irrigation works were few and were themselves generally dependent on the rainfall for their reserves. The people lived from hand to mouth and had no store of food to fall back upon. Nor had they any credit. In the old days then they died. Commencing with the Orissa famine in 1865-67 the Government of India assumed responsibility for the saving of human life in such crises. After the famine of 1899-1900 this responsibility was also shouldered by the Indian States. Stage by stage this responsibility was expressed in the evolution of a remarkable system of famine relief covering the whole field. But now that machinery has reached a remarkable degree of perfection, it is resting in the official armchairs, because the conditions have changed. The whole of India is covered with a network of railways, which distributes the produce of the soil to the centres where food is required. The extension of irrigation has enormously increased the product of the soil and rendered large areas much less dependent on the monsoon rainfall. At the same time the scientific study of the problems of Indian agriculture has raised the capacity of even the "dry" zones. The peasantry has accumulated a certain reserve against the rainless days from the prosperity which soon passed the period of high prices. The rapid spread of the co-operative credit movement has mobilised and strengthened rural credit. The spread of manufacturing enterprise has lightened the pressure on the soil. The relation of famine to the question of Indian administration has therefore changed. In an exceptionally

bad year it may create administrative difficulties, it has ceased to be an administrative and social problem.

Famine under Native Rule.

Famines were frequent under Native rule, and frightful when they came. In 1680, says Sir William Hunter, in the History of British India, "a calamity fell upon Gujarat which enables us to realise the terrible meaning of the word famine in India under Native rule. Whole cities and districts were left bare of inhabitants." In 1681 a Dutch merchant reported that only eleven of the 360 families at Sully survived. He found the road thence to Surat covered with bodies decaying on the highway where they died, there being none to bury them. In Surat, that great and crowded city, he could hardly see any living persons but the corpses at the corner of the streets lie twenty together, nobody burying them. Thirty thousand had perished in the town alone. Pestilence followed famine. Further historical evidence was adduced by Sir Theodore Morrison in his volume on the Economic Transition of India. It has come to be seen that whilst railways have checked the old-fashioned practice of storing grain in the villages they have made the reserves, where they exist, a valuable for the whole of India. In India there is now no such thing as a food famine, the country always produces enough food for the whole of the population, famine when it comes is a money famine and the task of the State is confined to providing the means for those affected by drought to earn enough to buy food. The machinery whereby this is done will be examined after we have seen the experiences through which it was evolved.

History of Recent Famines

The Orissa famine of 1865-67 may be taken as the starting point because that induced to first great and organised effort to combat distress through State agency. It affected 180,000 square miles and 47,500,000 people. The Bengal Government was a little slow in appreciating the need for action, but late food was poured into the district in prodigious quantities. Thirty-five million units were relieved (a unit is one person supported for one day at a cost 95 lakhs). The mortality was very heavy, and it is estimated that a million people or one-third of the population, died in Orissa alone. This was followed by the Madras famine of 1866, and the famine in Western India of 1869-70. The latter famine introduced India to the great migration from Marwar which was such a distinguishing feature of the famine of 1899-1900. It is estimated that out of a total population of a million and a half in Marwar, one million emigrated. There was famine in Behar in 1873-74, then came the great South Indian famine of 1876-78. This affected Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad and Bombay for two years and in the second year extended to parts of the Central and United Provinces and to a small tract in the Punjab. The total area affected was 257,000 square miles and the popu-

lacked 58,500,000. Warned by the excessive expenditure in Bihar and actuated by the desire to secure economy the Government relief programme was not entirely successful. The excessive mortality in this famine is said to have been 5,350,000 in British territory alone. Through out British India 700,000,000 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 8½ crores. Charitable contributions from Great Britain and the Colonies aggregated Rs 84 lakhs.

The Famine Codes.

The experiences of this famine showed the necessity of placing relief on an organised basis. The first great Famine Commission which sat under the presidency of Sir Richard Strachey, elaborated the Famine Codes, which amended to meet later experience, form the basis of the famine relief system to-day. They recommended (1) that employment should be given on the relief works to the able bodied, at a wage sufficient for support, on the condition of performing a suitable task, and (2) that gratuitous relief should be given in their villages or in poor houses to those who are unable to work. They recommended that the food supply should be left to private agency, except where that was unequal to the demands upon it. They advised that the land-owning classes should be assisted by loans, and by general suspensions of revenue in proportion to the crop failure. In sending the Famine Code to the provincial governments, the Government of India laid down as the cardinal feature of their policy that the famine wage "is the lowest amount sufficient to maintain health under given circumstances. While the duty of Government is to save life, it is not bound to maintain the labouring population at its normal level of comfort. Provincial codes were drawn up, and were tested by the famine of 1896-97. In that 807,000 square miles were affected with a population of 62,500,000. The numbers relieved exceeded 4,000,000 at the time of greatest distress. The cost of famine relief was Rs 7½ crores, revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs 1½ crore, and loans given aggregating Rs 1½ crore. The charitable relief fund amounted to about Rs 1½ crore, of which Rs. 1½ crore was subscribed in the United Kingdom. The actual famine mortality in British India was estimated at 750,000. The experiences of this famine were examined by a Commission under Sir James Lyall, which reported that the success attained in saving life and the relief of distress was greater than had ever been recorded in famines, comparable with it in severity, and that the expense was moderate. But before the Local Governments had been given time to digest the proposals of this Commission or the people to recover from the shock, the great famine of 1899-1900 supervened.

The Famine of 1899-1900

This famine affected 475,000 square miles with a population of 59,500,000. In the Central Provinces, Bihar, Bombay, Ajmer, and the Hissar district of the Punjab famine was acute. It was intense in Rajputana, Sindh, Central India, Hyderabad and Kathiawar. It was marked by several distinctive features. The

rainfall over the whole of India was in extreme deficit, being eleven inches below the mean. In several localities there was practically no rain. There was in consequence a great fodder famine, with a terrible mortality amongst the cattle. The water supply was deficient, and brought a crop of difficulties in its train. Then districts like Gujarat, where famine had been unknown for so many years that the locality was thought to be famine immune, were affected, the people here being softened by prosperity, owing to their villages, in the hope of saving their cattle, and came within the scope of the relief works when it was too late to save life. A very large area in the Indian States was affected, and the Marwaris swept from their impoverished land right through Central India like a horde of locusts, leaving desolation in their train. For these reasons relief had to be given on an unprecedented scale. At the end of July 4,500,000 persons were supported by the State, Rs. 10 crores were spent on relief, and the total cost was estimated at Rs. 15 crores. The famine was also marked by a widespread acceptance by Indian States of the duty hitherto shouldered by the Government of India alone—the supreme responsibility of saving human life. Aided by loans to the extent of Rs. 8½ crores, the Indian States did a great deal to bring their administration into line with that in British India. Although actual deaths from starvation were insignificant, the extensive outbreaks of cholera, and the devastating epidemics of malaria which followed the advent of the rains induced a famine mortality of approximately a million. The experiences of this famine were collated by the Commission presided over by Sir Antony Macdonnell. This Commission reported that taking the famine period as a whole the relief given was excessive, and laid down certain modified lines. The cardinal feature of their policy was moral strategy. Pointing out that if the people were assisted at the start they would help themselves, whilst if their condition were allowed to deteriorate it proceeded on a declining scale, they placed in the forefront of their programme the necessity of "putting heart into the people." The machinery suggested for this purpose was the prompt and liberal distribution of advance loans, the early suspension of revenue, and a policy of prudent boldness, starting from the preparation of a large and expansive plan of relief and secured by liberal preparations, constant vigilance, and a full enlistment of non-official help. The wage scale was revised, the minimum wage was abolished in the case of able bodied workers, payments by results were recommended, and proposals were made for saving cattle.

The modern system.

The Government of India are now in possession of complete machinery to combat the effects of drought. In ordinary times Government is kept informed of the meteorological conditions and the state of the crops; programmes of suitable relief works are kept up-to-date, the country is mapped into relief circles, reserves of tools and plant are stocked. If the rains fail, policy is at once declared,

non-officials are enlisted, revenue suspended and loans for agricultural purposes made. Seed works are then opened, and if labour in considerable quantities is estimated, they are converted into relief works on Coode principles. Poor houses are opened and gratuitous relief given to the indigent. On the advent of the rains the people are moved from the large works to small works near their villages, liberal advances are made to agriculturists for the purchase of plough, cattle and seed. When the principal autumn crop is ripe, the few remaining works are gradually closed and gratuitous relief ceases. All this time the medical staff is kept in readiness to deal with cholera which so often accompanies famine, and malaria, which generally supervenes when the rains break.

Famine Protection.

Side by side with the perfection of the machinery for the relief of famine has gone the development of famine protection. The Famine Commission of 1880 stated that the best, and often the only means of securing protection from the extreme effects of famine and drought, are railways and irrigation. These are of two classes, productive and protective. Productive works being estimated to yield profits which will pay interest and sinking fund charges are met from loans, protective works, which do not pay directly from revenue, in order to guarantee that there should be continuous progress with protective works, the Famine Insurance Grant was instituted in 1875. It was decided to set apart from the general revenues Rs 1½ crores annually or one million sterling. The first charge on this grant is famine relief, the second protective works, the third the avoidance of debt. The chain of protective railways is now practically complete. Great progress is being made with protective irrigation. Acting on the advice of the Irrigation Commission an elaborate programme of protective irrigation works has been constructed, particularly in the Bombay Deccan—the most famine-susceptible district in India—and in the Central Provinces.

Under the Statutory Rules framed under the Government of India Act of 1919, Provincial Governments (except Burma and Assam) are required to contribute from their resources a fixed sum every year for expenditure on famine. These annual assignments can be expended on relief of famine only, the sum not required for this purpose is utilised in building up a Famine Relief Fund. The Fund provides, as its main and primary object, for expenditure on Famine Relief proper, the word "Famine" being held to cover famine due to drought or other natural calamities. The balance at the credit of the Fund is regarded as invested with the Governor-General-in-Council and is available for expenditure on famine, when necessary and, under certain restrictions, on protective and other works for relief of famine.

The Outlook

Such is brief is the official programme and organisation which has been built up out of the experience and practice of the

past. Yet everything goes to show that Government activity to save human life will never be wanted in the future on the colossal scale of former times, even so recently as 1880-1900. Each succeeding failure of the rains indicates that there has been in silent progress an economic revolution in India. In the year 1918 the rains failed more seriously and over a wider area than during any monsoon in the recent history of India. The deficiency in the rainfall was more marked than in the great famine of 1899. Yet such was the increased resisting power of the people that instead of a demand for State relief from over five millions, the maximum number at any time in receipt of public assistance was never so large as six hundred thousand. The shock to the social life of the community was insignificant, the effects of the drought completely disappeared with the good rains of the following year.

Increased Resisting Power

The causes of this economic change in the conditions of India, whose influence is widespread are many. We can only briefly indicate them here. There is a much greater mobility in Indian labour. Formerly when the rains failed the ryot eluded to his village until State relief in one form or another was brought almost to his doors. Now at the first sign of the failure of the rains he girds up his loins and goes in search of employment in one of the industrial centres, where the supply of labour is rarely equal to the demand, or on the constructional works which are always in progress either through State or private agency in the country. Then the ryot generally commands some store of value, often misnamed a hoard. The balance of exports in favour of India in normal times is approximately \$40 millions a year. The gold and silver bullion in which this is largely liquidated is distributed all over the country, in small sums or in ornaments, which can be drawn upon in an emergency. The prodigious coining of rupees during the last two years of the war, and the continuous absorption of gold by India, represent small diffused savings, which take their form owing to the absence of banking institutions and lack of confidence in the banking system. There has been a large extension of irrigation. More than one-third of the land in the Punjab is now under irrigation, and in other Provinces, particularly in the famine-susceptible tracts of the Bombay Deccan, irrigation works have been constructed, which break the shock of a failure of the rains. Then the natural growth of the population has been reduced by plague and famine diseases, followed by the great influenza epidemic of 1918-19, which swept off five millions of people. This has not only prevented the increase of congestion, but has brought some areas particularly in the Indian States, below their former population-supporting capacity. The increase of railways distributes the resources of the country with ease, the spread of the co-operative credit movement has improved rural credit. Finally, there is the considerable development of manufacturing industry, which is generally short of labour and helps to absorb the surplus of a famine year. Whilst the Government is completely equipped with a famine code, there is no reason to suppose that there will ever recur such an emergency as

that of 1899. Famine can now be efficiently met by the liberal distribution of *tagavi*, the suspension and remission of the land revenue demand, the relief of the aged and others who cannot work, the provision of cheap fodder for the cattle, with possibly some assistance in transporting the affected population of the famine-affected tract to the industrial centres.

The increased resisting power of the people was effectively demonstrated during the famine of 1920-21, which was due to the failure of the monsoon towards the end of the year 1920. The distress which appeared in the end of 1920 persisted during the early months of 1921 and regular famine was declared in parts of Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces and Baluchistan. Local distress prevailed also in Bengal, Punjab and Central India. The largest number of persons on relief of all kinds did not exceed 6.45 million which was considerably less than 2% of the total population of the area affected by the failure of the monsoon.

The Indian People's Famine Trust.

Outside the Government programme there is always scope for private philanthropy especially in the provision of clothes, help for the superior class poor who cannot accept Government aid, and in assisting in the rehabilitation of the cultivators when the rains break. At every great famine large sums have been subscribed particularly in the United Kingdom for this purpose, and in 1899-1900 the people of the United States gave generous help. With the idea of providing a permanent famine fund, the Maharaja of Jaipur gave in 1900 a sum of Rs 15 lakhs, in Government securities to be held in trust for the purposes of charitable relief in seasons of general distress.

This Trust in a few years became swollen to Rs 28,10,000 and has ever since been maintained at that figure. This Trust is called the Indian People's Famine Trust, and was constituted under the charitable endowment Act, 1890. The income of the Trust is administered by a board of management consisting of 13 members appointed from different provinces and Indian States. Mr E. Burden, C.S.I., O.I.C., I.C.S., Auditor General in India, is the Secretary & Treasurer (elect) of the Trust. The money is invested and the principal never taken for expenditure.

The income from it is utilised for relief work as necessary and unexpended balances are temporarily invested, so as to make available in years of trouble savings when expenditure is not necessary. The temporary investments—in Government Securities—at the end of 1930 stood at Rs. 2,60,900 and the cash balance at the same time was Rs. 42,951 12 6, so that the total available for expenditure at the commencement of 1930 was Rs. 3,03,851 12-6. The returns for 1930 were not complete when this chapter was revised.

The whole conditions to meet which the Trust was founded have changed in recent years. This is the result of the improved policy of Government in regard to famine relief and of the difference in the meaning of the word famine in consequence of the improvement of transport communications and other factors affected by modern progress. An area stricken by failure of seasonal rains now obtains supplies from other regions in a manner impossible before the development of railways and of modern marketing practice and Government help its people by loans given direct or through Co-operative Societies to tide them over the period of scarcity. The experience of successive visitations of scarcity in different parts of the country also proves that the general economic progress of the people makes them able to meet temporary periods of stress in a manner formerly unimaginable. Famine in the old terrible sense of the term has in fact ceased to occur. This was well illustrated by the events of 1919, when the land suffered from a failure of the rains more general throughout India and worse in degree than any previously recorded by the Meteorological Department but the crisis was borne with a minimum of suffering. The demands upon the Famine Trust have consequently so greatly diminished in their original sense that hardly any money is now distributed from it for the relief of famine in the proper sense of the word, resulting from rain failure and expenditure has mainly become grants of assistance to sufferers from floods. The total expenditure upon real famine in the old sense was only Rs. 60,000 during the year 1929, while expenditure on relief of distress caused by floods was Rs. 4,75,000 in the same year. The terms of the Trust, fortunately permit of management on lines according with modern needs.

BOY SCOUTS.

The Boy Scouts movement, initiated in England by Lt.-Gen Sir Robert Baden Powell (the Chief Scout), has spread widely in India, both among Europeans and Indians. The Viceroy is Chief Scout of India and the Heads of Provinces are Chief Scouts in their own areas. The aim of the Association is to develop good citizenship among boys by forming their character—training them in habits of observation, obedience and self-reliance—inculcating loyalty and thoughtfulness for others—and teaching them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves.

It is confidently anticipated that in the Boy Scout Movement will be found a natural means of bridging the gulf between the different races existing in India. The movement is non-official, non-military, non-political and non-sectarian. Its attitude towards religion is to encourage every boy to follow the faith he professes. Every boy admitted as a Scout makes a three-fold promise to do his best (1) to be loyal to God and the King, (2) to help others at all times, and (3) to obey the Scout law. The law referred to lays down—

- 1 That a Scout's honour is to be trusted,
- 2 That he is loyal to God and the King, his parents, teachers, employers, his comrades, his country and those under him,
- 3 That he is to be useful and to help others
- 4 That he is a friend to all and a brother to every other scout, no matter to what social class the other belongs,
- 5 That he is courteous,
- 6 That he is a friend to animals,
- 7 That he obeys orders,
- 8 That he smiles and whistles under all difficulties,
- 9 That he is thrifty,
- 10 That he is clean in thought, word and deed

INDIAN HEAD-QUARTERS

Patron.—H. R. H. The Prince of Wales K. G.
Chief Scout for India.—His Excellency Lord Irwin

Chief Commissioner.—(Vacant)

General Secretary.—George Cunningham Esq. C.I.E., O.B.E., J.C.S.

General Council for India.—

Ex-officio.—The Chief Commissioner for India,
 The Provincial Commissioners,
 The Presidents of Provincial Councils.

Elected.—(Not completed)

Nominated.—(Not completed)

Provincial Commissioners for Bombay Presidency.—Sir Chunilal Mehta, M.A., LL.B., K.C.S.I.,
Provincial Secretary for Bombay.—M. Y. Venkateswaram, Esq., M.A.

Scout Strength

PROVINCE	SCOUTS	CUBS	TOTAL
Assam	2,400	1,308	3,708
Baluchistan	705	213	918
Bangalore	601	177	778
Bengal	6,125	1,150	7,275
Behar and Orissa	9,458	2,175	11,633
Bombay	26,188	*4,335	31,233
Central India	266	83	349
Central Provinces	9,492	3,527	13,019
Delhi	223	29	252
Madras	10,459	2,023	12,482
Punjab	31,407	3,498	34,905
Rajputana	448	81	529
United Provinces	5,772	443	6,220
Burma	3,077	346	3,423
Cochin	966	23	989
Marwar	296	63	359

* Includes 428 Rover

Hydro-Electric Development.

India promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in regard to the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. India not only specially lends itself to projects of the kind, but peremptorily demands them. Cheap motive power is one of the secrets of successful industrial development and the favourable initial conditions caused by the war, the enthusiasm for industrial development which has seized nearly all classes of educated Indians, and the special attention which the circumstances of the war have compelled Government to direct towards the scientific utilisation of Indian natural resources all point to a rapid growth of industrial enterprise in all parts of India within the next few years. Indeed, the process, for which sound foundations had been laid before the war is now rapidly under way. India is severely handicapped compared with other lands as regards the generation of power by the consumption of fuel, coal or oil. These commodities are all difficult to obtain, and costly in India except in a few favoured areas. Coal supplies, for example, are chiefly centred in Bengal and Chota Nagpur and the cost of transport is heavy. Water power and its transmission by electricity offer, on the other hand, immense possibilities both as regards the quantity available and the cheapness at which the power can be rendered, in all parts of India.

Water power schemes, pure and simple, are generally difficult in India, because the power needs to be continuous, while the rainfall is only during a small portion of the year. Perennial rivers with sufficient water throughout the year are practically non-existent in India. Water, therefore, must be stored for use during the dry season. Favourable sites for this exist in many parts in the mountainous and hilly regions where the heaviest rainfalls occur and the progress already made in utilising such opportunities by the electrical transmission of power affords high encouragement for the future. Further hydro-electric schemes can frequently be associated with important irrigation projects, the water being first used to drive the turbines at the generating stations and then distributed over the fields.

The Industrial Commission emphasised the necessity for a Hydrographic Survey of India. On this recommendation the Government of India in 1918 appointed the late Mr. G. T. Barlow, C.I.E., then Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, United Provinces, to undertake the work, associating with him Mr. J. W. Meares, M.I.C.E., Electrical Adviser to the Government of India. Mr. Barlow died, but Mr. Meares issued a preliminary report in September, 1919, summarising the present state of knowledge of the problem in India and outlining a programme of investigation to be undertaken in the course of the inquiry. Mr. Meares showed that industries in India now absorb over a million horse power, of which only some 225,000 h.p. is supplied by electricity from steam, oil or water. The water power so far actually in sight amounts

to 14 million horse-power, but this excludes practically all the great rivers, which are at present uninvestigated. Thus the minimum flow of the seven great rivers eastward from the Indus is stated to be capable of giving not less than three million horse-power for every thousand feet of fall from the Himalayas, while similar considerations apply to rivers in other parts. Some doubt is expressed as to the estimate of seven million horse power in the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers given in the report of the London Comjoint Board of Scientific Studies.

The Report points out that the Bombay Presidency holds a unique position owing to its great existing and projected schemes at Lonavla, the Andhra Valley, the Nila, Mula and the Koyana Valley and has the still greater advantage of possessing a firm ready to develop its resources.

Bombay Hydro-Electric Works.

The greatest water-power undertakings in India—and in some respects the greatest in the world—are the Tata hydro-electric schemes recently brought to fruition, and constantly undergoing expansion, for the supply of power in the city of Bombay. Bombay is after London the most populous city in the British Empire and it is the largest manufacturing town in Asia. Its cotton mills and other factories use over 100,000 horse power of mechanical energy and until a year or two ago this was almost entirely provided by steam, generated by coal coming from a distance—mostly Bengal. The Tata Hydro-Electric Power Scheme, now an accomplished fact, marked one of the big steps forward made by India in the history of its industrial development. It was the product of the fertile brain of Mr. David Gostling, one of the well known characters of Bombay, nearly a generation ago. The exceptional position of the Western Ghats, which rise 2,000 feet from sea-level which a very short distance of the Arabian Sea, and force the monsoon as it sweeps to land, to break into torrential rain at the mountain passes was taken full advantage of, and the table lands behind the Ghats form a magnificent catchment area to conserve this heavy rainfall in Mr. Gostling pressed the scheme on the attention of Mr. Jamsetji Tata for years, and with perseverance collected data which he laid before that pioneer of the larger industries in India. He summoned the aid of experts from England to investigate the plan. The scheme was fully considered for six long years. Meanwhile both Mr. J. N. Tata and Mr. David Gostling passed away, but the sons of the former continued the work of their father and on Mr. Gostling's death, Mr. R. B. Joyner's aid was sought to work out the Hydroelectric side of the undertaking.

The scheme completed, a syndicate secured the license from Government and an endowment was made to enlist the support of financiers of England who tried to impose terms which were not acceptable. Meanwhile, the attorney at Mr. George Clarke (now Lord Sydenham), then

gate B H P of 55,000 H P in service. In addition to the cotton and flour mills which have contracted to take supply from the Company for a period of ten years, an agreement has been completed whereby the Tata Hydro Electric Company, the Andhra Valley Power Supply Company and the Tata Power Company between them supply the whole of the electric power required by the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company, Limited and also the power for the electrification of the Harbour Branch and Bombay Kalyan section of the G I P Railway. There remain many prospective buyers of electrical energy and the completion of the Company's full scheme will not suffice for all such demands. Besides the Bombay cotton mills, which alone would require about 100,000 horse power there are, for instance, tramways, with possibilities of suburban extensions. The probable future demand is roughly estimated at about 180,000 H P. Recently the Company has embarked upon a considerable scheme of extensions, these involving the impounding of a fourth lake at Kundley, near Lonavla, the duplication of the pipeline and the installation of additional machinery at the power house at Khopoli.

Investigations undertaken by Mr. H. P. Gibbs, with a view to further developing the electrical supply led to the discovery of a highly promising water storage site in the valley of the Andhra River, situated near the present lakes previously overlooked, as altogether different treatment and design were required. In this instance the draw-off point is 13 miles upstream from the dam and at a level 112 ft. above the lowest river bed level at the dam. The water is taken through a tunnel 8,700 ft. long driven in solid trap rock through the scarp of the ghats of which the pressure pipes are an extension. Seventy feet of the upper water in the lake can be drawn off comprising 75 per cent. of the total amount of water stored, both above and below draw-off

for it. A company entitled The Tata Power Co., Ltd., was floated in the autumn of 1919.

A lake having an area of sixteen square miles and a catchment area of 112 square miles has been formed at Mulshi by the erection of a masonry dam 4,100 feet in length and 158 feet in height. At the end of the lake opposite to the site of the dam, a tunnel has been cut through the Western Ghats to a total length of 14,500 feet, at the further end of which the water enters the pipe line and descends to the turbine power house at Bhira, 1,760 feet below. The head of water is sufficient to generate 150,000 electrical horse-power at 11,000 volts and after being transformed up to 110,000 volts the current is transmitted to the receiving station at Dharevi, Bombay, through an overhead line approximately 80 miles in length. Five generating units each of 30,000 electrical horse power are being erected, and of these two are already in commercial operation. The power will be absorbed by mills, factories and local area not yet electrified in Bombay and suburbs as well as by the B. B. & C. I. Railway's suburban service, the G. I. P. Railway's electrified service within thirty miles of Bombay and the evergrowing needs of the B. E. S. & T. Company.

Nearly 100 miles southward of this Momen Tata propose to erect two dams in the huge valley of the Koyan river, proposed by Mr. A. T. Arnall and developable on lines similar to the two projects by Mr. Gibbs above mentioned, partly to supply power to Bombay and partly to develop a great assembly of electro-chemical industries near the power installation. The preliminary investigations for this scheme are still proceeding. The catchment area for the lake will be 346 square miles and there will be a total storage after the rains of 112,500 million cubic feet, which will be sufficient to supply a normal load of 350,000 horse power for 8,000 hours per year. The preliminary estimates provided for a capital of Rs. 810 lakhs to carry out the scheme.

Mysore Installation.

The first hydro-electric scheme undertaken in India or, indeed, in the East, was that on the River Cauvery, in Mysore State, which was inaugurated, with generating works at Srivasamudram, in 1905. The Cauvery rises in the British district of Coorg, and flows right across Mysore. The first object with which the installation was undertaken was the supply of power to the goldfields at Kolar. These are 92 miles distant from Srivasamudram and for a long time this was the longest electrical power transmission line in the world. Current is also sent to Bangalore, 69 miles away, where it is used for both industrial and lighting purposes.

The initial undertaking has constantly been expanded since its inauguration, so that its total capacity, which was at first 6,000 horse power, is now approximately 25,000 h.p. This is the maximum obtainable with the water which the Cauvery affords and, therefore, with the number of consumers, large and small, rapidly increasing, the necessity of a completely new installation elsewhere, to be operated in parallel with or separately from that at Srivasamudram, has been recognised. Two projects offer themselves. The first would involve the use of the River Shimsha, a tributary of the Cauvery which has natural falls, and the second, known as the Mekadatu project, would have its power house on the Cauvery, 25 miles down-river from Srivasamudram and just within the borders of Mysore State, adjacent to the Madras Presidency. The head of water available at Srivasamudram is 400 feet, that on the Shimsha 618 feet net, which would generate 29,500 h.p. At Mekadatu the Cauvery runs in rapids and a dam and a channel 20,000 feet long with a 25½ feet bed would be necessary. There would be three generating units, each giving an output of 4,000 e. h. p. Future extensions yielding an additional 8,000 h. p. could be made. The progressive spirit which has marked the management of the works since their inception now characterises the manner in which the problem of further extensions are being considered.

Works in Kashmir

A scheme of much importance from its size, but more interesting because of the developments that may be expected from it than for the part which its current supply already plays in the life of the countryside, is one installed a few years ago by the Kashmir Durbar, utilising the River Jhelum, near Baramulla, which lies thirty-four miles north-west of Srinagar. The head works of the Jhelum power installation are situated six and a half miles from the power house and the main connection between the two is a great timber trestle. These works and the forebay at the delivery end of the trestle have a capacity for carrying water sufficient for the generation of 20,000 electrical horse power. Four pipes 800 feet long lead from the forebay to the power house, and from forebay to water-wheel there is an effective head of 594 feet. There are four vertical waterwheels, each coupled on the same shaft to a 1,000 k.w., 3-phase, 2,300 volt, 25-period generator running at 560 r.p.m., and each unit is capable of taking

a 25 per cent overload, which the generator and is guaranteed to maintain with safety for two hours. The power house is of sufficient capacity to allow of 15,000 k.w. generating plant being installed within it. Two transmission lines run side by side as far as Baramulla, 21 miles distant, at which point one terminates. The other continues to Srinagar, a further 34 miles. The installation at Baramulla was originally utilised for three floating dredgers and two floating derricks, for dredging the river and draining the swampy countryside and rendering it available for cultivation, but these operations have temporarily been curtailed, so that only one dredger is now in operation. The lighting of Baramulla has been taken in hand with satisfactory results and it is expected that the lighting demand will rapidly increase and that a small demand for power will soon spring up. At Srinagar, the line terminates at the State silk factory, where current is supplied not only for driving machinery and for lighting, but for heating. The greater part of Srinagar city is now electrically lighted and during the past year a motor load of over 100 k.w. has been connected with the mains, motors being hired out to consumers by the Electrical Department. This step was taken with a view to educating the people in the use of electric power and it has been entirely successful.

Recent Progress

Apart from the development of the three projects in the Bombay Presidency the past few years have witnessed comparatively little progress in hydro-electric works. Construction is proceeding, however, on the Mandi Project in the Punjab which will utilise the water of the Uhl River for the generation of Power with which a large number of towns in that province will be electrified. The scheme has been formulated in three stages. The first will develop 48,000 horse-power from the ordinary discharge of the river; the second involves the formation of a storage reservoir by the construction of a dam and would double the electrical output, whilst the third would utilise the same water several miles down-stream and provide an additional 64,000 horse-power. Only the first stage is at present being constructed. A small plant was completed and put into operation at Nandi Tal during 1923, and the erection of another small plant was commenced at Shillong, but otherwise there is nothing to record. It is interesting to note, however, that preliminary investigations are proceeding with a view to the erection of hydro-electric plants in various parts of India. In the tea districts of Kalimpong and Kurseong, for example, it is proposed to harness a promising water-power site and to supply current to an important area in which are situated more than two hundred tea factories.

The Sutlej Hydro-Electric Project, at one time appeared to be one of the most promising propositions in the country, but owing to financial considerations it has now been indefinitely shelved. In Southern India a large number of sites have been investigated, and of these one on the Piyara river in the Nilgiris and another on the Kallar river on the borders of Travancore have been selected for develop-

ment if and when the financial considerations can be satisfactorily settled. The Eykani river scheme is of some magnitude, and it is estimated that upwards of 50,000 horse-power will be available for electro-chemical industries which it is proposed to establish at Oskut on the West Coast. The Kallar river project is very much smaller, but it is interesting in being a scheme in which the Government of Madras and the Travancore Darbar will be jointly responsible, for the power house will be located on the British side of the river and the current transmitted to and distributed in Travancore State. Finally, there is a big combined project of hydro-electricification and irrigation in Hyderabad State. This scheme is still very much in the air, but the fact that it is under consideration is worthy of being placed on record in view of the somewhat unusual circumstances in India, that the tail water from the turbines will be made available for agricultural purposes and not allowed to run to waste.

The fact that the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company has shut down its steam-driven generating plant and now takes its supply in bulk from the various Tata companies has been recorded above, and it is of more than passing interest to note that the Poona Electric Supply Company has recently adopted a similar course. This is a phase of hydro-electric distribution which is quite in its infancy in India, but it is possible to foresee the time when every village within a couple of hundred miles of a hydro-electric power station will receive its supply of electric current in bulk, thus greatly reducing capital and administrative charges and minimising the price of current to the consumer. It is a system which has become some thing of a fine art in California, where current is transmitted by overhead wires for many hundreds of miles at a pressure of 200,000 volts, or double the pressure commonly employed in India for overhead long-distance transmission.

Local Self-Government.

No field of the administration of India is likely to be more profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 than local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and there are many signs that the power will be freely used for the purpose of experiments in the direction of building up stronger and more vigorous local bodies. On the whole, the progress of local government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns, and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay. The difficulties in the way of progress were manifold. Local government had to be a creation—the devolution of authority from the Government to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries had been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the movement are stirring, inasmuch as this being a transferred subject it is entirely provincial there will be the widest variation between province and province according to the special needs of each. We can indicate here only the broad tendencies, with the expression of opinion that this field will be one of the most important in the growth of nation-building forces in British India.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative entities—*tahsils*, sub-divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting. The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings welded together in a little community with its own organisation and government, which differs in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, & *q*, in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the population living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads."—(*Quarterly Review*.)

The villages above described fall under two main classes, viz.—

Types of Villages.—(1) The 'severalty' or *patrilocal* village which is the prevalent form

outside Northern India. Here the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators. There is no joint responsibility among the villagers though some of the non-cultivated lands may be set apart for a common purpose, such as grazing, and waste land may be brought under the plough only with the permission of the Revenue authorities, and on payment of assessment. The village government vests in a hereditary headman, known by an old vernacular name, such as *paisa* or *reddi*, who is responsible for law and order, and for the collection of the Government revenue. He represents the primitive headship of the tribe or clan by which the village was originally settled.

"(2) The joint or landlord village, the type prevalent in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Frontier Provinces. Here the revenue was formerly assessed on the village as a whole its incidence being distributed by the body of superior proprietors, and a certain amount of collective responsibility still, as a rule, remains. The village site is owned by the proprietary body, who allow residences to the tenants, artisans, traders and others. The waste land is allotted to the village, and, if wanted for cultivation, is partitioned among the shareholders. The village government was originally by the *panchayat* or group of heads of superior families. In later times one or more headmen have been added to the organisation to represent the village in its dealings with the local authorities, but the artificial character of this appointment, as compared with that which obtains in a *raiyatwari* village is evidenced by the title of its holder, which is generally *landholder*, a vernacular derivative from the English word *number*. It is this type of village to which the well-known description in Sir H. Maine's *Village Communities* is alone applicable, and here the co-proprietors are in general a local oligarchy with the bulk of the village population as tenants or labourers under them."

Village Autonomy.—The Indian villages formerly possessed a large degree of local autonomy, since the native dynasties and their local representatives did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large landholder as responsible for the payment of the Government revenue, and the maintenance of local order. This autonomy has now disappeared owing to the establishment of local, civil and criminal courts, the present revenue and police organisation, the increase of communications, the growth of individualism, and the operation of the individual *raiyatwari* system, which is extending even in the north of India. Nevertheless, the village remains the first unit of administration, the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village watchman—are largely utilised and paid by Government, and there is still a certain amount of common village feeling and interests.

Panchayats.—For some years there was an active propaganda in favour of reviving the village council-tribunal, or *Panchayat* and the Decentralisation Commission of 1908 made the following special recommendations:—

"While, therefore, we desire the development of a *panchayat* system, and consider that the objections urged thereto are far from insur-

mountable we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied, and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to *Panchayats* in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural intelligence, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many years will require great care and discretion, much patience and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however still mainly a question of future possibilities and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what life they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Panchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of conciliation to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character, may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities.—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal legislation before 1848. An Act passed in that year for Bengal, which was practically inoperative, was followed in 1850 by an Act applying to the whole of India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until after 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, which, among other things, extended to the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of local self-government. Acts were passed in 1883-4 that greatly altered the constitution, powers, and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to the elective system, while independence and

responsibility were conferred on the committees of village *panchs* by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were made also to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility, some States of provincial revenue suited to and capable of development under local management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for local objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position.—There are some 757 Municipalities in British India, with something over 18 million people resident within their limits. Of these municipalities, roughly 687 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the proportion resident within municipal limits is largest in Bombay, where it amounts to 30 per cent, and is smallest in Assam where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent. of the total population. Turning to the composition of the Municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are only 7 per cent and nominated 26 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are classed under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs. 14.08 crores derived principally from taxation, just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous sources. Generally speaking, the income of municipalities is small, the four cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon together providing nearly 40 per cent of the total. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of "Conservancy" and "Public Works" which amount to 15 per cent and 14 per cent respectively, "Water-supply" comes to 18 per cent., "Drainage" to 8 per cent and "Education" to no more than 8 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar it is over 17 per cent.

District Boards.—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards, while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India at large there are some 221 district boards with 564 sub-district boards and more than 800 Union Committees. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was some 218 millions in 1919-20. Leaving aside the Union Committees the

members of the Boards numbered a little over 14,500 in 1923-24, of whom 62 per cent. were elected. As in the case of municipalities the tendency has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically manned by Indians, who constitute 96 per cent. of the whole membership. Only 11 per cent of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1923 amounted to Rs. 11.42 crores, the average income of each district board being Rs. 5,00,000. The most important item of revenue is provincial rates, which represent a proportion of the total income varying from 25 per cent. in Bombay and in the N. W. F. Province to 63 per cent. in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come remarkably to the front within the last three years and civil works such as roads and bridges. Medical relief is also sharing with education though in a less degree the lion's share of the available revenue.

Improvement Trusts.—A notable feature in the recent sanitary history of India is the activity played by the great cities in the direction of social improvements. In Bombay and Calcutta the Improvement Trusts are continuing their activities which are described in a separate chapter (q.v.). In Bombay the work of the Improvement Trust is being developed by the Bombay Development Directorate. Other cities are beginning to follow the examples of these great cities and Improvement Trusts have been constituted in Cawnpore, Lucknow and Allahabad in the United Provinces and in several of the larger cities of the Provinces of India. Their activities have, however, been severely curtailed by the financial stress.

Provincial Progress.—There was passed in Bengal in 1919 a Village Self Government Act embodying the policy of constituting Union Boards at the earliest possible date for groups of villages throughout the province. The number of these boards continues to increase, rising from 1,560 to more than 2,000. Though they are in their infancy as yet, many of them show a remarkable aptitude for managing their own affairs.

In Bombay the development of village self government is also proceeding, as the result of an Act for constituting, or increasing the power of village committees, which was passed in 1920 by the Legislative Council. In this Presidency, some 78 out of 157 municipalities had, a two-thirds elected majority of councillors in the year 1920, and a distinct step forward has been effected by the administration in the direction of liberalising the constitution of all municipal bodies. The policy of appointing a non-official president has been extended both to district and sub-district boards, and a large number of non-officials have also been appointed presidents of sub-districts (*tahsils*) boards. In Madras also the institutions of local self-government continued to progress in an encouraging manner. The number of district boards in the Presidency was 24, with 683 members. The number of sub-district boards rose from 119 to 121. The total number of Municipal Councils rose from 72 to 80 and the proportion of Indian

to European and Anglo-Indian members further increased. In 1920-21 there were 54 municipal councils, consisting entirely of Indian members, as against 41 in the previous year. The average imposition of taxation per head of population is still very low, being only about Rs. 2. Nonetheless, 28 towns in the present year possess a protected water-supply and water works schemes are either under execution or in contemplation in a number of others. The number of educational institutions maintained by municipal councils rose to 1,016 which was 96 more than in the previous year, while the net educational charges amounted to Rs. 12-61 lakhs.

In the *United Provinces* the new District Boards, which consist of non-official members only with elected non-official Chairmen, were plunged straight-way into financial difficulties. In some cases the necessity for retrenchment was immediate resulting in the curtailment of medical relief and of allotments for the ordinary repairs of roads. Additional taxation has so far not been generally imposed and the Boards are still suffering from inexperience in husbanding public money and obtaining the full value for their expenditure. In the case of Municipal Finances, there has been some change for the better. The new Municipalities have shown a great interest in all forms of civic activity but they are still hampered in their work by political and communal obsessions. They are reluctant to impose new taxation but a considerable programme of expenditure lies before them. The restoration of municipal roads, the abatement of the dust nuisance and the renewal of water works plant are problems calling almost everywhere for immediate solution. On the whole, the position is more hopeful since the rapid progress which was being made towards Municipal insolvency has been arrested.

In the *Punjab* municipal administration continued to show improvement the general attitude of the members in regard to their responsibilities being promising for progress in the future. Generally speaking the finances are in a more satisfactory position than was the case in previous

years. Expenditure on water-supply schemes is steadily increasing and the capital cost of schemes executed during 1924-25 amounted to over Rs. 21 lakhs as compared with Rs. 11 lakhs in the previous year.

Three Acts of considerable importance, providing for the creation of improvement trusts, for the more effective administration of smaller towns and for the establishment of village panchayats have been passed. Further, Municipalities and District Boards have been reconstituted in a more democratic form.

In the *Central Provinces*, the year 1920 witnessed the passing of a Local Self-Government Act which will guide into proper channels the undoubtedly growing interest in public matters. The continued reduction of official members and chairman, and the wider powers of control given to local bodies will be an incentive to the development of local self government, leading to an increased sense of public duty and responsibility. Another very important measure regulating municipalities was passed into law in 1922. Its chief features are the extension of the Municipal franchise, the reduction of official and nominated members, the extension of the powers of Municipal Committees and the relaxation of official control.

In the *North-West Frontier Provinces*, the institution of local self government is somewhat of a foreign growth. Certain of the municipal committees are still lax in the discharge of the responsibilities and meetings are reported to be infrequent, but the attendance of non-official members is gradually increasing. Concerning Municipal administration the Local Government reports that the members continue to take a very great interest in their duties and that their attitude towards the responsibility imposed upon them is on the whole satisfactory. Communal feeling shows itself in certain localities, but is in many instances offset by the public spirit and initiative of individual members and there are considerable symptoms of advance in independence of action and in the smooth working of the Committees.

Local Government Statistics.

26 municipalities.—With this general introduction we can now turn to the statistical results of the working of Local Self-Government. The following table gives information as to the constitution of municipal committees, taxation, &c., in the chief provinces in 1928-29.

Province.	Population within Municipal Limits.	Number of Members of Committees.	Classification of Members		Income.	Incidents per Head of Population		Expenditure.
			Official.	Non Official.		Rates and Taxes.	Total Income (including Loans and Debt.)	
Presidency Towns								
Bombay ..	1,077,264	1	1	89	2,40,80,043	17 7 0	21 7 8	3,28,98,547
Bombay City ..	1,175,914	1	1	106	14,76,25,130	23 8 8	26 13 8	14,72,37,813
Madras City ..	658,791	1	1	44	73,28,004	7 8 2	10 5 5	77 18,048
Bombay ..	836,491	1	8	81	1,43,81,169	21 6 1	29 9 10	1,36,60,109
District Municipalities.								
Bombay (excluding Calcutta)	2,010,440	116	186	1,513	1,18,68,719	8 5 11	4 0 11	1 14,58,718
Bombay City ..	1,248,088	61	188	867	42,37,084	2 2 4	2 16 4	42,32,485
Madras ..	1,65,687	25	7	278	11,94,897	4 1 11	6 14 10	11,52,591
Bombay (excluding Bombay City)	2,678,408	169	207	2,908	2,58,31,708	6 4 1	9 0 0	3,07,44,918
Madras (excluding Madras City)	2,517,284	81	211	1,063	2,08,40,761	2 4 1	5 13 0	1,99,54,480
United Provinces ..	2,920,885	88	19	1,112	1,63,01,774	8 11 11	6 8 2	2,86,63,345
Punjab ..	1,846,884	107	118	1,188	1,45,85,173	2 4 1	7 8 4	1,44,41,841
N.W. Frontier Province ..	1,39,469	4	32	89	1,08,547	5 6 0	5 5 0	1,08,547
Central Provinces and Berar ..	1,086,799	66	58	1,123	73,28,000	4 1 6	6 9 0	72,96,786
Bombay (excluding Raigoon)	814,579	57	73	739	83,28,587	4 0 1	9 7 0	94,41,504
British Rajshahi ..	28,288	1	5	27	6,74,791	17 8 0	22 1 8	6,74,791
Ajmer-Merwar ..	145,048	4	8	53	6,71,819	3 0 5	4 6 0	7,06,766
Coorg ..	12,076	6	19	41	53,084	2 12 10	4 6 0	44,998
Dahol ..	248,802	1	8	34	25,08,710	5 12 7	7 10 5	28,58,181
Bombay ..	118,940	1	8	20	10,25,884	5 0 7	7 14 6	10,94,510
Total 1928-29	16,101,091	776	12,783	11,869	38,11,07,624	6 7 0	9 1 5	38 14,76,488

Calcutta Improvement Trust.

The Calcutta Improvement Trust was instituted by Government in January, 1912, with a view to making provision for the improvement and expansion of Calcutta by opening up congested areas, laying out or altering streets, providing open spaces for purposes of ventilation or recreation, demolishing or constructing buildings and housing the poorer and working classes displaced by the execution of improvement schemes.

The origin of the Calcutta Improvement Trust must, as in the case of the corresponding Bombay body, upon which the Calcutta Trust was to a large extent modelled, be looked for in a medical enquiry which was instituted into the sanitary condition of the town in 1899, owing to the outbreak of plague. It was estimated that the Trust might in the ensuing 30 years have to provide for the housing of 225,000 persons. The population of Calcutta proper, which includes all the most crowded areas, was 649,995 in 1891, and increased to 801,251, or by 25 per cent., by 1901. The corresponding figure according to the 1911 Census was 896,067 and this had increased by 1921 to 993,508.

The problem of expansion was difficult, because of the peculiar situation of Calcutta, which is shut in on one side by the Hooghly and on the other by the Salt Lake.

Preliminary investigations continued for several years, so that it was only in 1910 that legislation was eventually introduced in the provincial legislature and the Trust instituted by it. The Bill provided for a large expenditure on improvement schemes and the provision of open spaces and for special local taxation to this end. It also provided for the appointment of a whole-time chairman of the Board of Trustees and the membership of the Trust was fixed at eleven.

The following constituted the Board of Trustees at 31st March 1930.—Mr J. A. L. Swan, C.I.E., L.C.S., Chairman; Mr S. W. Goode, C.I.E., I.C.S., Chairman (offg.); Mr J. C. Mukherjee, Bar-at-Law, Chief Executive Officer; Calcutta Corporation (*ex-officio*); Mr D. J. Cohen, elected by the Corporation of Calcutta under Section 7 (1) (a) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911; Mr Prabhudyal Himatsingh, elected by the elected councillors, Corporation of Calcutta, under Section 7 (1) (b) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911 as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr Charu Chandra Bhawan, elected by Councillors other than elected Councillors of the Corporation of Calcutta under Section 7 (1) (c) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911, as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr G. Morgan, C.I.E., elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Mr Hari Shankar Paul, Kt., elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; Mr W. H. Thompson, C.I.E.; Mr Usaid Doss; Rai Badridas Goenka Bahadur, C.I.E.; Lt. Col. Prasad Singh Roy, appointed by the Local Government.

During the 18 years that it has now been at work, the Trust have decided, and partly or entirely carried through, several improvement

schemes for opening up congested areas, laying out or widening streets and providing open spaces.

In Central Calcutta many highly insanitary *bastees* have been done away with and several roads of an improved type laid out, the most important of which is the Chittaranjan Avenue, 100 ft wide which at present extends from Brandon Street to Chowringhee, and will shortly be extended to Shambazar Street on the north. The section of this road near the Chowringhee end is well placed for commerce and trade and is likely before long to gain increased importance by being linked up with Dalhousie Square by means of a new road 84 feet wide, which the Trust proposes to construct between Mission Row and Mangoe Lane.

In the north of the City, two large and thirteen small parks have been constructed in different quarters. Of the two large parks one is named Chittaranjan Park and the other Cosipore-Chitpore. Open space measuring 53 bighas and 108 bighas respectively. The Cosipore-Chitpore Park has a small artificial lake and the 15 out of the area surrounding the lake has been taken in hand. Four football grounds have been provided for schools and clubs of North Calcutta. Some tennis courts are also being made. The Chittaranjan Park has also been provided with play grounds. Several wide roads have been driven through this highly congested area. The approaches to the City have also been adequately widened. Some progress has also been made with that highly congested area to the West of the City by opening up new roads and widening the existing ones. This scheme is known as Maydapatil, Scheme No. XXVII.

The most important work which the Trust has in hand at present is the construction of the main east and west thoroughfare 84 feet wide, across the centre of the city between Maniktala and Strand Road. The portion between Upper Circular Road and Central Avenue has been completed as also the section of this thoroughfare between Central Avenue and Upper Chitpore Road. The construction of the big storm water relief sewer which will drain an area of about 163 acres between Central Avenue and Strand Road has been completed in the sections between Central Avenue and Upper Chitpore Road. Scheme No. VIII provides for the last section of this main road, from Upper Chitpore Road to Strand Road.

The Suburban Areas to the South and South-East of Calcutta required greater attention and extensive development schemes were undertaken. Several open spaces and squares have been made in various parts. Insanitary tanks requiring approximately 2 crores C. ft. of earth have been filled up. Russa Road which forms the southern approach to the town has been widened to 150 ft for a length of one mile and 100 ft for a length of another mile. It now gives a most pleasant drive from Chowringhee to Tollygunge. To improve the drainage of this area a 100 ft. wide East to West road, from Ballygunge Railway Station to Ghatal,

Bridge, and for recreation an artificial lake of 187 bighas with adequate grounds has been completed.

Another small lake has also been completed and a road is being constructed round it to link up with the road surrounding the main lake. The road round the main lake has been surfaced with asphalt and lighted with electricity and is much frequented in the evenings. Sites for Club houses adjoining the main lake have been allotted to several clubs. Excavation has been continued in a new section of the lake which is to be attractively laid out with an island to which the public will have access by means of a footbridge. The Calcutta Tramways Co. Ltd. have now extended tram tracks from Russa Road along New Sewer Road to Daily gauge Station.

The Board of Trustees have framed a scheme for the extension southwards of Lansdown Road which has received Government sanction and steps are being taken for the acquisition of land. The Board has also framed a scheme known as Scheme No. XXXIII for the improvement of another section of the undeveloped area between Russa Road and the Lake District. This is pending sanction of Government.

To the east of the city several new roads have been constructed in Scheme No. VIII (New Ballygunge Road Park Circus to old Ballygunge Road). They are now open to traffic and the majority of them are surfaced with asphalt. Arrangements have been made for lighting the roads with electricity. The development of Calcutta east of Lower Circular Road, between Park Circus and Middle Road, is a pressing need, but the work can only proceed slowly in small sections. The Trust in the execution of this scheme cannot ignore the bustee dwellers who are pushed further east as the development from bustee conditions to blocks of masonry buildings proceeds. The utilisation of highly improved lands for bustee purposes is not an economic proposition but at the same time, it is necessary to provide the essentials of sanitation for the working class.

The linking up of Amberst Street with Loudon Street by a broad thoroughfare has commenced. The Trust is constructing a large park near Park Circus, Scheme No. VIII, known as Eastern Park, measuring 66 bighas. It will have a large playing field for football and tennis.

The public squares vested in the Calcutta Corporation in 1911 had a total area of about 96 acres. In 1912 Mr. Bompas the first Chairman of the Trust pointed out that in the ratio of about 9 per cent of its public open spaces which measured about 1,250 acres (including the Maidan, the Horticultural and the Zoological Gardens) to its total acreage Calcutta was almost on a par at that time with London possessing 6,675 acres of public parks or gardens while its percentage exceeded that of New York, Berlin and Birmingham. But about 1,000 acres of Calcutta's 1,250 was accounted for in the Maidan and new open spaces in other parts of Calcutta were an urgent need. Up to date the Trust had added (including the new lake at Dhakuria)—another 250 acres.

Lastly for the housing of the displaced population the Trust has undertaken on a large scale the following scheme:—

In the early stages three blocks of three storied tenement buildings containing 253 lettable rooms were built in Wards Institution Street for persons of the poorer classes. It was found, however, that the persons displaced preferred to take their compensation and migrate to some place where they could erect huts of their own, the class of structures they were accustomed to live in. These chawls were then filled with persons of limited means, e.g. School Masters, poor Students, Clerks and persons of the artisan class. As many as 1,200 people are housed in these chawls, these buildings including land, cost Rs. 2,44,368 and are let at very low rents—ground floor rooms at Rs. 5 per mensem and top floor rooms at Rs. 6 per mensem each room measuring 12 x 12 with a 4 ft verandah in front opening on to a central passage 7 ft wide. The total collection of rent during 1929-30 was 16,030.

As these chawls failed to attract the people for whom they were meant, the Board next tried an experiment in providing sites for bustees. Two sites with a lettable area of 16 bighas were acquired within the area of Maniktila Municipality, but they failed to attract because they were out of the way and were expensive.

KERBALA TANK LAMP RE-HOUSING SCHEME.—In this scheme 4 detached and 85 semi-detached houses were built. The detached houses were sold as this scheme never became popular with the class of tenants for whom they were originally intended. Owing to this unpopularity the Board further decided to throw open to tenants of all classes 18 out of the remaining 35 semi-detached houses. This change of policy however, produced no effect on the letting.

Owing to want of suitable tenants for the entire dwellings in Kerbala Tank Re-housing scheme had been sold by private sale shortly after the 31st March 1927.

BOW STREET RE-HOUSING SCHEME.—Seven blocks of buildings containing one roomed, two-roomed and three roomed suites have been constructed to re-house Anglo Indians displaced by the operations of the Trust. This scheme has proved a striking success. There are 132 suites for letting and the rent received from these suites during the year 1929-30, amounted to Rs. 38,636.

PAIKPARA RE-HOUSING SCHEME.—This scheme has an area of 36 bighas well laid out in 96 building sites. Further re-housing scheme has not been undertaken by the Trust but special facilities are offered to dislodged persons for securing land in various improved areas for reinstatement purposes.

BRIDGES.—Some progress has been made in replacing the old bridges of Calcutta, which is hemmed in by canals and railway lines inadequately bridged, by modern and up-to-date bridges to suit the growing traffic requirements. The opportunity is being taken of widening the Maniktila, Markandeya and Ballygunge Bridge approaches on both sides—on the west (in the case of Maniktila and Markandeya Bridges) right up to Circular Road. The new bridges of the city will in their traffic capacity compare favourably with those of London. The new Bridges at Maniktila, Ballygunge and at

Chandbazar have roadways of 37 feet, with two footpaths each 10 feet in width. The Chitpore Bridge for which estimates amounting to Rs. 64,000 have been sanctioned is to have the same traffic capacity as the new Kidderpore Bridge, viz. a roadway aggregating 60 feet in width with two footpaths each 10 feet wide. The Alipore Bridge, the reconstruction of which will shortly be taken in hand is to have a roadway of 30 feet (3 traffic widths) and 2 footpaths of 8 feet each and these are also to be the probable widths of the Tollgunge and Hastings Bridges which need re building. The Chelsea Hammermith and Waterloo Bridges have all over widths of 40.39 and 42 feet, respectively the roadways being 29.27 and 28 feet that is 3 traffic widths. Even London Bridge with an all-over width of 45 feet has only a 37 foot roadway (4 traffic widths) and Westminster Bridge which is 84

feet in width spans only 54 feet (i.e. 6 traffic widths like the 80 feet of Kidderpore Bridge for wheeled traffic.

FINANCIAL—Capital charges during the year 1929-30 amounted to Rs. 78 lakhs which included Rs. 65.32 lakhs spent on land acquisition and Rs. 10.21 lakhs on engineering works. A debenture loan of Rs. 2.5 lakhs was raised. The gross expenditure of the Trust on Capital Works up to the end of the year 1929-30 was Rs. 11,64,94,750. To meet this large expenditure the Trust has borrowed Rs. 2,98,50,000 other Capital receipts (mainly from the sale of land and buildings) have yielded Rs. 8,48,93,918 and the revenue fund from its annual surplus (after providing for the service of loans) has contributed nearly Rs. 3 crores to Capital Works.

BOMBAY IMPROVEMENT TRUST

The transfer of the Trust to the Municipality has been effected by an Act of Legislature called The City of Bombay Improvement Trust Transfer Act, 1925 (Bombay Act No. XVI of 1925). By virtue of this Act the powers and duties of the Trustees for the Improvement of the City of Bombay have been transferred and the property and rights belonging to the said Trustees have now been vested in the Municipal Corporation for the City of Bombay which is referred to as the Board, the President of the Corporation being also the President of the Board.

The execution of the powers and the performance of the duties vested in the Board is entrusted to a committee called the Improvements Committee subject to the general control of the Board. The Improvements Committee consists of eighteen members, that is to say fourteen elected members and four nominated members. Of the elected members eleven are elected by the Board, one by the Bombay Chamber of Commerce, one by Indian Merchants' Association and one by the Millowners' Association out of their own bodies respectively. The nominated members are appointed by Government by notification, three of them being chosen from among the following—

- (i) The Director of Development, Bombay
- (ii) The Chairman of the Bombay Port Trust
- (iii) the Collector of Bombay, and
- (iv) the Executive Engineer, Presidency District

and the fourth by Government to represent labour from among the members of the Board.

The Municipal Commissioner has the right of being present at a meeting of the Committee and of taking part in the discussions thereat but he shall not vote upon or make any proposition at the meeting. The Chief Officer, who is the Chief Executive Officer, is appointed by the Board subject to confirmation of Government. He has the same right of being present at a meeting of the Board and of the Committee and of taking part in the discussions thereat as a member of the said Board or Committee, but he

must not vote upon or make any proposition at such meeting. He exercises general supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the Board in matters of executive administration and is directly responsible to the Board.

The specific duties of the Trust are to construct new and widen old streets, open out crowded localities, construct sanitary dwellings (including those required for the Bombay City Police). The Trust derives its income from certain Government and Municipal lands vested in the Trust and the schemes it has undertaken. The Trust receives a contribution from Municipal revenues amounting to a definite share in the general tax receipts—approximating to 2 per cent on assessments and subject to no maximum. Works are financed out of loans raised by the Board. By the close of 1929-30 the Board had raised Rs. 16.19 lakhs by loans and their total capital receipts (including grants of Rs. 54 lakhs received from Government) amounted to Rs. 18.84 lakhs out of which they had spent Rs. 12.4 lakhs on the improvement of Government and Municipal lands temporarily vested in the Trust and Rs. 16.77 lakhs on their acquired estates and office buildings. The Trust have provided in their ghawls accommodation for 4,000 persons.

The present Chairman and members of the Improvements Committee are as follows—

Mr Jafferbhoy Abdoolabhoi Laljee, *Chairman*.

Mr O W E Arbuthnot, C.I.E., B.A. (R.F. 1), J.P.

A. F. Bahavala, B.A. Bar-at-Law

Dr J. A. Collaco, L.M. & S.

Capt J. Alban DeSouza, B.A., L.M. & S., I.M.S., M.L.O.

Mr J. W. Smyth, I.C.S.

Mr E. B. Rihlabhedra, J.P.

Mr Gordhandas G. Moraji

Mr Hoosenally M. Rahimtoola, B.A.

Mr K. F. Nariman, B.A., L.L.B.

Mr Mahomed Umer Hajab
 Mr Manu Subedar, B.A., B.Sc. (Econ),
 Bar-at Law
 Mr Mohanlal M. Desai B.A., LL.B.
 Dr Moreahwar Chintaman Javie, J.P.
 Mr W H Neilson O.B.E., V.D. M.I.C.E.
 M.I. Mech. E., J.P.
 Sir V. S. Anand Rao Dabholkar, Kt.,
 O.B.E., M.L.C., J.P.
 Mr Y G Pandit
 Municipal Commissioner—Mr A B Dalal,
 M.A., J.C.S. J.P.

Chief Officer—Mr H. B. Shrivastava, M.A.
 (Cantab)

Chief Accountant—Mr Narayan T Chawdhary
 Estate Agent—Mr H. G. Mhatte, L.C.W.,
 A.M.I.E.

Senior Assistant Engineer—Mr D. K. Baria
 L.C.E.

Trust Architect—Mr M. Framjee, L.R.I.B.A.,
 F.I.A.A., A.M.I.E., L.C.D.

The Indian Ports.

The administration of the affairs of the larger ports (*Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Singapore and Chittagong*) is vested by law in bodies specially constituted for the purpose. They have wide powers, but their proceedings are subject in a greater degree than those of municipal bodies to the control of Government. At all the ports the European members constitute the majority and the Board for Rangoon consists mainly of European members.

The income, expenditure and capital debt according to the latest figures obtainable from the Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics (India) of the six principal ports

managed by Trusts (Adon is excluded from the tables) are shown in the following table—

	Income.	Expenditure.	Capital Debt
	Rs	Rs	Rs
Calcutta	3,21,27,748	3,10,44,101	17,76,81,194
Bombay	2,97,27,130	2,90,16,859	22,60,68,465
Madras	26,12,361	30,85,982	1,41,14,721
Karachi	66,02,570	64,01,813	4,85,24,000
Rangoon	86,88,622	71,53,776	3,78,90,182
Chittagong	7,24,062	4,67,468	8,68,202

CALCUTTA.

The Commissioners for the Port of Calcutta are as follows—

Mr T H Elderton, Chairman

Mr W A Burns Deputy Chairman and
 Traffic Manager

Elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.—
 Mr C de M Kellock, (Messrs. Gillanders,
 Arbuthnot & Co.) Mr A L B Tucker, (Messrs
 Kilburn & Co.) A McE Ridd, M.L.C. (Messrs
 Gladstone Wyllie & Co.) Mr T W Dowling,
 (Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co.) Mr P H Brown
 O.B.E. (Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.)
 Mr J A Tasse, (Messrs. James, Finlay & Co.)

Elected by the Calcutta Trades Association.—
 Mr J H Wiggett, M.B.E., (Messrs T.E. Thomson
 & Co.)

Elected by the Bengal National Chamber of
 Commerce.—Dr Narendra Nath Law M.A.
 B.L., F.R.S., Ph.D. Mr Jadunath Roy Mr Nalin
 Banjan Sarkar, (The Hindustan Co-operative
 Insurance Society Ltd.)

Elected by the Indian Chamber of Commerce.—
 Mr G L Mehta (The Suddia Steam Navigation
 Co.)

Elected by the Municipal Corporation of
 Calcutta—Mr Sanat Kumar Roy Chowdhury
 M.B.E.

Nominated by Government—Mr V E D
 Jarrad, (Agent, Bengal Nagpur Railway), Mr
 G L Colvin O.B.C.M.D. D.S.O. (Agent, East
 Indian Riv.), Mr N Pearce (Agent Eastern
 Bengal Riv.) Mr M Stude I.C.S. (Collector of
 Customs) Capt H W B Livesey O.B.E., R.N.M.,
 (Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Dept.,
 Calcutta district)

The principal officers of the Trust are—

Traffic Manager.—Mr W A Burns.

Chief Accountant.—Mr N G Park, C.A.

Chief Engineer—Mr J R. Rowley, A.K.C.,
 M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator—Commander O V L.
 Norcock, O.B.E., R.N.

Medical Officer.—Lt.-Col. H. B. Steen,
 M.B. (on leave) Lt.-Col. W. L. Harnet
 M.B., F.R.C.S., L.M.S.

Consulting Engineer and London Agent.—Mr
 J. Angus, M. Inst. C.E.

The traffic figures and the income of the Trust for the last fifteen years are as follows —

Year	Docks.			Jetties	Stream		Net tonnage of shipping entering the Port.	Income
	General Exports	Coal Exports	Imports	Imports	Exports	Imports		
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons.	Tons	Tons.	Tons	Rs.
1914-15	920,659	2,633,805	700,183	917,978			3,714,344	1,41,20,349
1915-16	1,054,985	1,610,645	570,997	788,481			2,967,798	1,59,85,456
1916-17	1,185,159	1,994,528	444,210	686,010			2,804,880	1,67,93,482
1917-18	995,112	1,014,903	368,883	633,693			3,004,011	1,58,39,175
1918-19	1,007,502	1,333,280	492,403	575,833			2,292,462	1,00,63,513
1919-20	1,146,479	2,264,976	603,066	713,740			2,941,840	2,23,50,614
1920-21	1,133,710	3,048,400	413,847	685,080			4,017,014	2,68,08,032
1921-22	974,783	1,687,222	697,361	623,411			3,446,021	2,18,17,042
1922-23	1,414,166	1,174,041	804,109	680,053			3,386,722	2,64,73,822
1923-24	1,723,305	1,325,801	221,080	761,020			3,621,248	2,60,89,027
1924-25	1,779,054	1,496,915	290,412	874,714			3,845,788	2,78,23,364
1925-26	1,494,442	1,796,409	352,714	951,442	2,231,637	1,601,041	3,887,560	3,21,27,748
1926-27	1,460,354	2,476,794	455,577	903,297	2,344,800	1,513,585	4,177,118	3,12,02,183
1927-28	1,837,371	2,817,443	480,367	1,007,917	2,689,187	1,606,728	4,639,569	3,38,82,124
1928-29	1,750,969	2,644,258	1,164,631	1,049,068	2,524,201	1,708,559	4,818,831	3,41,82,729
1929-30	1,930,042	3,016,126	853,402	829,802	2,539,653	1,646,982	4,965,999	3,43,98,110

BOMBAY.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES—Nominated by Government—Mr W H Neilson O B E V D M Inst C E M I Mech E (Chairman) Sir Ernest Jackson Kt C I M Major General G A Weir C B C M O D S O Mr D S Burn M Inst T Mr T A Stewart, 108 Rear Admiral H T Walwyn, C B D S O, R N, Mr Syed Munawar Mr A R Dalal, I.C.S., and Mr C W E Arbuthnot, C.I.E.

Elected by the Chamber of Commerce—Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt, Mr E Miller Mr G L Winterbotham, Mr P Barker and Mr E G Reid

Elected by the Indian Merchants' Chamber—Sir Purnanotomas Thakurdas, Kt C I E M B M, Mr Devidas Madhownji Thakursey, Mr Lalji Naranjli Mr Lakshidas Rowjee Talraee and Mr Veilji Lakshams Nappoo

Elected by the Municipal Corporation for the City of Bombay—Mr Meyer Nissim and Mr Dastanahamed G Khatrias

Elected by the Millowners' Association—Mr. A. Gettin.

The following are the principal officers of the Trust —

Dy Chairman—W R S Sharpe M Inst T

SECRETARY'S DEPARTMENT

Secretary—N M Morris **Deputy Secretary** A S Bakro M A, Bar-at Law, **Head Clerk**, J D Mhatre

CHIEF ACCOUNTANT'S DEPARTMENT

Chief Accts C P Gay **Deputy Accts** J F Pereira, B A and W D Read, **Asst Accts**, W E McDonnell and R O Collyer, **Junior Asst Accts**, H W Scott and A N Moos. **Cashier**, V D Jog **By Auditor Inspectors** E Court, Palah, Bhikaji Ramchandra and M J Marzello **Supdt, Stores Accounts Branch**, O Hyde, **Supdt Establishment Branch**, A R Javeri

CHIEF ENGINEER'S DEPARTMENT

Chief Engineer, G E Bennett, M B O. M. Inst, C E M I Mech E **Deputy Chief Engineer**, A Hale-White M A, M I C E, **Executive Engineer**, F P G Carron, M Inst C E, G E Tenney, A. M. I. C. E., J A. Rolfe **Senior Asst Engineer**.

P M Varildar, J C N, F M Surveyor BSC (Glas), A M I C E, E L Everett, A M I C E, H N Barla LCM *Chief Draftsman*, L B Andrew, M L Struet n, *Personal Asst to the Chief Engineer* T B Hawkins, *Mechanical Superintendent* R. McMurray, M I Mech n, *Asst Mechanical Superintendents*, E B McGregor, A M I M E, E C Sharpe, A M I M E, S J Watt, J L M W O A Young, BSC, (Eng) *Chief Foreman*, A C Strolley, M I Mar n.

DOCKS MANAGER'S DEPARTMENT

Docks Manager C N Rich, B A *Deputy Docks Manager*, F A Borlasow W G H Tompkinson and F Seymour Williams DSO *Deputy Manager (Office)* P A Davies, *Asst Docks Manager 1st and Grade*, E C Jolley A Mattos L E Walsh F J Warder, K J Hall, D L Lynn C O A Martins P B Fenner Hanahoy Fraunl, Ardeshr Maneckji and J M Duarte *Cash Supervisor* T D Silva *Cashier*, Roberto Fernandez

RAILWAY MANAGER'S DEPARTMENT

Railway Manager D G M Meade *Deputy Railway Manager*, A. F Watts and H A Gaydon, *Asst. Railway Managers* S G N Shaw and P M Boyce *Asst. Traffic Supdt.* W H Brady, *Office Supdt.* Subrahmanya Raghuna than

PORT DEPARTMENT

Deputy Conservator, Commandr A G Kinch, DSO, R I M (Retired) *Senior Dock Master* Alexander Dock, C H Crile-Ross, *Dock Master* Alexander Dock, L G Worthington *Dock Master* Victoria Dock, A J Milnes, *Dock Master* France's Dock, F W Lloyd, *Port Department Inspector and Superintendent*, Police Bombay *Port Trust Harbour Patrol*, J Munster *Office Superintendent*, Moses Samuel

PILOT ESTABLISHMENT

Harbour Master, R Walker, *Master Pilot*, J W Hart and N E Davidson

PILOTS

G Robson, C T Wilson T L Williams J L Williams, G England C B M Thomas J S Nicholson R C Vint, A M. Thomson H W L T Davies, H H. Church, W E Brown, W L Friend, and R. H. Friendlander

LAND AND BUILDERS DEPARTMENT

Manager, F H Taylor P A J, M B E L *Deputy Manager*, B C Durant *Personal Asst to the Land Manager*, R G Deshmukh, B A, L L S, *Office Supdt.*, W O Brien, *Asst Managers*, B J Plunkett, W H Cummings and C P Watson *Chief Inspector*, G O Battonberg, *Head Clerk*, D A Pereira.

CONTROLLER OF STORES DEPARTMENT

Controller of Stores, H E Loe 1st Assistant, W J Wilson, 2nd Assistant, B F Davidson *Statistical Supdt.*, H L Barrett

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT

Administrative Medical Officer, Dr W Nunan, B A, M D, B O B *Medical Officer*, Dr F D Bane, M B, M R G A. (South District), Dr A D

Karkhanawalla, M B S (North District) *Superintendent*, Antop Village, Dr M Vijayakar, L M & S

The revenue of the Trust in 1929-30 amounted to Rs 2,91 07 182. The expenditure amounted to Rs 2 76 23 104. The result of the year's working was a surplus of Rs 3 21 093 under General Account which has been transferred to the Revenue Reserve Fund and a surplus of Rs 1 02 983 under Pilots Account. The balance of the Revenue Reserve Fund at the close of the year amounted to Rs 83 54,164. The aggregate capital expenditure during the year was Rs 20,16 690. The total debt of the Trust at the end of the year amounted to Rs 23,21 13 077.

The trade of the Port of Bombay during the last official year aggregated 237 crores in value

The following statement shows the number of steam and square rigged vessels which during recent years have entered the docks or been berthed at the harbour walls and paid dues excluding those which have remained for unloading and loading in the harbour stream—

Year	Number	Tonnage net
1911-12	1,519	2 767,913
1912-13	1 566	2 926 506
1913-14	1 579	3 135 597
1914-15	1,880	4,417 035
1915-16	1,794	3 939,721
1916-17	2 112	5,031 572
1917-18	2 069	4,740,578
1918-19	2,058	4 626 846
1919-20	2,164	4,874,820
1920-21	2,029	4 589 627
1921-22	2 123	4 895 968
1922-23	1,907	4,429 283
1923-24	2,044	4,661,904
1924-25	1,890	4,500,636
1925-26	1,894	4 570,038
1926-27	1,812	4,386,812
1927-28	2,027	4,864,344
1928-29	1,966	4,828,376
1929-30	1,966	4,895,325

The two dry docks were occupied during the year 1929-30 by 169 vessels, the total tonnage amounting to 562,504 tons which was less than the previous year by 98,091 tons

KARACHI.

The members of the Board of Trustees of the Port of Karachi are as follows —

Chairman—J B S Thubron C I E

Appointed by Government—G N Bower B A (Collector of Customs) C C T Breerton M B E (Divisional Superintendent North Western Railway) Major A G Armstrong 8th (K G O) Light Cavalry, I A Mir Ayub Khan, Barrister-at Law

Elected by the Karachi Chamber of Commerce—J R N Graham V C (Graham's Trading Co Ltd) A K G Hogg (Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co) E A Pearson, (Forbes Campbell & Co Ltd) J J Floukhart (Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co) (on leave) E L Price C I E O B M Bar-at-Law (Cooper & Co) (Acting)

Elected by the Karachi Indian Merchants Association—Lokamal Chellaram, Lala Jaswantrao Chauramani, M A

Elected by the Buyers and Shippers Chamber—Janshed N E Mohita, (Vice-Chairman elected by the Board) Haridas Lalji

Elected by the Karachi Municipality—Tikandas Wadhwanji, M A (Oxon) Barrister-at Law

The Principal Officers of the Trust are —

Chief Engineer—W P Shepherd Barron M I E E C E

Deputy Chief Engineer—H A L French, I E E T O E

Chf of Accountant—B A Englet, B A, C A

Traffic Manager—A A L Flynn

Deputy Conservator—J A Scott

Chief Storekeeper—R A Dond

Secretary—L J Maccaenhus

The Revenue receipts and expenditure of the Port of Karachi for the year 1929-30 were as under —

Revenue receipts (excluding the Port Fund Account) Rs 67,41,682 Revenue Expenditure Rs 68,09,800 Deficit Rs 68,118 Reserve Fund Rs 45,10,990

The number of vessels which entered the Port during the year 1929-30 exclusive of vessels put back and fishing boats was 2,808 with a tonnage of 2,603,231 as against 2,960 with a tonnage of 2,677,826 in 1928-29. 937 steamers of all kinds entered the Port with a tonnage of 2,495,730 against 967 and 2,670,117 respectively in the previous year. Of the above, 727 were of British nationality.

Imports landed at the Ship Wharves during the year totalled 645,509 tons against 720,566 tons in the previous year. Total discharges from the Ship Wharves were 425,026 tons in 1929-30 against 660,988 tons in 1928-29.

MADRAS.

The following gentlemen are the Trustees of the Port of Madras —

Officials—G G Armstrong O B E M O V D M I E E T Chairman and Traffic Manager F Buckney (Collector of Customs) and Capt E H Marwood, R I M (Presidency Port Officer)

Non-Officials—(1) Nominated by Government C C Fink P Rothera, O B E M I E E (2) Representing Chamber of Commerce Madras—G W Chambers A S Todd, L D Denniston (3) Representing Southern India Chamber of Commerce Madras—M E Ry Diwan Bahadur Govindas Chathoorboodjados Garu, The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur G Narayanaswamy Chetty Garu C I E (4) Representing Madras Trades Association—J M. Bmth (5) Representing Southern India Skin and Hide Merchants Association—M B Ry Diwan Bahadur M Balasundaram Naidu Garu (6) Representing Madras Piece goods Merchants Association—K M A Rasheed Sahib

Principal Officers are—Chief Engineer, W Ayte, M I E E C E, M I, Struct M Executive Engineer, G P Alexander, A M I E E C E, Mechanical and Electrical

Engineer, Major E G Bowers, M O M I E E, A I E O, Assistant Mechanical Engineer S W White M I M A E A M I S A, Executive Engineer, Rao Bahadur K Ganapathi Kudwa A V I B A B C M Assistant Engineer, V Dayanada Kamath, B A B M Assistant Engineer, S Nagabushnam B A, M M Assistant Engineer, (Electrical), K Subramania Iyer, M E Grad, I E E, Deputy Traffic Manager, J G Lord, Assistant Traffic Managers F W Stooke and James Chance, Chief Accountant Rao Bahadur S NarayanaIyay, M A, Deputy Chief Accountant, V SundaramanIyay Chetty, Deputy Chief Accountant (Engineering), V Sundaramani Ayer, B A Office Manager, G M Ganapathi Iyer

The receipts of the Trust during the year on Revenue account from all sources were Rs 45,81,021 as against 49,66,974 in 1928-29 and the gross expenditure out of revenue was Rs 45,35,928 of which a sum of Rs. 2,30,000 represents the amount transferred from revenue balances to the credit of certain Reserve funds created in 1923-29. 878 vessels with an aggregate net registered tonnage of 2,061,861 tons, called at the port during the year against last year's figure of 896 vessels with a net registered tonnage of 2,075,028 tons.

RANGOON.

The personnel of the Commissioners for the Port of Rangoon is comprised of seventeen members—

Appointed by Government—J A Cherry, C.I.E. M.L.C. (Chairman) J R D Glascoth C.I.E. (Vice-Chairman) T Cormack Captain F C H Lane R.I.M. (Principal Port Officer) and A B Mallott

Ex-officio—Messrs C F Grant I.C.E. (Chairman) Rangoon Development Trust, A B Bennett (Collector of Customs) and J R D Glascoth, C.I.E., (Agent, Burma Railways)

Elected by the Burma Chamber of Commerce—Messrs M L Burnet C G Wodehouse, The Honble K B Harper (on leave), R B Howison M.L.C. and A A Bruce

Elected by the Rangoon Trades Association—L. A. Heath

Elected by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce—Lee Boon Tin

Elected by the Burma Indian Chamber of Commerce—A Chandoo and B T Thakur

Elected by the Burmese Chamber of Commerce—U Thein Mann, B.A., M.M.F. (on leave) and U Aye Mann

Elected by the Rangoon Municipal Corporation—M M. Ohn Ghine, M.L.C. (on leave) and U Ba Gray

Principal Officers are—

Secretary—C Wicheer

Chief Accountant—D H James, A.C.A.

Chief Engineer—E C Niven, M. Inst., C.E.

Deputy Conservator—H N Gilbert

Traffic Manager—E J B Jeffery

Port Surveyor—Commander C M. L. Scott, R.N. (Retd.)

The income and expenditure on revenue account for the Port of Rangoon in 1929-30 were—

	Rs.
Income	82,10,981
Expenditure	82,74,855

The capital debt of the Port at the end of the year was Rs 5,18,64,842. The balance (including investments at cost) at the credit of the different sinking funds on 31st March 1930 was Rs 1,00,84,052.

The total sea-borne trade of Rangoon during the year 1929-30 was 5,618,732 tons of which 1,725,412 tons were imports, 3,875,892 tons exports and 17,928 tons transshipment. The tonnage of goods passed over the Commissioners' premises during the year amounted to 3,540,218 tons. The total number of steamers (excluding Government vessels) entering the Port was 1,789 with a total net registered tonnage of 4,540,783 being an increase of 82 steamers and 290,404 tons in net tonnage over that of the previous year.

CHITTAGONG

Chittagong in Eastern Bengal, lying on the right bank of the river Karnafuli at a distance of 12 miles from the sea, was already an important Port in the sixteenth century when the Portuguese gave it the name of Porto Grande.

The construction of the Assam Bengal Railway has facilitated the transport of trade with Assam and Eastern Bengal for which the Port of Chittagong is the natural outlet.

The chief exports are tea and jute and imports piece-goods, salt, oil and machinery.

FOREIGN TRADE 1929-30	Rs (in lakhs)
Imports	(a) 205.90
Exports	(b) 664.48
COASTING TRADE 1929-30	
Imports	(c) 811.47
Exports	(d) 110.98

PORT COMMISSIONERS.

Chairman—A. R. Leishman, V.D.

Vice-Chairman—H. E. Wilkinson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Commissioners—Commander C. R. Binnett, R.I.M., L. R. Lane, E. L. Blise, V.D., I. M. Hooper, J. W. G. Horne, J. Richardson, Lal Mohan Choudhury, Rai Upendra Lal Roy Bahadur, B.L., Sarash Chandra Banerjee, Khan Sahib Abdul Haque Dostah.

Secretary to the Port Commissioners—Commander C. R. Binnett R.I.M.

Port Engineer—F. J. Green, B.Sc., A.M.I.C.E., M.I.E.S., M.I. Struct. E.

Vessels of 25 feet draught can be accommodated during the greater part of the year at four jetties which are fitted with modern equipment and capable of quick despatch.

Two additional jetty berths will shortly be constructed.

Considerable improvement in the depths of the navigable channels of the Karnafuli River has been effected by dredging operations and River training works. Further training works are now being carried out.

VIZAGAPATAM HARBOUR PROJECT

The question of creating a harbour at Vizagapatam to supply an outlet for a large area of fertile country adjacent to the east coast of India hitherto undeveloped, with considerable mineral resources and without suitable access to the outside world, was first formulated by the Bengal Nagpur Railway Company. That the creation of such a port would have a beneficial influence on this area was unquestioned for it is pointed out that Vizagapatam lying as it does in front of the only practicable gap in the barrier of the Eastern Ghats, is formed by nature to be the outlet of the Central Provinces, from which a considerable amount of trade has taken this route in the past, even with the imperfect communications, hitherto available. A necessary complement of the scheme is the construction of the proposed railway from Parvatipuram to Raipur which with the existing coast line of the Bengal Nagpur Railway would make a large and rich area tributary to the proposed port and obviate the long and expensive circuit by Calcutta. A link would also be supplied in the most direct route to Rangoon from Europe by way of Bombay while from an imperial point of view, the possible provision of a fortified port on the long and almost unprotected stretch of coast between Colombo and Calcutta is held to be a consideration of great importance. The lofty projecting headland of the Dolphin's Nose would offer facilities for this purpose as well as for protecting the entrance to the port from the effect of south and southwesterly gales.

The Government of India have with the approval of the Secretary of State and the Legislative Assembly sanctioned the construction of the new railway line from Raipur to Parvatipuram and the work is in progress. They have also decided to develop the port of Vizagapatam under their direct control and the port has accordingly been declared to be a Major Port.

The scheme for the construction and development of the harbour will be carried out by progressive stages according to the demands of trade. The first stage which is now in process of construction consists of a wharf containing three deep water steamer berths each of 550 feet in length and dredged to a depth of 80 feet one of which is being equipped for mechanical loading of manganese ore while the other two will be equipped with transit sheds and a passenger waiting room will be provided in the vicinity for the convenience of Rangoon passengers. In continuation of this wharf a lightering berth and deep water moorings for three additional steamers will be provided. A separate deep water berth is being provided on the south side of the creek and separated by the width of the harbour from the produce quays at which oil tankers can berth to discharge their oil by pipes into tanks in a depot.

The estimated cost of the first section is about 300 lakhs and the time required to complete it will depend on the period that dredging and reclamation work will take. It is anticipated however, that it will be possible to berth ships in the new harbour sometime in 1932.

The work is being carried out by a staff of engineers under direct charge of an Engineer-in-Chief who comes under the administrative charge of the Agent Bengal Nagpur Railway who is *ex officio* Administrative Officer for the development scheme. An advisory committee consisting of the above-mentioned officers and representatives of the Local Government, the Vizagapatam port administration and the commercial interests concerned has also been constituted to advise in the development of the harbour.

Excellent progress has been made with the scheme and a considerable area of the inner harbour has already been dredged to a depth of 30 feet and a large area of land has already been reclaimed. The quay wall for the manganese berth and the produce berth is completed. Schemes for sewage and town planning have been prepared in consultation with the Municipality and a malaria survey of the suburban area has been completed. Arrangements have also been made with the Municipality for the supply of water to the harbour area during construction.

In addition to the Suction Dredger a Rock Breaker and Dipper Dredger is at work in the Entrance Channel removing the rock and hard overlay, and a Dragline Dredger for dredging such areas as can be reached from the shore.

Although it is anticipated that the completion of the inner harbour and its approaches to the point where ocean going vessels can be admitted will not be until 1932, it is hoped that a sufficient depth of water will be available over the bar and right up to the quays to permit trade being transferred to the new quays of the inner harbour by the end of 1930. It will then be possible to carry cargo between the quays and steamers lying in the roads by means of lighters and tugs. The effect of this change will be that proper quays, adequate storage and proper railway facilities will be available in place of the meagre facilities now available on the old wharf while the carriage of cargo between steamers and shore will be effected by means of lighters of approximately 50 tons capacity instead of by the present surf boats with a capacity of only 2½ tons per boat. It is therefore apparent that the facilities available for trade during this intermediate stage will be substantially greater than they have been in the past.

Education.

Indian education is unintelligible except through its history. Seen thus, it affords the spectacle of a growth which, while to one it will appear as a blunder based on an initial error easily avoided, to another it stands out as a symbol of sincerity and honest endeavour as the part of a far-sighted race of rulers whose aim has been to guide a people alien in sentiments and prejudices into the channels of thought and attitude best calculated to fit them for the needs of modern life and western ideals. There is to-day no subject in the whole area of administrative activity in India which presents greater complexities and differences of opinion than education. Government, local bodies and private persons of learning have in the past devoted their limited funds to meeting the demands of those who perceived the benefits of education, rather than to cultivating a desire for education where it did not exist. The result is that the structure has become top-heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate, while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of numbers at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. There have however, in recent years been strong movements, leading to the passing of Primary Education Acts in several Provinces in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses.

The Introduction of Western Learning—In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings the dominating figure of the time, was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people. Even the Act of 1813 which set apart a lakh of rupees for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences was interpreted as a scheme for the encouragement of Sanskrit and Arabic. In the following year the Court of Directors instructed the Governor-General to leave the Hindus "to the practice of usage, long established among them, of giving instruction in their own homes, and to encourage them in the exercise and cultivation of their talents by the stimulus of honorary marks of distinction and in some cases by grants of pecuniary assistance."

It was from sources other than Government that the desire for western knowledge arose in India. In 1816, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the enlightened Brahmin, Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The new institution was distrusted both by Christian missionaries and by orthodox Hindus, but its influence grew apace. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported

that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. In Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution was founded in memory of the great ruler who left India in 1827. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe. Many pronounced the failure of the undertaking to be inevitable, for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This obstacle was surmounted by Ma-dusudan Gupta who, with a few courageous pupils, began the dissection of a human body. From that time onward Indians of the highest castes have devoted themselves with enthusiasm and with success to the study of medicine in all its branches.

Another impetus to the introduction of western learning was the devotion of Christian missionaries. The humanitarian spirit, which had been kindled in England by Wesley, Burke and Wilberforce, influenced action also in India. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1816 and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India by his insistence on teaching rather than on preaching, and by the foundation of his school and College in Calcutta. In Madras the missionaries had been still earlier in the field, for as early as in 1797 a small group of missionary schools were being directed by Mr Schwarz. The Madras Christian College was opened in 1837. In Bombay, the Wilson School (afterwards College) was founded in 1834.

Lord William Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks the somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined while observing a neutrality in religious matters to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of western learning to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected, still less that the development of the vernaculars should be discouraged. Other changes powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the press was established in 1835, English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1857 and in 1844 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received a western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India, and, though the Muhammadans still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Fortunately there has been of late a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need of improving the instructional level of their co-religionists, and in many of the provinces of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muhammadan community is now noticeable.

GROWTH AND ORGANISATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instructions were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch also broke away from the practice followed since 1835 whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions.

Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection, beginning from the humblest elementary institution and ending with the university test of a liberal education would impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual but steady extension of its benefits to all classes of people. Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay three years later. The smilling type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis. It did much, through the agency of its Colleges, to develop backward places. It accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education, and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates; they were not concerned with learning except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses; their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy; and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In certain important respects the recommendations in the despatch were not followed. The Directors did not intend that university tests, as such, should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts; they also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. They did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions; they recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. They were aware of the dangers of a too literary course of instruction; they hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop the vast resources of their country, and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce. The encouragement of the grant-in-aid system was

advocated to an even greater extent by the Education Commission of 1883, which favoured the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort. In theory the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in the course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the duty of granting recognition to schools and the Departments of Public Instruction were encouraged to cast a blind eye on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions. There can be little wonder that, under such a system of neglect and short-sightedness, evils crept in which are now being removed gradually by the establishment of independent Boards of Intermediate Education charged with the administration of the high school and intermediate stages of education.

The Reforms of 1902-4

In 1902, the Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities and the part of the universities over the schools and colleges. The Chancellors of the Universities were empowered to nominate 80 per cent of the ordinary members of the Senates and to approve the election of the remainder. The Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment, and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects; but their scope was in practice limited to post-graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined so that universities were precluded from any connection with institutions lying outside those boundaries. Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system. They did not inquire whether the smilling system could be replaced by any other mode of organisation, nor whether all schools might be placed under some public authority which would be representative of the universities and of the departments. They assumed the permanent validity of the existing system, in its main features, and set themselves only to improve and to strengthen it.

Statement of Educational Progress in British India.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	1,602,458	1,692,347	1,901,454	1,091,359	1,091,358	1,091,355
Population	128,619,292	126,914,196	127,044,923	127,044,923	127,044,923	127,044,923
Male	130,187,506	129,189,210	129,288,470	129,288,470	129,288,470	129,288,470
Female	247,107,941	247,097,506	247,356,453	247,356,453	247,356,453	247,356,453
Total Population	156	169	196	213	217	223
Recognized Institutions for Males	2,157	2,204	2,398	2,444	2,497	2,546
Number of art colleges	2,289	2,365	2,570	2,607	2,654	2,704
Number of high schools*	3,433	3,533	4,401	4,725	5,154	5,496
English						
Vernacular						
Number of primary schools	144,430	150,919	157,350	162,666	168,648	171,884
Male Scholars in Recognized Institutions	59,314	63,189	67,063	70,085	71,051	72,466
In art colleges (a)	631,977	664,593	710,077	739,375	766,078	808,613
In high schools *	287,807	302,800	323,010	347,483	360,820	404,067
English	360,776	416,049	508,676	583,062	606,589	680,167
Vernacular						
In primary schools	2,890,820	3,983,260	4,364,437	6,707,479	7,081,454	7,213,518
Percentage of male scholars in Recognized Institutions to male population	5.72	6.06	6.8	6.9	7.26	7.49
Recognized Institutions for Females	14	16	19	10	10	19
In art colleges †	237	336	288	211	263	278
Number of high schools*	257	252	276	280	295	314
English	391	416	457	432	417	459
Vernacular	22,538	24,677	26,814	29,652	28,651	30,502

* High schools include vernacular high schools also in some provinces

† Includes Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges of the new type

(a) Includes scholars in University Departments and the newly Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges.

Statement of Educational Progress in British India—contd.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29
<i>Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In Arts colleges (a)	1,622	1,807	1,881	1,933	2,099	2,280
In high schools—	44,170	47,590	51,560	54,889	62,776	69,549
English	37,111	31,630	34,900	36,808	43,487	46,545
Vernacular	7,059	79,138	87,424	98,816	23,886	103,509
In primary schools	1,264,814	1,324,002	1,434,639	1,549,281	1,681,414	1,800,073
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population.	1.10	1.24	1.35	1.46	1.58	1.68
<i>Female Scholars in recognised institutions</i>						
Total	2,240,240	2,488,901	2,908,144	3,177,759	3,940,385	4,515,109
Male	1,484,747	1,497,510	1,824,559	1,761,411	1,890,896	2,032,388
Female	8,077,063	9,166,411	9,662,708	10,629,860	17,160,166	11,247,487
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions</i>						
Percentage of total scholars to population.	6.15	6.47	6.93	7.33	7.70	7.89
Male	1,36	1.31	1.43	1.53	1.66	1.74
Female	3.77	3.96	4.25	4.51	4.78	4.93
<i>Number of Pupils in Class IV</i>						
Male	672,412	668,845	710,895	767,921	803,155	867,409
Female	9,74,76	9,98,02	10,88,68	11,93,33	12,86,82	13,18,40
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From provincial revenue	1,70,29	1,50,58	1,90,00	2,42,70	2,52,71	2,59,25
From local funds	86,54	92,68	1,27,33	1,23,21	1,80,17	1,34,89
From municipal funds	12,31,59	12,71,28	14,14,96	15,59,24	16,45,80	17,13,24
Total expenditure from public funds	4,33,54	4,89,82	4,92,87	5,21,27	5,44,72	5,78,16
From fees	2,35,97	2,47,47	2,70,29	2,77,97	2,92,26	3,16,90
From other sources	1,91,11	20,47,48	23,77,82	24,55,49	25,88,78	27,07,33
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE						

* High Schools include vernacular high schools also in some provinces

† (a) Includes scholars in University Departments and in the newly started Intermediate and Second Grade colleges.

Recent Developments

Government of India Resolutions on Indian Educational Policy.—The Indian Universities Act of 1904 was followed by two important resolutions of the Government of India on Indian Educational Policy—one in 1904 and the other in 1913. The resolution of 1904 was comprehensive in character and reviewed the state of education in all its departments. The following passage from it summarises the intentions of Government.—The progressive devolution of primary, secondary and collegiate education upon private enterprise and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Educational Commission in 1883 and the advice has generally been acted upon. But while accepting this policy the Government of India at the same time recognise the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education. In withdrawing from direct management it is further essential that Government should retain a general control, by means of efficient inspection over all public educational institutions. The comprehensive instructions contained in this resolution were followed in the next few years by the assignment to the provinces of large Imperial grants, mainly for University, technical and elementary education. The resolution of 1913 advocated *inter alia* the establishment of additional but smaller Universities of the teaching type. It reaffirmed the policy of reliance on private effort in secondary education. It recommended an increase in the salaries of teachers and an improvement in the amounts of grants-in-aid and it insisted on proper attention being paid to the formation of character in the education given to scholars of all grades. It further discussed the desirability of imparting manual instructions and instruction in hygiene, the necessity for medical inspection, the provision of facilities for research, the need for the staffing of the girl's schools by women teachers and the expansion of facilities for the training of teachers. The policy outlined in 1913 materially accelerated progress in the provinces, but the educational developments foreshadowed were in many cases delayed owing to the effects of the Great War.

Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Government of India.—In 1910 a Department of Education was established in the Government of India with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council. The first Member was Sir Herbert Butler. In 1925, the activities of the Department were widened, in the interests of economy, by absorption in it of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture. The enlarged Department has been designated the Department of Education, Health and Lands. Sir Fazlul Husain and Sir Frank Noyce are the present Member and Secretary, respectively. The Department possesses an educational adviser styled Educational Commissioner.

The present Educational Commissioner is Mr R. Littlehales, C.I.E. M.A.

Calcutta University Commission.—The Report of the Calcutta University Commission was published in August 1919 and in the following January the Government of India issued a Resolution summarising the main features of the Report and the recommendations of the Commissioners.

The Government of India drew special attention to the following points in the Report—

- (i) High schools fail to give that breadth of training which the developments of the country and new avenues of employment demand.
- (ii) The intermediate section of University education should be recognised as part of school education and should be separated from the University organisation.
- (iii) The defects of the present system of affiliated colleges may be mitigated by the establishment of a strong central teaching body, the incorporation of military universities (as occasion arises), a modification of the administrative machinery which will admit of fuller representation of local interests, and supervision of different classes of institutions by several appropriately constituted bodies.

The Commission gave detailed suggestions for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University, for the control of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal and for the establishment of a unitary teaching University in Dacca. These measures concerned only Bengal but it was generally recognised that some of the criticism made by the Commissioners admit of a wider application. Committees were consequently appointed by the Universities of Madras, Bombay, Patna and the Punjab to consider the findings of the Commission. In the United Provinces two committees were appointed, one to prepare a scheme for a unitary teaching University at Lucknow, the second to consider measures for the reorganisation of the Allahabad University and the creation of a Board to control secondary and intermediate education.

In Bengal the first outcome of the Commission's Report was the passing of the Dacca University Act in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920 mentioned in detail elsewhere. It is remarkable that the University which appears to have been least affected by the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission has been the Calcutta University itself. In spite of many discussions and draft proposals by both the University and the Government the organisation of the Calcutta University has remained unaffected.

The Reforms Act.—The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject in the Governors' provinces and is, in each such Province, under the charge of a Minister. There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things. The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, i.e., it is not within the charge

of the Minister of Education, and to the Government of India are still reserved matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Banaras and Delhi and all such new universities as may be declared by the Governor-General in Council to be central subjects. The Government of India are also in charge of the Chiefs' Colleges and of all institutions maintained by the Governor-General in Council for the benefit of members of His Majesty's Forces or of other public servants or of the children of such members or servants.

Administration.—The transfer of Indian education to the charge of a Minister responsible to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he himself is an elected member, has brought the subject directly under popular control in the also major provinces. Generally speaking education excluding European education, is not, however under the charge of a single Minister, certain forms of education have been transferred to the technical departments concerned and come within the purview of the Minister in charge of those departments. In each province the Director of Public Instruction is the administrative head of the Department of Education and acts as adviser to the Education Minister. He controls the inspecting staff and the teaching staff of Government institutions and is generally responsible to the local government for the administration of education. The authority of Government, in controlling the system of public instruction is in part shared with and in part delegated to Universities as regards higher education and to local bodies as regards elementary and vernacular education. In some provinces boards of secondary or of secondary and intermediate education have also been set up and have to some extent relieved the Universities in those provinces of their responsibilities in connection with intermediate education and with entrance to a University course of studies. Institutions under private management are controlled by Government and by local bodies by recognition and by the payment of grants in aid, with the assistance of the inspecting staffs employed by Government and in rarer cases by local bodies.

Educational Services.—Until recently, the educational organisation in India consisted mainly of three services—(i) the Indian Educational Service, (ii) the Provincial Educational Service, and (iii) the Subordinate Educational Service. The Indian Educational Service came into existence as a result of the recommendations made by the Public Services Commission of 1886, and in 1896 the Superior Educational Service in India was constituted with two divisions—the Indian Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in England and the Provincial Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in India. These two divisions were originally considered to be collateral and equal in status though the pay of the European recruit was higher by approximately 50 per cent than the pay of the Indian recruit. Gradually, however, status came to be considered identical with pay and the Provincial Educational Service came to be regarded of inferior status to the Indian Educational Service. Later as a result of the recommendations of the Allington Commission of 1913-16, the Indian Educational Service was formed into a superior educational

service and all posts were thrown open to Indian recruitment. The Provincial Educational Service was simultaneously reorganised and a number of posts, generally with their Indian incumbents were transferred to the superior service. This reorganisation resulted in a considerable Indianisation of the superior educational services in India. It was then laid down that the proportion of Indians in this service should on an average be 50 per cent of the total strength, excluding the posts in Burma.

In 1924, all recruitment to the Indian Educational Service was stopped as a result of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the superior services in India. The Commission recommended that "for the purposes of local Governments no further recruitment should be made to the all India services which operate in transferred fields. The personnel required for these branches of administration should in future be recruited by local Governments. The Commission further recommended in regard to the question of the future recruitment of Europeans that it will rest entirely with the local Governments to determine the number of Europeans who may in future be recruited. In this matter the discretion of local Government must be unsheltered but we express the hope that Ministers on the one hand will still seek to obtain the co-operation of Europeans in these technical departments and that qualified Europeans on the other hand may be no less willing to take service under local Governments than they were in the past to take service under the Secretary of State. As a result of the acceptance of these recommendations the Indian Educational Service is dying out and with the gradual retirement of its existing members, the history of the service which has had a brief but fine record will be brought to an end. The present organisation of education in the provinces is largely the work of members of this service while in the sphere of higher education it has trained many men of more than ordinary attainments.

The new Provincial Educational Services which will eventually function under provincial control as the superior educational services, are in course of reorganisation and schemes have been approved for several provinces. These schemes vary from province to province, but it may be generally remarked that, while the rates of pay are not uniform, they consist of two main classes—class I into which the existing Indian Educational Services have been merged for the time being and class II which may be said to represent the old Provincial Educational Service.

The existing Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services in the provinces have been affected, more in some provinces than others, by the changes which have taken place since 1919. Communal interests have influenced recruitment, and in some places they have influenced promotions also, in a direction which has not always tended towards service contentment. But these results are the natural consequences of the devolution of control of education and power of recruitment to provincial and local authorities and will for some time continue to affect the efficiency of the Education Departments in the provinces.

Statistical Progress

The two tables given below afford useful comparisons with previous years and serve to illustrate the growth and expansion of education in India

(a) STUDENTS.

Year.	In Recognised Institutions			In All Institutions (Recognised and Unrecognised).		
	Males	Girls	Total	Males	Girls	Total
1901-02	3,492,335	393,155	3,886,493	4,077,430	444,470	4,521,900
1906-07	4,164,832	579,648	4,744,480	4,743,604	645,023	5,388,627
1911-12	5,253,065	875,960	6,129,025	5,822,182	952,559	6,774,741
1916-17	6,050,540	1,156,488	7,207,028	6,421,527	1,290,419	7,711,946
1921-22	6,401,434	1,340,862	7,742,296	6,962,979	1,418,422	8,381,401
1926-27	8,777,739	1,751,611	10,529,350	9,315,140	1,842,356	11,157,496
1927-28	9,260,266	1,899,890	11,160,156	9,778,737	1,996,445	11,775,222
1928-29	9,515,109	2,032,888	11,547,997	10,028,066	2,187,753	12,215,819

(b) EXPENDITURE.

Year	Total expenditure on education in British India	
	Public Funds	Total.
	Rs	Rs
1901-02	1,77,03,968	4,01,21,463
1906-07	2,98,84,574	5,59,02,573
1911-12	4,05,22,072	7,85,32,801
1916-17	5,14,80,471	11,28,62,068
1921-22	11,49,61,178	18,87,52,969
1926-27	15,59,23,968	24,58,47,572
1927-28	16,45,80,913	25,82,78,819
1928-29	17,12,24,514	27,07,22,233

In 1927-28, the total expenditure on education in British India amounted to Rs. 27,07,22,233 of which 48.7 per cent. came from Government funds, 14.6 per cent. from Board funds, 21.8 per cent. from fees and 15.4 per cent. from other sources. In spite of this marked advance there is much to be done to make up, as in the last census report the literate population of India was only 72 per thousand males and females per thousand is

The cost per scholar amounted to Rs. 28-7-1 as follows: Govt. funds Rs. 11-8-8, to local funds Rs. 8-5-7, to fees Rs. 5-0-1 and to other sources Rs. 3-8-0.

The following table provides an interesting and valuable comment on the state of education in India 1926-27. Although the statistical returns show more than 11 millions of pupils at school, it will be seen that over 75 per cent. of these are in the lower primary stage, and it may be safely deduced that over 80 per cent. of those at school never become literate. Of course, the total number of pupils at school is not a safe criterion of the state of education, and a sounder standard of comparison would be that number multiplied by the average period spent at school.

SCHOLARS BY CLASSES AND AGES (QUINQUENNIAL) IN 1926-27

Class	Primary					Middle					High					Totals
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII				
Age--																
Below 5	192,329	1,491	44	2										193,866		
5 to 6	968,187	53,466	1,995	48		2								1,022,718		
6 to 7	1,306,612	186,166	25,669	1,532	87	3								1,520,069		
7 to 8	1,068,902	307,614	113,532	20,417	1,435	172	6							1,507,188		
8 to 9	711,696	325,063	187,598	67,378	11,964	1,492	157	14	5					1,305,360		
9 to 10	430,117	271,764	219,167	112,031	43,828	9,054	942	86	2	1				1,086,537		
10 to 11	253,742	193,350	200,793	145,647	70,705	28,229	7,147	874	27	9				899,619		
11 to 12	140,655	126,777	158,912	140,944	88,670	47,410	28,280	5,438	439	40				719,835		
12 to 13	78,647	72,609	100,238	113,671	76,794	57,125	37,841	81,739	3,925	865	31			553,290		
13 to 14	42,484	38,655	58,971	76,887	60,710	50,769	42,353	23,914	13,607	3,128	809	6		413,635		
14 to 15	24,804	20,255	20,790	43,119	38,718	37,571	36,680	28,555	18,277	11,418	2,528	88		291,303		
15 to 16	14,707	10,629	14,293	21,215	21,494	23,308	27,329	24,729	19,592	16,475	10,044	459		204,466		
16 to 17	11,584	7,625	7,538	10,552	10,175	13,880	17,942	16,961	15,605	16,128	13,077	1,153		141,629		
17 to 18	9,090	5,820	4,855	5,296	4,308	6,454	9,682	10,321	10,504	13,209	11,035	2,052		92,098		
18 to 19	7,475	4,926	3,137	2,790	1,576	2,648	4,044	5,042	6,078	8,761	7,941	3,268		57,551		
19 to 20	8,288	4,894	3,168	1,928	859	958	2,186	2,474	2,920	5,183	6,064	2,034		39,922		
Over 20	16,737	11,164	6,844	3,937	904	590	1,235	1,393	1,699	3,637	4,580	2,786		55,566		
Total	5,279,999	1,687,978	1,130,791	767,584	426,827	279,355	211,234	140,580	92,662	78,704	54,609	10,806		10,111,079		

* Excludes 5,436 scholars not shown by classes and ages in Assam, of whom 827 scholars have already been excluded in tables IV-A & IV-B.

SCHOLARS BY CLASSES AND AGES (QUINQUENNIAL) IN 1926-27—

Class.	INTERMEDIATE			DIPLOMA			POST GRADUATE			Total	Grand Total
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year	6th year	7th year (a)				
Age Below 5											183,800
5 to 6											1,022,718
6 to 7											1,520,069
7 to 8											1,607,108
8 to 9											1,805,360
9 to 10											1,086,687
10 to 11											809,619
11 to 12											719,585
12 to 13	1									1	559,281
13 to 14	2		1							3	413,868
14 to 15	64		5							69	291,872
15 to 16	949		141			2				1,092	206,688
16 to 17	3,788	1,006	35	8						4,832	146,482
17 to 18	4,802	3,843	352	105	1					9,103	101,199
18 to 19	5,973	5,384	1,770	807	14	19				11,767	86,318
19 to 20	2,709	4,339	2,795	2,208	41	14				12,605	52,538
Over 20	2,510	5,714	5,254	8,793	1,456	1,357	273			25,857	80,923
Total	18,796	20,983	10,208	11,716	1,812	1,390	273			64,880	10,175,909

(a) Including research students
 (b) Excludes 25 post-graduate students reading Law only in Bihar and Orissa
 (c) " 20 post-graduate students reading Law only in Bihar and Orissa
 (d) 19 Prajish University Research students
 (e) 748 foot-note (b) to table IV A

The different types of institutions with the scholars in attendance at them are shown in the following table —

Types of Institutions	Number of Institutions		Number of Scholars	
	1929	1928	1929	1928
<i>Recognised Institutions</i>				
Universities	16	16	8,078	7,562
Arts Colleges	242	236	68,627	65,982
Professional Colleges	71	71	17,052	17,163
High Schools	2,834	2,759	878,168	828,864
Middle Schools	9,763	9,240	1,238,808	1,173,700
Primary Schools	201,898	197,290	9,013,691	8,712,088
Special Schools	9,190	10,190	327,763	353,958
Total of Recognised Institutions	223,704	219,810	11,547,997	11,160,156
Unrecognised Institutions	34,222	34,014	618,343	615,066
Grand total of all Institutions	258,016	254,724	12,166,339	11,775,222

Primary Education.—The primary schools are mainly under the direction of the local boards and municipalities. In 1911, the late Mr G. K. Gokhale pleaded in the Imperial Legislative Council for a modified system of compulsory primary education, but Government was unable to accept the proposal mainly for financial reasons. In recent years, eight provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education by local option. Bombay led the way in this matter by a private Bill which was passed into law in February 1918. The other private Bills which followed were those of Bihar and Orissa passed in February 1919 of Bengal passed in May 1919 and of the United Provinces, passed in June 1919. Of the Government measures, the Punjab Act was passed in April 1919, the Central Provinces Act in May 1920, the Madras Act in December 1920 and the Assam Act in 1925. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act of 1920 extends generally the provisions of the 1918 Act to the Bombay Corporation also enabling it to introduce free compulsory education ward by ward. Not content with this, the Bombay legislature passed a new Act in 1923 to provide for compulsory elementary education and to make better provision for the management and control of primary education in the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay and the United Provinces Acts apply only to municipalities, the Bengal Primary Education Act applies, in the first instance, to municipalities, but is capable of extension to rural areas. Boys only are included within the scope of the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and Bengal Acts,

while the Central Provinces Act is capable of extension to girls, and the remaining Acts are applicable to both sexes. The United Provinces legislature passed a second Primary Education Act in 1926, but the United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act. It allows the District Boards to introduce compulsion within their areas. All the Acts are drafted on very similar lines. If a local body as a special meeting convened for the purpose decides by a two-thirds majority in favour of the introduction of compulsion in any part of the area under its control, it may then submit to Government, for approval, a scheme to give effect to its decision. The scheme must be within the means of the local body to carry out with reasonable financial assistance from Government. Ordinarily the age limits of compulsion are from six to ten years though provision is made for prolonging the period. Provision is also made in all the Acts for the exemption of particular classes and communities and for special exemption from attendance in cases of bodily infirmity. Walking distance to a school is generally defined as one mile from the child's home. The employment of children, who should be at school, is strictly forbidden and a small fine is imposed for non-compliance with an attendance order. The Acts generally provide that, subject to the sanction of the local Government, education where compulsory shall be free. Such in brief are the ordinary provisions of the various provincial Education Acts. Local bodies have not however shown as yet any great alacrity in availing themselves of the opportunity afforded them by these Acts.

The following table shows the urban and rural areas in which compulsion had been introduced by the year 1928-29 —

Province	Acts	Areas under "Compulsion"	
		Urban areas	Rural areas
		Towns	Villages
Madras	Elementary Education Act, 1920	25	7*
Bombay	Primary Education Act, 1918	4	
	City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920	1	
	Primary Education Act, 1923	3	1
Bengal	Primary Education Act, 1919	1	
United Provinces	Primary Education Act, 1919	35	
	District Boards Primary Education Act, 1926		320†
Punjab	Primary Education Act, 1919	57	2,351‡
Bihar and Orissa	Primary Education Act, 1919	1	4§
Central Provinces and Berar	Primary Education Act, 1920	10	275
Assam	Primary Education Act, 1926		
Delhi	(Punjab Act applied 1925)	1	4
Total		138	2,963

N.B.—This table includes areas in which schemes of compulsory primary education have been partially introduced

† These areas are distributed over 19 districts in which compulsion has been introduced

‡ Individual school areas

§ Unions

* Taluk boards

The poverty of local bodies is usually the cause assigned to their diffidence to introduce compulsory education to any appreciable extent.

On the 31st March 1929, there were 201,688 recognised primary schools in British India containing 9,013,951 scholars. (The latter figure does not include scholars reading in the primary classes of secondary schools.) The total direct expenditures on primary schools, during the year 1928-29 amounted to Rs 7,65,07,444.

Secondary and High School Education.—In 1911 there were 1,210 high schools for boys in India and in 1928-29 the number had risen to 2,634; the number of scholars in the former year being 390,681, and in the latter year, 6,73,169. Some attempts have been made to give a greater bias towards a more practical form of instruction in these schools. The Commission of 1903 suggested that there should be two sides to secondary schools, "one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial and other non-literary pursuits." Some years later, what were called B and O classes were started in some schools in Bengal, but, as they did not lead to a university course, they have not been successful. In more recent years the Government of India have advocated

the institution of a school *final* examination in which the more practical subjects may be included. Efforts have also been made to improve the conduct of the matriculation and to emphasise the importance of oral tests and of school records. In Madras, this examination, which was placed under the direction of a Board representative of the University and of Government, proved somewhat cumbersome and certain modifications were made in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces the control of secondary education has been made over to special Boards created for this purpose. Similarly, the Administration of Delhi has established a Board of Secondary Education for that province and the Government of India have established a Board of Intermediate and High School Education, with headquarters at Ajmer, for Rajputana, Central India and Gwalior. In the Punjab the school leaving examination is conducted by a Board. But the main difficulty has not yet been touched. The University which recognises the schools has no money wherewith to improve them and the Department of Public Instruction, which allows the Government grants, has no responsibility for the recognition of schools, and no connexion whatever with the private unaided schools. This dual authority and this division of responsibility

have had unhappy effects. The standard of the schools also is very low so that the matriculants are often unable to benefit by the college courses. In some provinces an endeavour has been made to raise the standard of the schools by withdrawing from the University the intermediate classes and by placing them in a number of the better schools in the State.

There are schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians which are placed under the control of special inspectors for European Schools. The education of the domiciled community has proved to be a perplexing problem, and in 1912 a conference was summoned at Simla to consider the matter. The difficulty is that European schools are very remote from the general system of education in India. But efforts are being made to bring these schools more into line with the ordinary schools, and Indian Universities generally are affording special facilities for Anglo-Indian boys who may proceed to higher education in Indian colleges.

Medium of instruction in public schools.—The position of English as a foreign language and as a medium of instruction in public schools was discussed by a representative conference which met at Simla in 1917 under the Chairmanship of Sir Bankim Chandra Chatterjee. Although it was generally conceded that the teaching of school subjects through a medium which was imperfectly understood led to cramming and memorising of text-books, the use of English medium was defended by some on the ground that it improved the knowledge of English. The result of the conference was therefore inconclusive. Some local authorities have since then approved of schemes providing for the recognition of local vernaculars as media of instruction and examination in certain subjects.

Cadet Training.—Provision has been made by the Government of India for the training of cadets for the Mercantile Marine Service and a ship, 'H.M.T.S. Dufferin' has been stationed for this purpose in Bombay waters.

Boy Scout Movement.—A happy development in recent years has been the spread of the boy scout movement in public schools which has had an excellent effect in all provinces in creating amongst boys an active sense of good discipline. In 1925-26, there were 53 local associations in Bengal. In Madras there were 600 units with a strength of 13,000 scouts of all ranks. The number of scouts of all ranks in Bombay was more than 25,000. In the United Provinces, the total enrolment was 24,000 which was distributed between the Scout Societies and Baden Powell Associations. In the Central Provinces, the enrolment increased from 13,422 to 20,159. In the North-West Frontier Province, the Education Department has been able to enlist the co-operation of many gentlemen, official and non-official, in the movement with the result that the province now has an association with considerable public favour and support behind it.

Medical Inspection.—Arrangements have been made for medical inspection of scholars. As reported by one province, the inspection though necessarily somewhat perfunctory, is of value. Some provinces are endeavouring to improve their systems in order to make them more effective and useful.

Intermediate Colleges.—One important part of the Calcutta University Commission's recommendations has been accepted by the Government of the United Provinces and the Government of India and incorporated in the Acts establishing the Lucknow Dacca and Aligarh Muslim Universities, and reconstituting that of Allahabad, namely, the separation of the intermediate classes from the sphere of university work and of the two top classes of high schools from the rest of the school classes. The separated classes have been combined together and the control over them has been transferred from the University to a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. Such a Board was constituted for the Dacca University area by a notification of the Government of Bengal in 1921. It contains twenty-two members of whom seven are elected by the University. The United Provinces Board was constituted by an Act passed in the same year. It consists of some forty members of whom approximately one-quarter represent the Universities in the Province. The Intermediate Examination Board of the Aligarh Muslim University was brought into existence by an Ordinance framed in 1922. It is composed of eight members. The Ajmer Board is composed of 33 members.

Professional and Technical Education.—A research institute in agriculture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in Bihar, which has done valuable work. Conferences have been held at Pusa, Simla and Poona, with the object of providing a suitable training in agriculture. A Royal Commission on Agriculture has submitted its report and as a result of its recommendations an Imperial Council of Agricultural Research has been established by the Government of India at their headquarters. Among commercial colleges, the most important is the Sydenham College of Commerce in Bombay. Industrial institutions are dotted about India, some maintained by Government, others by municipalities or local boards, and others by private bodies. The most important are the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute in Bombay. The Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, the product of generous donations by the Tata family. The tendency in recent years has been to place these institutions under the control of the Departments of Industries. In addition to a number of engineering schools, there are Engineering Colleges at Bhoospur, Sibsagar, Poona, Madras, Rangoon, Patna and Benares, each of which except that at Bhoospur is affiliated to a university. The engineering colleges maintain a high standard and great pressure for admission is reported from several provinces. There are schools of art in the larger towns where not only architecture and the fine arts are studied, but also practical crafts like pottery and iron work. There are two forest colleges at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore and a Technical Institute is in existence at Cawnpore and a Mining School at Dhabad. Mining and metallurgy are also taught by the Mining and Metallurgical College at Benares which provides a 4-year course leading to a B.Sc. degree in each subject.

The majority of these institutions are not under the control of provincial departments of education. The following table shows in summary form the number of such institutions and of students attending them —

Type of Institution	1928		1929	
	Institutions	Students	Institutions	Students
Training colleges and normal schools for teachers	745	29 841	766	32 751
Law colleges and schools	16	7 792	16	7 772
Medical colleges and schools	42	9 164	41	9 093
Engineering colleges and schools	18	4 283	17	4 150
Agricultural colleges and schools	21	1 528	23	1 604
Commercial colleges and schools	160	9 150	156	8 676
Forest colleges	2	178	2	107
Veterinary colleges	1	374	3	428
Technical and Industrial schools	473	20 141	492	27 206
Schools of Art	11	4 004	12	2 331
Total	1 491	80 413	1 528	94 587

Universities

There are now eighteen Universities in India, of which two are situated in Indian States. All these Universities have been incorporated by law for the time being in force. The following statement gives the dates of the various University Acts and the territorial jurisdiction of the different Universities —

No.	University	Dates of Acts.	Territorial jurisdiction
1	CALCUTTA	1864, 1908, 1909 & 1921	Bengal and Assam and certain adjacent Indian States
2	MADRAS	1857, 1904, 1905 and 1923	The Presidency of Madras excluding the Telugu country and Coorg and certain Indian States.
3	BOMBAY	1857, 1904, 1905 and 1923.	The Presidency of Bombay and certain Indian States (Baroda, &c.)
4	PUNJAB	1882, 1904 & 1905	The Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and adjacent Indian States (Kashmir, Patiala, &c.)
5	ALAHABAD	1887, 1904, 1905 and 1921	Allahabad
6	BENARES HINDU	Oct. 1915	Benares District
7	MYSORE	July 1916	Mysore State.
8	PATNA	Sept 1917 and 1923	Bihar & Orissa and adjacent Indian States
9	ORMERIA	1918	Hyderabad.
10	DACCA	April 1920	Radius of 5 miles.
11	ALIGARH MUSLIM	Sept 1920	Radius of 10 miles.
12	RANGOON	Oct 1920 and 1921	Burma.
13	LUCKNOW	Nov 1920	Local
14	DELHI	March 1922	Delhi
15	NAGPUR	June 1923	The Central Provinces and Berar
16	ANDHRA *	Jan. 1926	The Telugu Country of the Madras Presidency
17	AGRA	April 1927	United Provinces (excluding the territorial jurisdictions of Allahabad, Benares, Aligarh and Lucknow Universities), Rajputana and Central India
18	ANNAMALAI	January 1929	Radius of 10 miles.

* Actually established after 1925-26

The first University in India, that of Calcutta, was founded in 1857. Between 1857 and 1887 four new Universities, at Bombay, Madras, Lahore and Allahabad were added. These five universities were all of the affiliating type. They consisted of groups of colleges, situated sometimes several hundred miles apart, and bound together by a legally constituted central organisation, which determined the qualifications for admission, prescribed the courses of study, conducted the examinations, and exercised a solid form of control over the affiliated colleges. There was nothing under the system to limit the number of institutions affiliated to a University and for thirty years, i.e. from 1857 to 1917 the growing demand for university education was met, not by the creation of new universities but by enlarging the size of the constituent colleges and by increasing their number. By 1917 this inflation had been carried on so far that the composition of the original five universities stood as follows—

University	Colleges	Scholars
Calcutta	58	28,618
Bombay	17	8,001
Madras	53	10,216
Punjab	24	6,553
Allahabad	33	7,807

It had become obvious that further expansion on the same lines was no longer possible without a serious loss of efficiency and the Government of India had recognised in their resolution of 1913 the necessity of creating new local teaching, and residential universities in addition to the existing affiliating universities. The development of this policy was accelerated by the strength of communal feeling and the growth of local and provincial patriotism, leading to the establishment of a number of teaching universities. The new type of universities has since been strongly advocated by the Calcutta University Commission which has offered constructive proposals as to the lines to be followed in university reform.

The Universities of Calcutta and the Punjab—These two Universities alone still retain their old form. On the 27th March 1921 an amending Act was passed by which the Governor-General ceased to be the Chancellor of the Calcutta University and now the head of the provincial government is the Chancellor of each of the older universities. The Vice-Chancellor is nominated by the Government concerned. The executive body is the Syndicate which is now organised so as to include larger educational element. Over this body the Vice-Chancellor presides, all other members being elected by the Faculties, except the Director of Public Instruction who is a member *ex-officio*. The secretarial work is under the direction of the Registrar. The legislative body is the Senate which consists of from 75 to 100 members, 80 percent of whom are nominated by the Chancellor, the rest being elected by the Senate, or by its Faculties, or by the body of registered graduates. The Senate

is divided into Faculties which are in most cases those of arts, science, law, medicine, and engineering. There is an oriental faculty in the Punjab University alone. There are also Boards of Studies, whose duties are to recommend text books or books which represent the standard of knowledge required in the various examinations. The newer universities differ considerably from the older universities in constitution.

Post-graduate work.—Apart from the general tightening up of university control over its colleges, the chief feature of university development since the passing of the Act of 1904 has been participation by the universities in post-graduate teaching and research. In Madras a small number of university professors have been appointed in the Punjab the services of a certain number of temporary professors from overseas have been engaged. In Bombay a certain number of college professors and others have delivered lectures to post-graduate students under the auspices of the University. But the most notable advance has been made in Calcutta, owing to the energy of the late Sir Asutosh Mukherjee and to the liberality of Sir Tarak Nath Palit and of Sir Rash Behari Ghosh. In 1916, a committee was appointed to investigate the matter. In accordance with its report, new regulations have been passed by the Senate, whereby all post-graduate teaching and research in arts and sciences in Calcutta is now conducted directly by the University, though many of the college teachers have been invited to take part in the work. Post-graduate councils in arts and sciences have also been constituted, which comprise all the teachers engaged in the work and a very small number of additional members appointed by the Senate. A bill for the reorganisation of the Calcutta University was drafted and a Committee considered the question of the future of the post-graduate department and connected financial problems. The bill was under the consideration of Government and the Committee was still sitting at the close of the year 1928-29.

The University of Madras—This is one of the older universities. It has recently been reconstituted. The reconstituted University while functioning as teaching and residential University in so far as the city of Madras is concerned continues to exercise its jurisdiction over its numerous colleges which remain affiliated to it. The administration of the University is in the hands of a Senate which has been so constituted as to include both those who are educationists and those who are connected with the actual business and commercial life. A large elective element has been introduced in its composition. Government control over the details of administration has been decentralised. The affairs of the University are managed by the Senate through a body called the Syndicate, while the Academic Council, another new body has charge of the academic matters. The affiliated colleges have been entrusted to the care of a new organisation called the Council of Affiliated Colleges. In accordance with the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission, the Intermediate Examination Certificate has been made the admission test to the courses of the University. The Governor-General of India has been associated with the University as its Visitor with certain emergency

power. The Governor of Madras continues a Chancellor. The Vice-Chancellor is an elected whole-time officer.

The University of Bombay.—A new Act was passed by the Legislative Council of the Bombay Presidency in 1928 to reconstitute the University of Bombay so as to enable the University to provide greater facilities for higher education and to conduct postgraduate teaching and research in all branches of learning including technology, while continuing to exercise due control over the teaching given by colleges affiliated to it from time to time. The chief provisions of the Act are to extend the elective principle to the composition of the various bodies of the University and to entrust the technical part of the work to a newly constituted body, the Academic Council, which is composed of thirty of persons connected directly with education. The size of the Senate has been raised from 100 to 150 members (excluding donors and nominees of donors) of whom 93 are elected members. This Act was enforced in 1929.

The University of Allahabad.—This is another old University which has undergone reorganisation. In 1921 an Act was passed with a view to establishing a unitary, teaching and residential University at Allahabad while enabling the University to continue to exercise due control over the quality and character of the teaching given in the name by colleges affiliated to the University at Allahabad. The Agra University has now relieved it of its affiliating functions. The Governor-General is *Vice-Chancellor* and the Governor of the United Provinces *Chancellor*. The Vice-Chancellor is a whole-time officer. There is a *Court*, an *Executive Council*, an *Academic Council*, a *Committee of Reference* dealing with expenditure only, a *Council of Associated Colleges*, &c.

The University maintains a good reputation for research work carried out by staff and students.

The Mysore University was constituted under Regulation V of 1916, for the better encouragement and organisation of education in the State. His Highness the Maharaja is the Chancellor. The University is very similar in its constitution to the older Indian universities, having a Senate of not less than fifty and not more than sixty members but, unlike the older universities, it gives seats on the Senate to the university professors *ex-officio*. It departs from existing practice by controlling university instruction in Mysore and Bangalore, and by conducting the work of the first year of the old college course in a few specially select old high schools. This University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say, its examinations and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations and degrees of a University incorporated by law in British India.

The Patna University.—Much thought has also been given to the evolution of a new type of university which will run abreast of the old. Patna University, which was constituted in 1917, is in most of its features a university of the old type, but certain innovations have been made. The Chancellor, who is the Governor of the province, may assist any proceeding of the University which is not in conformity with the Act and the

Regulations. In the Senate the application of the elective principle has been extended, by increasing both the proportion of the elected Fellows and the categories of electing bodies and the Senate includes representatives of the teaching staff and of the graduate teachers of recognised schools. Further, all colleges are given statutory representation on the Senate in the persons of their principals. The Syndicate is the ultimate authority in academic matters, subject to the proviso that any six of its members have the power to refer such matters to the Senate for review. The Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the local Government. In addition to other duties, he has the power to inspect all colleges of the University. The colleges affiliated to the University are of two kinds: colleges of the University whose buildings are situated within a specified area, and external colleges, whose buildings are situated in one of the four following towns: Masarfarnur, Bhagalpur, Cuttack and Hazaribagh. The Syndicate has been reconstituted and now consists of the Vice-Chancellor, the Director of Public Instruction, nine teachers and seven non-teachers.

The Osmania University Hyderabad.—The Osmania University was established under a Charter promulgated with a *Pirman* of His Highness the Nizam, dated the 22nd September 1918. The fundamental principle underlying the working of the University is that Urdu forms the medium of education, although a knowledge of English as a language is compulsory in the case of all students. There is a Bureau of Translation attached to the University which produces text books required for college classes. The constitution of the University consists of a Council, a Senate, a Syndicate, Faculties and Boards of Studies. There is a Chancellor and a Vice-Chancellor, both *ex-officio* officers. The executive government of the University including general supervision and control over colleges is vested in the Council which is the highest authority and which performs the function assigned to Government in the case of British Indian Universities. The University possesses at present only one constituent college, viz. the Osmania University College, which was opened in 1919. The Osmania University has been recognised by the Government of India as a University incorporated by law for the time being in force, that is to say its examination and degrees have been accorded the status of the corresponding examinations and degrees of a University established by law in British India.

The Hindu University, Benares.—The creation of the Hindu University, Benares, forms a landmark in the history of the Indian university system. The university is not designed to meet the needs of one province alone, but to draw students from all parts of India.

It has no monopoly, no privilege. Its spheres are not diffused by the necessity of supervising distant colleges nor is its vitality impaired by the encumbrance of administrative duties other than those of organising its own teaching. It is therefore the first Indian university which is primarily a seat of learning and not an administrative organisation. Its constitution is therefore very different from those of the other Indian universities. A dividing line is made

between administrative matters, entrusted to a large body called the Court, with an executive committee called the Council, and academy matters, entrusted primarily to a Senate, with an executive body called the Syndicate. The Court which is the supreme governing body besides its administrative powers, has the right to review the acts of the Senate, except where the Senate has acted in accordance with the Act, statutes and regulations. With a solitary exception it is composed entirely of Hindus. The Senate has the entire charge of the organisation of instruction in the University and the colleges, the courses of study, and the examination and discipline of students, and the conferment of ordinary and honorary degrees.

The University of Dacca.—With the modification of the Partition of Bengal in 1911, Dacca ceased to be the capital of the separate province of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Shortly afterwards, the Government of India decided to establish a university of Dacca and the Government of Bengal appointed a committee to frame a scheme for the new University. The committee was instructed that the University should be of the teaching and residential and not of the federal type, and that it should be a self-contained organism unconnected with any colleges outside the limits of the city of Dacca. The committee which was presided over by the late Mr R. (afterwards Sir Robert) Nathan presented its report later in the year. The report is of great value and in it certain new principles are enunciated. Great emphasis was attached to physical training and education and also to the tutorial guidance of the students. The University was to be very largely a State institution, and practically all its teachers and those of its colleges were to be Government servants. Though the colleges were to be separate units, each with its separate staff and buildings, they were to be linked together and with the University by a close form of co-operation. The executive body, to be called the Council, was to have very considerable powers, subject to the sanction of Government. The Council, which was to be a large and representative body, was to be the legislative authority, subject to the control of Government, and in other respects an advisory authority. The total cost of the full scheme was estimated at 55 lakhs, but deducting certain sums which were available from other sources the net cost was put down to nearly 40 lakhs, exclusive of recurring charges. These were expected to involve a net total of about 6½ lakhs annually. Before the scheme thus elaborated (which had received the Secretary of State's sanction) could be taken in hand, the war broke out. The Act constituting the University was passed in April 1920 and Mr L. (now Sir) P. J. Hartog, G.C.S.I., was appointed the first Vice-Chancellor. The Act has since been amended in order to make the Executive Council the chief authority of the University.

The Alligarh Muslim University.—It was the aim of Sir Syed Ahmed Khan years ago to place the benefits of a liberal education within the reach of the Muhammadan community, and in 1875 a school was opened which three years later was converted into the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College, Alligarh. The movement in favour of transferring this

college into a teaching and residential university started, slowly, at the end of the last century. In 1911, during the visit of His Majesty the King Emperor to India, His Highness the Aga Khan made an appeal which resulted in the collection of large subscriptions. A draft constitution was drawn up and a consultative committee was formed. But the draft constitution was not approved by the Secretary of State, and on the question of the right of affiliating colleges outside Alligarh in particular, there was a sharp difference of opinion. Government laid down, as in the case of the Hindu University, that the university should not have the power of affiliating Muslim institutions in other parts of India.

On October 16th, 1915, a meeting of the Muslim University Association was held at Alligarh, under the presidency of the Raja (now Maharaja) of Mahmudabad, when it was proposed that the meeting recommend to the Muslim University Foundation Committee the acceptance of the Muslim University on the lines of the Hindu University. It was evident at the meeting that a large number of Indian Muslims were not prepared to accept a constitution for their university similar to that of the Hindu University.

In April, 1917, at a meeting of the Foundation Committee the following resolution was passed—

"That this meeting of the Muslim University Foundation Committee hereby resolves with reference to the letter of the Government of India, Education Department dated Delhi, 17th February 1917, D O No. 66, that the Committee is prepared to accept the best University on the lines of the Hindu University. It further authorises the Regulation Committee appointed at its Lucknow meeting, with the President and Honorary Secretary of the Muslim University Association as its *ex-officio* members, to take necessary steps in consultation with the Hon. the Education Member for the introduction of the Muslim University Bill to the Imperial Legislative Council."

The bill referred to above was ultimately introduced into the Council and was passed in September 1920. The Act came into force on December 1st, 1920.

The University is now being overhauled in accordance with the recommendations of the Rahimtoola Enquiry Committee.

The University of Rangoon.—Plans for a university in Burma had been under consideration for some years. After his arrival in Burma the then Lieutenant-Governor Sir Harnsford Butler thought that, on general grounds and with some reference to the needs of the province, the Rangoon University might usefully be of a more practical type than any yet attempted in India with courses in arts and science, pure and applied, technology, medicine, engineering, agriculture, law, forestry, veterinary, science and training, commerce and architecture. It might perhaps combine with university instruction practical studies at the Oriel Court, the Pasteur Institute and the hospitals; and also at the Museum which the local Government was committed to build as soon as funds were available. It is possible in Burma to a greater extent than in any of the older and more

advanced provinces in India to concentrate the intellectual energies of the province in one immediate neighbourhood and to develop a really many-sided university. An Act to establish a teaching and residential college at Banarose was passed on the 24th October 1920. The Act however did not find favour with a section of Burnees and was consequently amended in 1923. The amending Act introduced greater popular and representative elements in the composition of the Council and invested the reformed Council with greater discretionary powers in matters affecting public interest, such as the question of admitting affiliation of new colleges or of admitting more colleges to the status of constituent colleges. In short, it rendered the University more suited to the needs and aspirations of the province. The University authorities are the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Council (with an executive committee) and the Senate. The Council is the supreme administrative body while the Senate is an academic body with entire control of studies, examination and discipline. The Governor-General, as Visitor has the right to cause inspection to be made. The University is building up an impressive record of research work.

The Lucknow University—The foundation of this University may primarily be ascribed to the patriotism of the people of Oudh. It is a unitary teaching and residential University incorporated by an Act passed in 1920. The University authorities are (1) the Court, with powers of making statutes, (2) the Executive Council, which administers the property of the University and appoints examiners, (3) the Academic Council, which controls the teaching and advises the Executive Council on all academic matters, (4) a Committee of Reference (a Sub-Committee of the Court) deals with items of new expenditure only. The Governor-General, as Visitor, has the same power as in the case of the Banarose University and other new, or reorganised universities. The chief need of the University is a Maternity Hospital for the Medical College Students have now to go to Madras for practical training in gynaecology.

The Delhi University—The Delhi University was created by an Act passed in 1922. The University depends for its existence mainly on the generosity of the Government of India who occupy the position of a local Government in relation to it. It is a unitary teaching and residential University, designed on the model recommended by the Calcutta University Commission for the Dacca University, possessing at present three constituent colleges. The Act provides for two schemes—a provincial and a permanent one. Under the provisional scheme, which is in force at present, the constituent colleges remain with their hostels, etc. in their existing buildings. They also retain intermediate classes. But there have been instituted, so far as possible and desirable, common classes for graduate teaching. The matriculation examination of an Indian University, or an equivalent examination, is the admission test to the University courses. The permanent scheme contemplates that the existing colleges in Delhi City would become intermediate institutions and that degree classes would be conducted in new buildings to be built in Imperial Delhi.

There would be halls and hostels where students would receive tutorial instruction. The Intermediate Examination of an Indian University or an equivalent examination, would become the admission test to the University. The Governor-General is the *ex-officio* Chancellor. There is a Pro-Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor and a Rector. The principal governing bodies of the University are a Court, an Executive Council and an Academic Council. A scheme for the reorganisation of the University is at present under the consideration of the Government of India.

The Nagpur University—This University was created by an Act passed in 1923. Its constitution follows the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission and the provisions in other University Acts in so far as they are applicable to local conditions. In particular the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission have been adopted in the matter of the appointment of the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor, and of their powers and duties, the composition and functions of the Court, the Executive and Academic Councils, and the relations of the University with Government. The University Act provides in the first instance for a University of an examining and affiliating type in which the existence of the colleges is preserved as the unit of instruction both in the University centre of Nagpur and in other places which contain colleges admitted to the privileges of the University. The Act is so framed as to permit of a gradual development of the University into a managing and teaching body which may supplement, or entirely replace colleges by University instruction either by taking over the management of existing colleges or by instituting and maintaining its own colleges.

Andhra University—In January 1926 the Governor General accorded his assent to an Act, passed by the Madras Legislative Council, incorporating a new University in the Madras Presidency. The new University is called the Andhra University and is of an affiliating type and all colleges located in the Telugu country, whether first or second grade, professional or technical have become affiliated colleges. The university endeavours to develop scientific and technical education with special reference to the industries of the Telugu districts, it appoints its own teaching staff and will ultimately build, control and maintain colleges, laboratories and hostels of its own. The Act contemplates the possibility of a rapid development in the study of Telugu in the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction and examination and also aims at the ultimate establishment of more than one unitary and residential university in the Telugu districts. The headquarters of the university have been located at Beswada.

Agra University—This University was established and incorporated by the Agra University Act, 1926 (United Provinces Act No VIII of 1926). It is a purely affiliating University and has relieved Allahabad University of its external side. Its territorial jurisdiction embraces the United Provinces (excluding the territorial limits of the Allahabad, Benares Hindu, Aligarh Muslim and Lucknow Universities), Rajputana and Central India.

The Annamalai University, Chidambaram, Madras Presidency—This is a teaching and residential University incorporated by an Act of the Legislative Council of the Madras Presidency (Madras Act No. 1 of 1929). It owes its foundation largely to the generosity of Sir Annamalai Chettiyar who has handed over to the University certain institutions established and maintained by him at and near Chidambaram with all the properties attached thereto and has also given a sum of Rs. 20 lakhs towards the creation of an endowment fund. The aim of the University is to encourage higher education, and research in the Tamil districts of the Madras Presidency. The Administration of the University is in the hands of a Syndicate, a Senate a Finance Committee and an Academic Council. The Act provides for a continuous connection with the University of Sir Annamalai Chettiyar and his successor, as the Founder of the University, with certain powers and privileges. The Governor-General is the Visitor of the University. The Governor of Fort St. George is the Chancellor of the University and the Vice-Chancellor is appointed by the Chancellor from a panel of three persons recommended by the Founder.

University Training Corps—An interesting development in the corporate life of the Universities has been the foundation of University Corps attached to the Indian Defence Force. Such Corps are now in existence at the various University centres in British India.

Inter-University Board—The idea put forward by the Indian Universities Conference in May 1924 for the constitution of a central agency in India took practical shape and an Inter University Board came into being during 1925. Twelve out of fifteen universities joined the Board. Its functions are—

(a) to act as an inter university organization and a bureau of information,

(b) to facilitate the exchange of professors,

(c) to serve as an authorized channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination of university work

(d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries

(e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International conferences on higher education.

(f) to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities,

(g) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian Universities.

Each member University has to make a fixed annual contribution towards the expenses of the Board.

The meetings of the Board are held yearly. The Board consists of one representative of each of the member Universities and one representative of the Government of India.

The Board has not yet had much influence on University policy in India but it has done a considerable amount of useful work in collecting information and in stimulating thought regarding current University problems. It also put certain universities into touch with distinguished teachers from abroad who were available for lecturing at University centres and arranged for two sectional conferences—the one of representatives of the five universities in the United Provinces and the other of representatives of the two universities in Bengal. In addition to the Hand book of Indian Universities the Board has issued a pamphlet entitled 'Facilities for Oriental Studies and Research at Indian Universities'.

There is still a leeway to be made good. All the influences which operate against the spread of education amongst the boys are reinforced in the case of women by the purdah system and the custom of early marriage.

Arts colleges, medical colleges, and the like admit students of both sexes, and a few girls attend them. The Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women at Delhi gives a full medical course for medical students. The Shree-mati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Indian Women's University was started some nine years ago by Professor Karve. It is a private institution and is doing good pioneer work.

The All India Women's Conference on Educational Reform, which holds its meetings annually and has constituent conferences established all over the country is also doing much useful work. Recently, an All India Women's Education Fund Association has been established in connection with this Conference. This association appointed a special committee to enquire into the feasibility of establishing a central Teachers Training College of a specialised Home Science character.

Education of Indian Women and Girls—The comparative statement below shows the state of women's education during 1928-29 —

	Institutions			Scholars		
	1929	1928	Increase or Decrease	1929	1928	Increase or Decrease
	1	2	3	4	5	6
For Females						
Recognised Institutions—						
Arts Colleges	19	19		1,864	1,829	+44
Professional Colleges	7	7		227	230	-3
High Schools	278	262	+16	68,604	56,227	+12,377
Middle Schools	743	712	+31	96,870	96,411	+459
Primary Schools	30,902	28,951	+1,951	1,192,972	1,081,801	+1,171
Special Schools	369	352	+17	14,641	12,487	+2,154
Unrecognised Institutions	3,480	2,878	+602	76,572	69,812	+6,760
Totals	35,166	32,831	+2,335	1,881,557	1,222,758	+658,799

The Girl's Guide movement is also spreading slowly, but steadily, in girls' schools with good results.

Education in the Army.—The Army in India undertakes the responsibility of the education of certain sections of the community. Its activities are directed into various channels with certain definite objects, which may be summarised as follows:—

(i) The education of the soldier, British and Indian, in order to—

- (a) develop his training faculties.
- (b) improve him as a subject for military training and as a citizen of the Empire;
- (c) enhance the prospects of remunerative employment on his return to civil life.

(ii) The fulfilment of the obligations of the State to the children of soldiers, serving and ex-service (British and Indian).

(iii) The provision, as far as possible, of training for the children of soldiers, who have died in the service of their country.

(iv) The creation of a body of Indian gentlemen educated according to English public school traditions, which should provide suitable candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College Dehra Dun.—A Royal Military College has been established at Dehra Dun. The aim of this institution is to provide education on the lines of an English public school for the sons of Indian gentlemen, both civil and military, up to the standard required for the passing of the entrance examination of the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

Chiefs' Colleges.—For the education of the sons and relatives of the Chiefs and Princes of India, whose families rule over one-third of the Indian continent, five Chiefs' Colleges are maintained, viz.—

- (a) Mayo College, Ajmer, for Rajputana Chiefs.
- (b) Daly College, Indore, for Central India Chiefs.
- (c) Atashan College, Lahore, for Punjab Chiefs.
- (d) Rajkumar College, Rajkote, for Kathia war Chiefs, and
- (e) Rajkumar College, Rajpur, for Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa Chiefs.

In point of buildings, staffs and organisation these institutions approach English Public Schools. Students are prepared for a diploma examination conducted by the Government of India. The diploma is regarded as equivalent to the matriculation certificate of an Indian University. A further course of University standard called the Higher Diploma is conducted at the Mayo College. The examination for this Diploma is also held by the Government of India. Its standard is roughly equivalent to that of the B.A. diploma of an Indian University. **Indigenous Education.**—Of the 12,165,839 scholars being educated in India 618,842 are classed as attending 'private' or 'un-recognised' institutions. Some of these institutions are of importance. The Gurukulas near Haridwar and Sir Bahadur Nath Tugwa's school at Deogarh have attained some fame. Mr Gandhi's school at Ahmedabad has attracted attention and the numerous monastery schools of Burma are well-known. Connected with every big

Mosque in northern India there is some educational organisation and the schools attached to the Fafahpuri and Golden Mosques at Delhi and the Dar-ul-Ulm, Deoband, are noted. These institutions generally have a religious or 'national' atmosphere and are possibly destined to play an important part in the future of India.

The Ayurvedic and Unani Tibbia College, Delhi, founded by the late Hakim Ajmal Khan, is an important unrecognised institution. It provides instruction in the indigenous system of medicine up to the highest standard and also gives some training in surgery.

Indian students in Foreign Countries.—Indian students still proceed to foreign countries, mainly, to Great Britain, America, Japan and Germany to complete or supplement their education. Thirty years ago the number of Indian students in Great Britain was 400. The number now is well over 2,000, and including students at Universities on the Continent and in the United States of America the total number who are abroad in one year is not less than 2,500. The known figures for 1928-29 are as follows:—

Institutions.	No of Students
1 Oxford University	57
2 Cambridge University	95
3 London University and other Institutions at London	935
4 Other English Universities and Welsh Universities	310
5 Scottish Universities	276
6 Irish Universities	67
7 Inns of Court	539
Total	2,279

As far as can be ascertained, there were 34 Indian students at French Universities, 47 in German Universities and 213 in the Colleges and Universities in the United States of America in 1928-29. The last figure excludes a number of Indians of the student type who were employed in industrial and professional training of various kinds but whose names are not recorded on the books of any University or College.

Hartog Committee on Education.—The most notable event in recent years has been the appointment of the Auxiliary Committee to the Indian Statutory Commission, under the chairmanship of Sir Philip Hartog, to make enquiries into the growth of education in British India and to prepare a 'review of the growth of education with particular reference to its organisation in British India and its relation to political and constitutional conditions and potentialities of progress. The report of the Committee has been published, and constitutes a valuable document on the present state of education in India.

Christian Education.—A Commission headed by Dr A. D. Lindsay, Master of Balliol College, Oxford, is touring India with a view to investigate the various problems connected with the higher education provided by the various Missionary bodies working in India. The Commission which has been appointed by the International Missionary Council arrived in India in November 1930 and is expected to remain in India up to the beginning of April 1931.

The following table gives the latest available figures and other particulars about the Universities —

STATISTICS OF UNIVERSITIES IN INDIA, 1929

University	Type	Original Date of Foundation	Faculties *	No of Members of Teaching Staff		No of Students		No of Students who graduated in Arts and Science	REMARKS
				In University Departments	In Affiliated Colleges	In University Departments	In Affiliated Colleges		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Calcutta	Teaching and Affiliating	1857	A, Sc., L, M, Eng	200	1,208	1,171	2,929	2,384	The University also awards degrees in Commerce and Education
2 Bombay	Teaching and Affiliating	1857	A, Sc., L, M	4	224	61	11,240	1,037	The University was reconstituted in 1928. It also awards degrees in Commerce, Education, Agriculture and Engineering
3 Madras	Teaching and Affiliating	1857	A, Sc., L, M, Eng, Ed, Ag, Com, B, A	24	1,157	131	15,967	1,677	The University was reconstituted in 1923. It also awards degrees or diplomas in Oriental Learning and Economics
4 Punjab	Teaching and Affiliating	1882	O, A, Sc., M, I, Ag, Com	58	844	10	12,062	1,121	Faculty of Arts includes Education. The figure in col 7 represents research scholars only and excludes Honours School students enrolled in affiliated Colleges
5 Allahabad	Unitary	1887	A, Sc., L, Com	104		1,427		303	The University was reconstituted in 1921
6 Benares Hindu	Unitary	1916	A, Sc., O, Th, M, L	182		2,359		169	Faculty of Science includes Engineering. The University also awards diplomas in Education.

* Abbreviations:—A = Arts, Ag = Agriculture, Com = Commerce, Ed = Education (Teaching), Eng = Engineering, F = Forestry, F A = Fine Arts, L = Law, M = Medicine, O = Oriental Learning, Sc = Science; Tech = Technology, Th = Theology

University	Type	Original Date of Foundation	Faculties *	No of Members of Teaching Staff		No of Students		No of Students who graduated in Arts and Science	REMARKS
				In University Departments	In Affiliated Colleges	In University Departments	In Affiliated Colleges		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7 Mysore†	Unitary	1916	A, Sc, Eng, & Tech., M.	291		8,307		260	The University is located at two Centres— Mysore and Bangalore It also awards degrees in Commerce and Education -
8 Patna	Affiliating	1917	A Sc Ed L Eng M		318		4,967	433	
9 Osmania†	Teaching	1918	A Th Sc M Eng Ed, L	108	22	562	175	63	Figures of the Intermediate Colleges recognised by the University are shown under Affiliated Colleges
10 Aligarh Muslim	Unitary	1920	A Sc L Ed, Th	70	45	1,096	491	268	There are no Faculties, but there are Departments of Studies in various subjects. Figures for the Intermediate College of the University are shown under Affiliated Colleges
11 Rangoon	Unitary	1920	A Sc, M Eng, F, Ed	128	12	1,583	106	118	There are no Faculties but there are Boards of Studies in various subjects. The figures in cols 6 and 8 relate to the Intermediate College at Mandalay which is managed by the University
12 Lucknow	Unitary	1920	A Sc M, L, Com, Ed, O	113	10	1,819	41	201	Figures for the Isabella Thoburn College which is recognised by the University, are given under Affiliated Colleges

* Abbreviations - A = Arts Ag = Agriculture Com = Commerce Ed = Education (Teaching), Eng = Engineering F = Forestry, F A = Fine Arts, L = Law M = Medicine O = Oriental Learning Sc = Science Tech = Technology Th = Theology

† Situated in an Indian State and outside British India

University	Type	Original Date of Foundation	Faculty	No of Members of Teaching Staff		No of Students		No of Students who graduated in Arts and Science	REMARKS
				In University Department	In affiliated Colleges	In University Department	In affiliated Colleges		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13	Daoca	1921	A, Sc, L	94		1,228		170	Figures for the Teachers College, Decca which is associated with the University, are not given. Medical students, who took their Science courses at the University, are also excluded. The University also awards degrees in Commerce and Education
14	Delhi	Teaching 1922	A, Sc, L	12	89	96	1,327	164	
15	Nagpur	Teaching and Affiliating 1923	A, Sc, L, Ed, Ag	5	89	157	1,441	181	
16	Andhra	Affiliating 1926	A, Sc, M, Ed, O		363		3,795	466	
17	Agra	Affiliating 1927	A, Sc, Com, L, Ag		302		2,873	579	
18	Annamal								The University started work after the close of the period under review. The figures for its Colleges are included under the Madras University

* Abbreviations —A=Arts, Ag=Agriculture, Com=Commerce, Ed=Education (Teaching), Eng=Engineering, F=Forestry, F.A.=Fine Arts, L=Law, M=Medicine, O=Oriental Learning, Sc=Science, Tech=Technology, Th=Theology

N.B.—The term 'Affiliated Colleges' in Cols 6 and 8 of the table means all colleges affiliated to associated with, or recognised by, a University

A detailed account of the old and new Universities is given in the succeeding paragraphs

Statement of Educational Progress in MADRAS.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	142,260	142,260	142,260	142,260	142,260	142,260
Population	20,870,749 21,448,286 42,318,985	20,870,749 21,448,286 42,318,985	20,870,749 21,448,286 42,318,985	20,870,749 21,448,286 42,318,985	20,870,749 21,448,286 42,318,985	20,870,749 21,448,286 42,318,985
<i>Recognised Institutions for Males</i>						
Number of arts colleges	58	57	58	60	59	60
Number of high schools	810	824	837	842	851	864
Middle Schools	209	204	200	212	199	197
Number of primary schools	37,715	40,358	43,640	46,369	48,422	50,108
<i>Male Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	9,120	10,010	11,085	12,126	12,762	13,235
In high schools	139,203	131,854	133,582	133,094	141,143	144,887
Middle Schools	29,296	26,858	25,746	26,482	26,083	27,118
In primary schools	1,370,153	1,475,945	1,537,982	1,714,501	1,804,884	1,890,328
Percentage of male scholars in recognised institutions to male population	7.5	8.0	8.4	9.2	9.6	10.0
<i>Recognised Institutions for Females</i>						
Number of arts colleges	4	5	5	5	5	9
Number of high schools	55	56	56	56	58	59
Middle Schools	47	46	44	43	42	44
Number of primary schools	2,572	2,938	3,243	3,360	4,040	4,791

Statement of Educational Progress in MADRAS—contd

	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
<i>Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	447	477	465	490	481	480
In high schools	11,889	12,004	12,556	13,840	14,324	15,121
Medium Schools	6,802	6,329	6,337	6,556	6,015	6,364
In primary schools	392,539	423,190	463,096	501,204	551,274	599,511
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population	1.0	2.1	2.27	2.5	2.7	2.9
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions { Male Female	1,565,415 414,090	1,804,320 445,049	1,779,738 486,962	1,915,177 525,097	2,009,306 577,238	2,091,603 637,694
Total	1,980,505	2,119,369	2,266,700	2,440,274	2,586,544	2,729,297
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	2,070,588	2,193,184	2,249,552	2,523,188	2,680,673	2,793,766
Percentage of total scholars to { Males Females population	7.9 2.0 5.9	8.8 2.1 5.2	8.8 2.3 5.5	9.5 2.5 5.0	9.8 2.8 6.2	10.3 3.0 6.8
Total	207,675	219,899	230,573	241,518	256,417	266,417
No of pupils in Class IV { Male Female	183,733	200,376	215,101	230,393	241,518	256,417
Total	183,733	200,376	215,101	230,393	241,518	256,417
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From Government funds	1,67,13	1,71,89	1,27,53	2,02,44	2,23,56	2,74,37
From local funds	90,75	95,40	95,40	49,14	45,37	55,35
From municipal funds	9,92	12,24	12,39	17,14	16,61	15,79
Total expenditure from public funds	2,67,80	2,79,53	2,35,32	2,68,72	2,85,54	3,45,51
From fees	76,03	84,38	86,75	88,89	80,88	93,09
From other sources	83,17	88,53	92,54	95,31	1,00,49	1,04,74
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	3,70,00	3,90,39	4,16,20	4,69,72	4,76,91	5,44,94

Statement of Educational Progress in BOMBAY:

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28.	1928-29
Area in square miles						
Population						
{ Male	123,687	123,616	123,616	123,616	123,591	123,421
{ Female	10,183,020	10,176,969	10,176,969	10,176,969	10,176,969	10,176,969
	9,176,351	9,171,250	9,171,250	9,171,250	9,171,250	9,171,250
Total Population	19,368,371	19,348,210	19,348,210	19,348,210	19,348,210	19,348,210
Recognised Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	12	14	13	14	14	14
Number of high schools	160	167	177	187	184	185
Middle Schools	256	239	246	262	289	301
Number of primary schools	11,133	11,434	11,963	12,300	12,773	13,940
Male Scholars in Recognised Institutions						
In arts colleges	5,416	6,729	6,988	6,645	6,844	6,775
in high schools	53,680	57,846	62,340	67,449	71,444	74,234
Middle Schools	18,784	18,988	19,149	19,763	22,740	24,089
In primary schools	668,487	685,911	732,145	787,170	810,313	830,963
Percentage of male scholars in recognised institutions to male population	7.65	7.56	8.27	8.86	9.18	9.42
Recognised Institutions for Female.						
Number of arts colleges	48	46	45	48	52	53
Number of high schools	43	36	38	43	45	43
Middle Schools						
Number of primary schools	1,445	1,481	1,506	1,535	1,630	1,698

Statement of Educational Progress in BOMBAY—contd

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions						
In arts colleges	280	863	305	382	389	418
In high schools	8,947	8,992	9,548	10,274	11,288	12,422
Middle Schools	8,189	3,156	8,220	3,402	26,58	3,004
In primary schools	186,734	170,655	162,897	198,917	211,593	221,040
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population	1.91	2.02	2.15	2.35	2.51	2.62
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions { Male	765,683	789,027	840,854	900,411	982,641	966,425
Female	181,366	186,058	198,587	215,869	289,944	240,896
Total	947,049	975,085	1,039,441	1,116,270	1,272,585	1,207,321
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	2,005,800	1,021,584	1,077,080	1,151,423	1,194,901	1,280,840
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	8.02	8.11	8.56	9.12	9.43	9.69
population { Female	2.11	2.14	2.25	2.43	2.59	2.71
Total	8.21	5.28	5.57	6.65	6.18	6.19
No. of pupils in Class IV { Male						
Female						
Total	99,577	106,143	111,696	117,468	123,244	124,458
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From Government funds	1,80,56	1,84,47	1,99,80	1,98,53	2,00,32	1,97,08
From local funds	10,25	12,48	11,86	19,27	22,58	22,24
From municipal funds	84,08	39,18	65,62	51,58	46,12	40,94
Total Expenditure from public funds	2,84,89	2,36,13	2,77,27	2,69,38	2,68,93	2,60,26
From fees	24,08	60,14	62,38	66,71	65,92	72,60
From other sources	36,12	43,59	43,75	46,09	52,06	56,45
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	3,25,03	3,39,86	3,77,40	3,82,03	3,86,91	3,89,31

N.B.—The figures for Aides are under Bombay. The percentages given above are, however, for the Bombay Presidency only.

Statement of Educational Progress in BENGAL.

	1923-24.	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29.
Area in square miles	76,843	76,843	76,843	76,843	76,848	76,848
Population .. { Male .. { Female	24,151,222 22,544,314	24,151,222 22,544,314	24,151,222 22,544,314	24,151,222 22,544,314	24,151,222 22,544,314	24,151,222 22,544,314
Total Population	46,695,536	46,695,536	46,695,536	46,695,536	46,695,536	46,695,536
<i>Recognised Institutions for Males</i>						
Number of arts colleges	38†	38†	38	41	42	44
Number of high schools	916	958	997	1,008	1,016	1,036
Middle Schools { English { Vernacular	1,481 110	1,538 89	1,586 83	1,618 74	1,664 67	1,744 68
Number of primary schools	36,563	27,079	37,134	38,197	39,907	41,240
<i>Male Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	22,020	23,246	24,718	23,813	22,141	22,223
In high schools	211,208	219,684	233,331	238,648	224,431	226,563
Middle Schools { English { Vernacular	120,187 6,069	127,047 5,389	136,894 6,285	142,507 4,782	153,699 4,516	164,541 4,450
In primary schools	1,204,358	1,200,130	1,281,312	1,345,094	1,437,456	1,498,111
Percentage of male scholars in recognised institutions to male population	6.84	7.18	7.4	7.8	8.25	8.61
<i>Recognised Institutions for Females.</i>						
Number of arts colleges	4	4	4	4	4	4
Number of high schools	37	38	39	42	46	46
Middle Schools { English { Vernacular	36 27	37 27	50 46	48 22	52 19	54 18
Number of primary schools	12,842	13,371	18,769	14,612	15,008	16,416

† Includes University classes at Calcutta and Dacca

Statement of Educational Progress in BENGAL—contd.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Pending Scholars in Recognised Institutions						
In elite colleges	260	274	303	321	358	438
In high schools	7,160	7,515	8,218	9,254	10,386	11,212
{ English	4,707	4,984	6,253	6,966	6,963	7,681
{ Vernacular	3,870	2,715	2,681	2,086	1,367	1,401
Middle Schools	840,044	855,204	860,243	886,410	481,410	468,987
In primary schools	1 58	1 65	1 7	1 8	2 01	2 01
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population	1,702,679	1,734,119	1,758,548	1,873,461	1,908,248	2,081,166
Total Scholars in recognised institutions.	307,143	373,011	388,829	410,415	453,480	488,191
{ Male	2,006,827	2,107,127	2,172,177	2,289,376	2,443,878	2,667,167
{ Female						
Total	2,057,092	2,150,942	2,222,012	2,343,890	2,501,713	2,825,222
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.						
Percentage of total scholars to popu-	7 01	7 38	7 55	7 94	8 44	8 81
lation	1 01	1 05	1 16	1 26	1 35	1 40
{ Male	4 40	4 60	4 75	5 02	5 35	5 62
{ Female						
Total						
Number of Pupils in Class IV						
{ Male	85,725	89,858	91,815	96,842	117,013	126,086
{ Female						
Total						
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From Government funds	1,30,10	1,33,33	1,42,64	1,47,95	1,49,88	1,58,04
From local funds	14,80	15,46	16,37	16,81	16,20	17,23
From municipal funds	3,20	3,06	2,93	3,34	3,50	10,04
Total Expenditure from public funds	1,46,29	1,52,85	1,62,94	1,70,70	1,74,98	1,85,30
From fees	1,40,16	1,46,26	1,56,21	1,62,20	1,70,95	1,78,31
From other sources	56,93	87,76	88,79	84,86	68,79	75,37
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	3,44,48	3,86,86	3,76,84	3,97,76	4,14,72	4,38,98

Statement of Educational Progress in the UNITED PROVINCES.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	106,497	106,497	106,497	106,497	106,497	106,497
Population { Male	23,787,745	23,787,745	23,787,745	23,787,745	23,787,745	23,787,745
{ Female	21,588,042	21,588,042	21,588,042	21,588,042	21,588,042	21,588,042
TOTAL POPULATION	45,375,787	45,375,787	45,375,787	45,375,787	45,375,787	45,375,787
Recognized Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	36	37*	37	40	41	43
Number of high schools	162	162†	163	161	161	165
Middle Schools { English	74	77	78	88	95	96
{ Vernacular	550	578	597	628	638	646
Number of primary schools	16,814	17,851	18,221	18,816	19,635	20,014
Males Scholars in Recognized Institutions in arts colleges	7,166	8,040	9,089	9,513	9,718	10,387
In high schools	51,040	55,038	56,945	60,276	64,074	68,642
Middle Schools { English	7,807	8,230	9,241	10,993	12,438	13,265
{ Vernacular	47,101	49,410	64,986	60,548	66,022	76,261
In primary schools	858,643	990,716	962,314	999,853	1,038,579	1,094,665
Percentage of male scholars in Recognized Institutions to male population	4.13	4.31	4.62	4.86	5.22	5.43
Recognized Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	4	4*	5	5	5	5
Number of high schools	28	28†	26	27	28	27
Middle Schools { English	37	37	38	38	37	43
{ Vernacular	97	112	121	138	140	148
Number of primary schools	1,436	1,443	1,576	1,580	1,65*	1,709

* Excludes "Arts and Science" departments of teaching universities, but includes Intermediate and 2nd Grade Colleges of the new type

† Excludes "Intermediate" Colleges of the new type

Statement of Educational Progress in the UNITED PROVINCES—Contd.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
in arts colleges	87	102	118	135	154	187
in high schools	8,177	8,396	3,454	3,772	4,152	4,771
middle schools	4,438	4,210	4,352	4,950	4,410	5,078
	10,405	12,868	11,276	16,377	17,094	17,841
in primary schools	50,138	78,636	89,306	93,112	93,627	1,05,417
Percentage of female scholars in Recognised institutions to female population	46	46	51	0.65	59	0.62
TOTAL SCHOLARS in						
Recognised institutions { Males	950,591	1,026,089	1,110,477	1,191,293	1,248,284	1,292,412
Recognised institutions { Females	98,153	89,094	110,948	119,216	125,523	1,34,360
TOTAL	1,057,749	1,123,183	1,221,420	1,290,460	1,373,807	1,426,772
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male & female) in all institutions	1,150,762	1,192,415	1,293,625	1,349,401	1,434,843	1,491,434
Percentage of total scholars to { Males	4.40	4.37	4.94	5.15	5.47	5.7
population { Females	46	46	54	0.57	60	0.65
TOTAL	2.53	2.82	2.53	2.97	3.16	3.28
Number of Pupils in Class IV { Males					107,844	114,787
{ Females					4,714	5,180
TOTAL	58,310	56,115	91,443	100,969	112,578	119,967
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From provincial revenues	R ₁ 1,62.57	R ₁ 1,72.29	L ₁ 1,76.62	R ₁ 1,95.83	R ₁ 2,05.20	R ₁ 2,00.46
From local funds	80.81	57.16	80.78	32.57	33.10	35.73
From municipal funds	9.44	9.83	11.24	11.92	12.37	13.89
TOTAL Expenditure from public funds	2,02.82	2,09.31	2,20.64	2,40.37	2,50.67	2,59.08
From fees	38.94	42.14	43.23	46.49	52.92	5.646
From other sources	58.75	52.40	49.67	50.93	30.47	30.39
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	3,01.51	3,03.85	3,13.54	3,37.79	3,34.06	3,75.95

Statement of Educational Progress in the PUNJAB.

	1923-24.	1924-25	1925-26.	1926-27	1927-28.	1928-29
Area in square miles						
Population	99,466	99,866	99,866	99,866	99,866	99,866
{ Male	1,284,626	1,130,265	1,130,265	1,130,265	1,130,265	1,130,265
{ Female	9,378,759	9,378,759	9,378,759	9,378,759	9,378,759	9,378,759
Total Population	20,663,385	20,509,024	20,509,024	20,509,024	20,509,024	20,509,024
Recognized Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	17	21	21	21	21	21
Number of high schools	227	234	234	234	234	234
Middle Schools	182	189	209	218	218	218
{ English	887	1,204	1,738	2,114	2,518	2,518
{ Vernacular						
Number of primary schools	5,679	5,663	5,714	5,912	5,994	5,994
Males Scholars in Recognized Institutions						
In arts colleges	5,532	6,716	7,378	8,824	8,014	10,484
In high schools	95,914	101,947	111,244	114,981	118,240	122,082
Middle Schools	39,085	41,842	43,280	48,309	54,150	58,878
{ English	149,911	103,797	267,420	826,943	379,181	395,272
{ Vernacular						
In primary schools	380,293	252,005	375,483	388,534	385,969	859,844
Percentage of male scholars in recognized institutions to male population	6.1	0.76	7.04	8.82	9.23	8.91
Recognized Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools	18	19	21	21	27	32
Middle Schools	14	18	10	13	10	15
{ English	60	68	77	80	83	85
{ Vernacular						
Number of primary schools	1,016	1,089	1,162	1,282	1,385	1,409

Statement of Educational Progress in BURMA. †

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles ..	233,707	233,707	233,707	233,707	233,707	233,707
Population { Male Female	6,756,969 6,455,223	6,756,969 6,455,223	6,756,969 6,455,223	6,756,969 6,455,223	6,756,969 6,455,223	6,756,969 6,455,223
Total Population	13,212,192	13,212,192	13,212,192	13,212,192	13,212,192	13,212,192
Recognised Institutions for males						
Number of arts colleges ..	117	143	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools ..			140	140	161	164
Middle Schools { English Vernacular	111 1,170	111 1,240	111 1,215	309 1,070	116 1,034	113 1,036
Number of primary schools	8,661	3,400	8,524	8,913	4,128	4,315
Males Scholars in Recognised Institutions ..						
In arts colleges	782	979	942	1,116	1,287	1,323
In high schools	26,716	33,216	34,507	36,116	36,506	40,466
Middle Schools { English Vernacular	13,212 66,067	14,611 71,206	15,178 76,539	15,994 72,832	16,774 75,962	17,603 77,136
In primary schools	106,576	104,186	117,513	136,046	147,454	159,486
Percentage of male scholars in recognised institutions to male population	3.31	3.47	3.76	4.10	4.41	4.61
Recognised Institutions for females						
Number of arts colleges						
Number of high schools	20	24	25	23	21	23
Middle Schools { English Vernacular	23 125	29 148	31 143	33 50	33 76	36 78
Number of primary schools	607	635	677	606	572	639

* Includes also vernacular high schools

† Includes Federated Shan States

Statement of Educational Progress in BURMA—contd. †

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female Scholars to Recognised Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	89	108	121	138	153	169
In high schools	7,371	9,191	10,377	10,560	11,580	12,493
Middle Schools	6,803	5,624	6,815	8,242	6,719	6,332
English	89,803	41,107	46,710	45,535	46,694	48,030
Vernacular						
In primary schools	70,715	71,984	84,669	102,791	111,613	122,065
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population.	1.88	2.002	2.27	2.57	2.79	2.97
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions { Male Female Total	224,133 121,003 345,741	224,906 129,233 354,039	256,118 147,035 403,143	277,109 166,109 443,208	297,044 181,297 478,441	311,926 191,934 503,864
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	555,569	566,359	615,108	645,972	675,882	705,178
Percentage of total scholars to population { Male Female Total	6.32 1.84 4.30	6.42 2.41 4.80	6.80 2.41 4.06	7.01 2.06 4.80	7.17 2.88 5.11	7.31 3.16 5.84
No. of Pupils in Class IV { Male Female Total	27,045	28,236	29,477	29,184	25,212	29,184
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From Government funds	64.08	68.48	82.80	95.16	141.87	1,07.00
From local funds	17.58	15.12	17.47	26.43	27.66	28.36
From municipal funds	5.72	6.97	7.26	9.59	10.01	13.02
Total Expenditure from public funds	87.38	90.57	1,07.62	1,30.17	1,85.54	1,47.88
From fees	2,411	29,240	34,066	34,355	34,571	40,216
From other sources	19.95	26,74	32,13	29,32	31,32	29,06
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1,35.41	1,45.51	1,72.41	1,93.84	2,18.13	2,16.30

† Includes Federated Shan States

Statement of Educational Progress in BIHAR and ORISSA.

	1921-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles ..	83,226	83,226	83,226	83,105	83,105	83,105
Population .. { Male ..	16,765,163	16,765,163	16,765,163	16,765,163	16,765,163	16,765,163
.. { Female ..	17,239,833	17,239,833	17,239,833	17,239,833	17,239,833	17,239,833
Total Population ..	34,004,996	34,004,996	34,004,996	34,004,996	34,004,996	34,004,996
Recognized Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges ..	9	9	9	10	10	10
Number of high schools ..	125	123	120	135	133	143
Middle schools { English ..	253	272	263	221	294	429
.. { Vernacular ..	172	209	233	243	214	215
Number of primary schools ..	24,136	26,560	27,669	27,457	27,808	27,046
Male Scholars in Recognized Institutions						
In arts colleges ..	2,600	2,894	3,210	3,467	3,576	3,709
In high schools ..	30,043	30,918	26,103	28,210	41,150	44,113
Middle schools { English ..	23,375	25,233	28,085	24,042	43,078	49,415
.. { Vernacular ..	15,698	18,562	23,581	25,087	25,132	26,107
In primary schools ..	879,616	799,435	819,155	830,495	851,341	830,489
Percentage of male scholars in recognised institutions to male population	4.77	5.08	5.52	5.66	5.57	5.80
Recognized Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges ..	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools ..	4	4	4	4	4	4
Middle schools { English ..	15	15	15	17	16	20
.. { Vernacular ..	10	10	10	11	12	11
Number of primary schools ..	2,380	2,537	2,987	2,700	2,508	2,337

Statement of Educational Progress in BIHAR and ORISSA—Contd.

	1928-29	1944-45	1945-46	1946-47	1947-48	1948-49
Female Scholars in Recognized Institutions.						
In girls colleges	8	10	0	7	7	8
In high schools	758	741	748	801	892	924
Middle Schools						
{ English	1 516	1,906	1,716	1,961	2,039	2,010
{ Vernacular	1,524	1,477	1,494	1,528	1,825	1,882
In primary schools	96,023	104,716	111,239	110,650	112,921	110,219
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population	0.58	0.68	0.67	0.67	69	0.68
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions—						
{ Male	765,520	853,836	925,594	949,711	963,940	978,506
{ Female	100,661	109,587	119,078	115,765	118,522	116,580
Total	866,181	963,423	1,044,672	1,065,476	1,102,471	1,095,086
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	907,780	999,757	1,084,379	1,105,494	1,147,061	1,190,785
Percentage of total scholars to { Male	4.80	5.29	5.76	5.9	6.11	6.08
Population { Female	0.60	0.64	0.69	0.69	0.71	0.69
Total	2.66	3.93	3.18	3.26	3.37	3.54
Number of Pupils in Class IV						
{ Male	71 510	30 243	37 177	45 074	52 805	54 928
{ Female	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From Government funds	(J) 46,72	(A) 49.92	57.64	72.30	70.33	84.06
From local funds	25.68	(J) 32.53	40.86	48.36	51.43	49.76
From Municipal funds	2.24	(m) 2.35	2.98	3.17	4.83	2.83
Total Expenditure from public funds	74.64	84.80	1,01.68	1,23.83	1,26.33	1,37.61
From fees	20.50	26.36	29.53	32.66	36.05	36.58
Total Expenditure from other sources	50.29	24.31	22.61	22.94	24.28	24.25
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1 20,78	135.99	1,53.83	1,77.42	1,86.65	1,98.43

(J) Includes Rs. 75,146 and Rs. 4,012 paid by the Govt. of Bengal & Assam, respectively to the Hazaribagh Reformatory School.
 (A) Includes Rs. 90,494 and Rs. 5,093 paid by the Govt. of Bengal & Assam, respectively to the Hazaribagh Reformatory School.
 (m) Includes Rs. 22,90,000 from Govt. funds.
 (n) Includes Rs. 1,07,486 from Govt. funds.

Statement of Educational Progress in the CENTRAL PROVINCES and BERAR.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	89,876	99,876	99,876	99,876	99,876	99,876
Population	6,961,490 6,961,361	6,951,390 6,961,361	6,931,390 6,961,361	6,931,390 6,961,361	6,951,390 6,961,361	6,961,390 6,961,361
Total Population	14,913,760	15,613,760	15,613,760	15,613,760	15,613,760	15,613,760
Recognized Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	5	5	5	5	5	5
Number of high schools	42	43	45	49	52	57
Middle Schools { English	149	151	150	156	164	180
Vernacular	321	323	390	395	351	357
Number of primary schools	3,956	3,974	4,096	4,189	4,197	4,168
Male Scholars in Recognized Institutions						
in arts colleges	1,013	1,253	1,370	1,393	1,522	1,612
in high schools	3,854	4,272	4,650	4,895	5,239	5,815
Middle Schools { English	7,190	19,447	21,778	23,470	25,056	26,983
Vernacular	51,358	51,375	53,591	59,803	63,065	66,189
in primary schools	231,577	235,258	246,178	256,946	263,722	268,475
Percentage of male scholars in recognized institutions to male population.	4.6	4.53	4.74	5.02	5.21	5.25
Recognized Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	7	7	7	7	8	9
Number of high schools	13	15	14	14	15	15
Middle Schools { English	35	36	36	40	37	40
Vernacular	324	321	337	334	330	333
Number of primary schools

Statement of Educational Progress in the CENTRAL PROVINCES and BERAR—contd

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In city colleges	4	9	13	17	25	33
In high schools	160	197	188	190	160	216
{ English	661	743	818	909	1,101	1,183
Middle schools	4,613	5,018	5,400	6,482	6,889	7,486
{ Vernacular	31,646	30,111	31,794	34,163	36,882	40,860
In primary schools	54	53	65	0 61	0 65	0 72
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population						
MALES SCHOLARS in recognised institutions	307,804	314,084	330,098	349,260	362,891	372,044
Females	37,643	36,717	38,689	42,368	45,644	50,428
Total	345,447	350,801	368,787	391,628	408,535	422,472
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	383,140	382,153	377,983	399,289	414,874	431,836
Percentage of total scholars to { Males Female population.	4.7 56 3.33	4.87 54 2.60	4.86 57 2.72	5.11 62 2.86	5.29 68 2.98	5.45 76 3.10
No. of Pupils in Class IV						
{ Male Female Total	44,131	53,019	49,874	50,854	54,769	58,613
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From Government fund	53.02	50.06	53.87	71.73	65.89	66.74
From local funds	12.60	14.98	14.22	13.54	13.67	15.71
From municipal funds	6.98	6.73	7.35	7.38	8.36	8.58
Total Expenditure from public funds	72.55	71.77	75.44	92.65	88.92	91.03
From fees	8.61	11.09	11.46	11.82	13.00	14.85
From other sources	7.80	7.54	6.38	9.17	8.46	9.23
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	88.96	90.40	93.28	113.64	111.38	115.11

Statement of Educational Progress in ASSAM

	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	52,015	52,015	52,015	52,015	52,015
Population	3,981,109	3,981,109	3,981,109	3,981,109	3,981,109
	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121	3,645,121
	7,606,230	7,606,230	7,606,230	7,606,230	7,606,230
TOTAL POPULATION					
<i>Recognized Institutions for Males</i>					
Number of arts colleges	3	3	5	3	3
Number of high schools	42	44	45	46	48
Middle Schools	181	144	155	156	164
{ English	133	140	145	155	164
{ Vernacular					
Number of primary schools	4 120	4 277	4 877	4 710	4 908
<i>Male Scholars in Recognized Institutions</i>					
In arts colleges	1 027	1 144	1 086	1 029	1 154
In high schools	12,675	14,048	15,350	16,226	17,672
Middle Schools	9 507	11 607	12,837	14,151	15,785
{ English	14,045	16,235	17 209	19 495	21 298
{ Vernacular	166,760	179,022	183,660	198,967	208,565
In primary Schools	5 28	5 73	5 9	6 4	6 8
Percentage of male scholars in recognized institutions to male population					
<i>Recognized Institutions for Females</i>					
Number of arts colleges	3	5	5	5	5
Number of high schools	17	19	20	21	25
Middle Schools	15	12	11	11	13
{ English					
{ Vernacular	260	397	409	469	513

Statement of Educational Progress in ASSAM—contd

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In universities	577	708	989	1,012	1,147	1,391
In high schools	1,846	1,787	2,072	2,181	2,474	2,782
In middle schools	1,846	1,451	1,304	1,378	1,469	1,958
In primary schools	25,222	24,803	23,664	20,025	24,845	25,663
Percentage of Female Scholars in recognised Institutions to female population	0.80	0.85	0.91	0.95	1.0	1.2
Total Scholars in Recognised Institutions { Male Female	208,128 29,220	213,504 80,909	237,972 53,164	235,742 24,601	255,500 40,041	272,024 44,810
TOTAL	237,353	294,413	290,256	270,433	295,541	316,845
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	244,926	255,018	275,086	289,020	317,081	330,585
Percentage of Total Scholars { Male Female to population	5.46 0.88	5.57 0.89	6.1 0.95	6.3 1.0	6.9 1.2	7.3 1.3
TOTAL	3.2	3.35	3.6	3.7	4.1	4.4
No. of Pupils in Class IV { Male Female						
TOTAL	17,493	18,702	20,787	22,355	24,970	27,951
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)						
From Government funds	22.36	25.02	23.50	25.81	27.48	30.23
From local funds	4.25	4.45	4.90	6.04	5.14	5.81
From Municipal Funds	42	41	45	58	65	67
TOTAL Expenditure from Public Funds	27.16	27.48	28.55	30.83	32.38	36.11
From fees	6.37	5.39	6.79	7.44	7.20	8.44
From other sources	2.70	4.29	5.19	5.57	6.44	7.05
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	37.23	35.16	40.53	43.84	47.12	51.80

Statement of Educational Progress in COORG

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	1,532	1,532	1,532	1,532	1,532	1,532
Population	89,501 74,337	89,501 74,337	89,501 74,337	89,501 74,337	89,501 74,337	89,501 74,337
TOTAL POPULATION	163,838	163,838	163,838	163,838	163,838	163,838
Recognized Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	2	2	2	2	2	2
Number of high schools						
Middle Schools						
Number of primary schools	98	98	99	98	100	98
Male Scholars in Recognized Institutions						
In arts colleges	716	732	812	717	63	709
In high schools						
Middle schools						
In primary schools	5,217	5,043	5,123	5,446	6,342	6,207
Percentage of Male Scholars in recognized Institutions to male population	6.62	6.61	6.64	7.01	7.84	7.74
Recognized Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools						
Middle Schools						
Number of primary schools	9	9	9	9	9	9

Statement of Educational Progress in COORG—contd

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In high schools	192	210	233	221	239	267
In high schools						
English	2,290	2,295	2,603	2,427	2,534	2,571
Vernacular	3 32	8 37	3 69	8 56	3 73	3 82
In primary schools						
Percentage of Female scholars in recognised Institutions to female population						
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recog- nised Institutions	5 983 2,472	5,830 2,507	5,945 2,896	6,273 2,948	6 904 2,795	6,928 2,838
TOTAL	8,405	8,337	8,841	8,921	9,787	9,866
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all Institutions	8,778	8,413	8,908	9,115	10,209	10,171
Percentage of total scholars { Male to population	6 96 3 42	6 88 3 20	6 77 3 92	7 23 3 56	8 18 3 88	8 08 3 86
TOTAL	5 35	5 13	5 47	5 50	6 45	6 21
No of Pupils in Class IV { Male Female					1,088 74	907 312
TOTAL	1,083	1,044	1,108	1,108	1,162	1,219
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees.)</i>						
From Government funds	Rs 98	Rs 94	Rs 1 24	Rs 1 35	Rs 1 85	Rs 1 41
From local funds	40	40	42	43	45	45
From Municipal funds	3	2	3	4	4	5
TOTAL EXPENDITURE from Public Funds	1 35	1 36	1 69	1 72	1 82	1 89
From fees	41	80	44	44	41	43
From other sources	8	8	8	9	7	5
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	1 85	1 83	2 21	2 25	2 30	2 39

Statement of Educational Progress in the NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE.

	1929-30	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
Area in square miles	12,103	12,103	12,103	12,103	12,103	12,103
Population .. { Male	1,229,316	1,229,316	1,229,316	1,229,316	1,229,316	1,229,316
{ Female	1,022,026	1,022,026	1,022,026	1,022,026	1,022,026	1,022,026
Total Population.	2,251,342	2,251,342	2,251,342	2,251,342	2,251,342	2,251,342
Recognized Institutions for Males	3	3	3	3	3	3
Number of arts colleges	20	23	25	25	26	27
Number of high schools	14	11	14	13	13	13
Madrasah Schools { English	54	57	59	70	106	144
{ Vernacular	500	497	498	547	601	621
Number of primary schools	203	273	401	473	436	535
Madrasah Schools in Recognized Institutions	7,703	8,381	9,258	9,764	10,341	10,788
In arts colleges	4,431	3,977	3,965	3,516	3,497	3,368
In high schools	8,436	9,519	9,930	11,606	16,021	20,250
Madrasah Schools { English	24,023	26,576	28,293	29,575	32,379	33,263
{ Vernacular	37	30	423	49	51	56
Number of primary schools	2	2	1	2	1	1
Recognized Institutions for Females	2	2	1	2	1	2
Number of arts colleges	7	13	14	13	16	16
Number of high schools	60	63	63	70	71	63
Madrasah Schools { English						
{ Vernacular						
Number of primary schools						

Statement of Educational Progress in the NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE—contd.

	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Female Scholars in Recognized Institutions				
In arts colleges	1	2		
In high schools	86	108	123	119
Middle Schools				
English	1,192	1,832	2,440	2,959
Vernacular	2,993	3,812	4,937	5,764
In primary schools				
Percentage of female scholars in Recognized institutions	0.6	0.68	0.7	0.8
TOTAL SCHOLARS IN RECOGNIZED INSTITUTIONS				
Male	48,108	51,806	56,278	62,443
Female	5,460	8,280	10,572	12,521
TOTAL	53,568	60,086	66,850	74,964
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions.	57,297	64,516	70,718	78,153
Percentage of total scholars to population				
Male	4.5	4.9	5.0	5.9
Female	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8
Total	5.1	5.5	5.8	6.7
No of Pupils in Class IV				
Male	4,911	5,365	5,959	6,619
Female			831	878
TOTAL			6,790	7,497
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).				
From Government funds	10,47	11,57	15,96	17,84
From local funds	58	86	111	113
From municipal funds	1,44	1,30	1,42	1,68
Total Expenditure from public funds	12,49	13,73	18,49	20,65
From fees	1,02	1,39	2,14	2,30
From other sources	2,49	2,41	3,23	3,62
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	15,00	17,53	23,86	26,57

Statement of Educational Progress in DELHI.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles	593	593	533	593	593	593
Population { Male ..	281,633	281,633	281,633	281,633	281,633	281,633
{ Female	206,555	206,555	206,555	206,555	206,555	206,555
TOTAL POPULATION	488,188	488,188	488,188	488,188	488,188	488,188
<i>Recognized Institutions for Males</i>						
Number of arts colleges	2	5	5	5	9	8
Number of high schools	12	11	11	12	13	14
Middle Schools { English	16	17	18	17	18	19
{ Vernacular	6	6	8	8	12	17
Number of primary schools	131	131	133	148	157	163
<i>Male Scholars in Recognized Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	848	1,015	1,068	1,104	1,109	1,269
In high schools	3,552	3,512	3,731	4,225	4,968	4,376
Middle Schools { English	3,075	3,629	4,238	3,837	4,034	4,785
{ Vernacular	649	652	805	997	1,187	1,554
In primary schools	6,847	7,067	7,801	8,940	12,883	16,053
Percentage of male Scholars in Recognized institutions to male population	5.4	6.0	6.59	7.1	8.8	10.8
<i>Recognized Institutions for Females</i>						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	2	2	2	2	2	2
Middle Schools { English	..	9	8	8	9	1
{ Vernacular
Number of primary schools	21	24	25	33	38	4
<i>Female Scholars in Recognized Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	25	42	44	44	42	51
In high schools	497	497	545	522	575	555

Statement of Educational Progress in DELHI--contd.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29.
Uddle Schools { English Vernacular	1 213	1,249	1,209	1,456	1,674	1,947
n primary schools	749	1,176	1 432	2,368	2,942	3,942
Percentage of female scholars in Recognised institutions to female population	1 2	1 5	1 61	2 1	2 0	3 2
TOTAL SCHOLARS in Recog- nised institutions { Male Female	15,180	17,119	18,563	20,081	25,282	30,494
	2,570	3,056	3,343	4,485	5,344	6,747
TOTAL	17,750	20,175	21,906	24,566	30,626	37,241
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female in all institutions)	23,721	26,485	28,568	26,527	33,082	39,111
Percentage of total scholars to population { Male Female	7 1	7 9	8 1	7 7	9 5	11 3
	1 7	1 9	1 7	2 4	2 9	3 5
TOTAL	4 8	5 4	5 4	5 5	6 7	8 01
No. of Pupils in class IV { Male Female					1,364	2,247
					432	587
TOTAL	1,423	1,505	721	1,360	2,296	2,784
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs
From Government funds	7.29	7.30	7.04	7.59	9.58	10.32
From local funds	23	39	34	43	23	30
From Municipal funds	1.12	1.29	1.52	1.90	2.26	3.21
TOTAL EXPENDITURE from public funds.	8.63	8.93	9.01	9.92	12.07	13.83
From fees	2.02	2.66	2.63	2.83	3.22	3.82
From other sources	4.92	5.53	5.12	4.26	4.03	3.55
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE ..	14.57	17.22	16.76	17.00	19.32	21.21

Statement of Educational Progress in AJMER-MERWARA.

	1922-23	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Area in square miles						
Population	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711	2,711
Male	289,566	289,566	289,566	289,566	289,566	289,566
Female	225,705	225,705	225,705	225,705	225,705	225,705
TOTAL POPULATION	495,271	495,271	495,271	495,271	495,271	495,271
Recognised Institutions for Males						
Number of arts colleges	1	2	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	9	9	9	9	9	9
Middle School	6	6	6	7	7	18
English	11	11	11	11	12	13
Vernacular	128	143	146	147	189	189
Number of primary schools						
Male Scholars in Recognised Institutions						
In arts colleges	101	112	131	125	143	166
In high schools	2,329	3,821	2,533	2,712	2,812	3,041
Middle School	284	449	329	581	494	600
English	385	408	448	472	498	549
Vernacular	6,551	6,271	6,597	6,643	7,580	8,533
In primary schools	36	32	385	392	435	488
PROSECUTION OF MALE SCHOLARS IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS TO MALE POPULATION						
Recognised Institutions for Females						
Number of arts colleges						
Number of high schools	1	1	1	1	2	2
Middle School	3	3	3	4	8	3
English	2	2	3	3	5	5
Vernacular	9	9	12	9	21	27

Statement of Educational Progress in AJMER MERWARA—contd.

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female scholars in Recognised Institutions.</i>						
In arts colleges	173	170	144	151	169	235
In high schools	257	288	331	303	32	143
{ English						
{ Vernacular						
Middle School	336	399	502	618	92	114
In primary schools	551	466	652	477	1,705	1,991
..	0 58	0 61	0 73	0 73	0 9	1 09
<i>PROGRESS OF FEMALE SCHOLARS IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS AS FEMALE POPULATION</i>						
{ Male	9,808	9,632	10,351	10,651	11,037	13,188
{ Female	1,324	1,580	1,645	1,622	2,007	2,503
{ TOTAL	11,136	11,183	12,086	12,273	13,044	15,691
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</i>						
{ Male	16,223	15,899	16,616	17,271	17,890	18,451
{ Female	5 1	5 0	5 2	5 22	5 61	5 64
{ TOTAL	1 1	0 98	1 1	1 0	1 22	1 28
<i>Percentage of total scholars to population</i>						
{ Male	3 3	3 2	3 4	3 3	3 61	3 67
{ Female						
{ TOTAL	2 361	1 967	1 974	2 025	2 117	2 357
<i>No. of Pupils in Class IV</i>						
{ Male						
{ Female						
{ TOTAL						
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From Government funds	2,37	2,54	2,70	2,55	3,13	4,99
From local funds	17	16	19	26	20	21
From municipal funds	26	28	23	19	27	27
<i>TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS</i>	2,80	2,98	3 12	3 80	3 60	5,47
From fees	1,09	1,22	1,36	1,47	1,32	1 74
From other sources	1,76	1,47	1 63	1 56	1 56	1 59
<i>GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE</i>	5,65	5,63	6,10	6,83	6,51	8,90

Statement of Educational Progress in BALUCHISTAN

	1923-24.	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28.	1928-29.
area in square miles	54,223	54,223	54,223	54,223	54,223	54,223
Population	255,014	255,014	255,014	255,014	255,014	255,014
Male	124,024	124,024	124,024	124,024	124,024	124,024
Female	131,000	131,000	131,000	131,000	131,000	131,000
TOTAL POPULATION	430,024	430,024	430,024	430,024	430,024	430,024
<i>Recognised Institutions for Males</i>						
Number of arts colleges	3	4	4	4	5	5
Number of high schools	5	5	7	8	7	7
Middle Schools	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of primary schools	67	67	68	71	76	77
<i>Males students in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	1,202	1,202	1,545	1,508	1,622	1,615
In high schools	900	907	1,087	1,109	1,217	1,485
Middle Schools	98	56	43	59	65	85
In primary schools	1,709	1,773	1,929	1,819	1,768	1,875
PERCENTAGE OF MALE STUDENTS IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS TO MALE POPULATION.	1.27	1.71	1.75	1.8	1.9	2.90
<i>Recognised Institutions for Females</i>						
Number of arts colleges	5	3	5	4	5	5
Number of high schools		2	1	2	1	1
Middle Schools						
Number of primary schools	4	4	3	3	3	3

Statement of Educational Progress in BALUCHISTAN—contd

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female Scholars in Recognized Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges	40	62	14	19	24	20
In high schools	138	308	496	395	516	543
Middle schools	439	250	192	241	251	302
In primary schools	205	165	189	196	202	280
PROPORTION OF FEMALE SCHOLARS IN RECOGNIZED INSTITUTIONS TO FEMALE POPULATION	0.43	0.60	0.58	0.53	0.61	0.68
TOTAL SCHOLARS IN RECOGNIZED INSTITUTIONS	4,167	4,872	4,668	4,603	4,858	5,376
Male	823	836	890	870	998	1,118
Female	4,090	5,107	5,453	5,473	5,846	6,531
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	7,835	8,448	8,605	8,795	8,568	9,109
Percentage of total scholars to population	2.7	2.1	2.08	2.0	2.07	2.04
Male	4	58	0.66	0.8	0.79	0.86
Female	1.9	2.0	2.06	2.09	2.08	2.18
Number of Pupils in Class IV						
Male					472	511
Female					86	76
TOTAL	485	523	556	505	658	586
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From Government funds	2.01	2.06	2.48	2.45	2.51	2.04
From local funds	37	20	25	70	32	38
From municipal funds	21	28	34	32	38	38
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS	2.49	2.40	3.07	3.47	3.45	3.40
From fees	46	37	74	75	77	81
From other sources	38	83	82	57	60	54
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	2.56	3.19	4.48	4.79	4.72	4.95

* Includes expenditure on European Schools.

Statement of Educational Progress in BANGALORE.

	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
Aves in square miles	234	184	1854	1854	1854	1854
Population	61,165	61,576	61,576	61,576	61,576	61,576
Male	27,458	27,804	27,804	27,804	27,804	27,804
Female	33,707	33,772	33,772	33,772	33,772	33,772
TOTAL POPULATION	118,873	118,940	118,940	118,940	118,940	118,940
Recognized Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	5	5	5	5	5	5
Middle Schools	4	4	5	5	6	6
Number of primary schools	47	49	49	48	47	51
Male students in Recognized Institutions.						
In arts colleges	77	123	115	170	215	228
In high schools	1,377	1,067	2,113	2,179	2,328	2,587
Middle Schools	984	1,051	1,094	1,108	1,120	1,186
English	5	50	38	31	541	700
Vernacular	9,083	6,403	4,413	4,585	4,389	4,486
In primary schools	118	120	1279	135	142	144
Provision for Male Students in recognized institutions to male population						
Recognized Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges	1	1	1	1	1	1
Number of high schools	4	4	4	4	4	4
Middle Schools	2	3	3	3	2	2
English	4	4	4	4	5	5
Vernacular	21	23	24	24	25	24
Number of primary schools						

Statement of Educational Progress in BANGALORE—contd

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
<i>Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions</i>						
In arts colleges ..	811	812	810	509	332	219
In high schools ..	814	755	768	764	831	793
Middle Schools	283	203	353	239	245	341
{ English	594	581	559	701	837	886
{ Vernacular	2,435	2,649	2,833	3,030	2,969	3,049
In primary schools	75	806	880	88	90	94
<i>PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SCHOLARS IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS TO FEMALE POPULATION</i>						
{ Male	0.91	7.673	7.570	5.179	3.324	3.361
{ Female	4.549	4.633	4.986	5.206	5.391	5.396
{ TOTAL	11.510	12.355	12.556	13.385	13.915	14.378
<i>TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions</i>	12,892	13,007	13,625	14,332	14,715	14,945
<i>Percentage of total scholars to population.</i>	13.05	13.5	13.8	14.6	15.4	15.4
{ Male	7.7	8.3	8.9	9.1	9.1	9.6
{ Female	10.5	11.0	11.5	13.0	13.0	13.4
<i>Number of Pupils in Class IV</i>						
{ Male	1,119	1,323	1,340	1,379	1,395	1,399
{ Female						
{ TOTAL						
<i>Expenditure (in thousands of rupees)</i>						
From Government Funds ..	3.00	3.02	3.08	3.12	3.39	3.75
From local funds ..						
From municipal funds ..	52	35	31	56	51	46
<i>TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM FUNDS FUNDS</i>	3.52	3.37	3.39	3.68	3.90	4.21
From fees ..	2.41	2.60	2.53	2.69	2.92	3.08
From other sources ..	2.05	2.71	2.55	2.13	1.94	2.18
<i>GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE</i>	7.78	7.58	7.59	8.50	8.77	9.37

The Co-operative Movement.

The Need.—More than seventy per cent of the vast population of India subsist on agriculture and the majority of these millions generally live, under present conditions, from hand to mouth. The ryot's occupation is healthy and productive, and he is proverbially honest and straightforward in his dealings, except when years of famine and hardship make him at times crafty and recalcitrant. Owing to his poverty, combined with want of education and consequent lack of foresight, he has to incur heavy debts to meet occasional expenses for current seasonal purposes, the improvement of his land, or for ceremonial objects, and he has therefore to seek the assistance of the local money-lender, known as the Sowkar or the Mahajan. The rates of interest on such advances, though varying from province to province and even in different parts of a province, are generally very high. In addition to charging excessive rates, the Sowkar extorts money under various pretexts and often takes from the needy borrower bonds for amounts in excess of those actually advanced. One of the chief causes of the ryot's poverty is, that owing to the absence of security and his short-sightedness due to want of education, he did not as a rule collect and lay by his savings but frittered away his small earnings in extravagant and unproductive expenditure, on the purchase of trinkets and ornaments, and on marriage and other ceremonies. Tradition says that he hoarded coins under the ground with the likelihood that on his death the money was lost to his family for good. This absence of thrift and the habit of dependence, in case of difficulty, on the Government or on the Sowkar are the bane of his life. There is besides a general absence of ideals or desire for progress. A co-operative society changes all this, inasmuch as it provides him with a suitable institution in which to lay by his savings and teaches him the valuable lesson of self help through the sense of responsibility he feels in being its member. Thus the chronic poverty and indebtedness of the Indian agriculturist afford a very good field for the introduction of co-operative methods, especially as his work is of a productive character likely to enable him to earn a better living under circumstances more invulnerable than they are at present.

Genesis of the Movement.—The question of improving rural credit by the establishment of agricultural banks was first taken up in the early sixties when Sir W. Wedderburn, with the assistance of the late Mr. Justice M. G. Ranade, prepared a scheme of agricultural banks which was approved of by Lord Ripon's Government but was not sanctioned by the Secretary of State. The matter was not again taken up until about fifteen years later when Lord Wellesley's Government in Madras despatched Mr. F. A. (now Sir Frederick) Nicholson, to report on the advisability of starting agricultural or land banks in that Presidency for the financing of the agricultural industry. There was in existence in Madras an indigenous system of banking available for persons of small means. This institution called the Nidhi, corresponded in some respects

to the provident funds and friendly societies in European countries. Through these Nidhis provided cheap capital to agriculturists the spirit of co-operation was lacking in them. Sir Frederick submitted an extensive report to Government suggesting that the formation of co-operative societies afforded an excellent means for relieving rural indebtedness. Unfortunately, the report was not received favourably either by the non-official public or by the Government of Madras, and no action was taken on the recommendations made in it. The next few years saw two of the worst famines from which India had ever suffered and in 1901 Lord Curzon appointed a Commission to report on the measures to be adopted in future to protect the ryot from the ravages of famines and to relieve distress. The Commission laid stress on the proper working of the Agricultural Loans and the Land Improvement Loans Acts under which (tailed) advances are made by Government to cultivators. This system was given a long trial in the years previous to the great famines as well as during the years succeeding the 1899-1900 famine. But it is acknowledged on all hands that the system has not been successful in solving the problem of rural stagnation, as it is clear that it is not facility for obtaining cheap capital alone which will raise the agriculturist and relieve him from his debts, but the provision of capital combined with the inculcation of habits of thrift and self-help. This Commission also recommended that the principal means of relieving famines was by strengthening the moral backbone of the agriculturist and it expressed the view that the introduction of co-operation in rural areas might be useful in securing this end.

Co-operative Credit Societies Act.—These recommendations induced Lord Curzon to appoint a Committee with Sir Edward Law at its head to investigate the question and a report was submitted to Government recommending that co-operative societies were worthy of every encouragement and of a prolonged trial. Individual Officers of Government were at the same time making experiments on similar lines in the United Provinces and the Punjab with satisfactory results. All these activities, however, took an organised shape only when Lord Curzon's Government introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council a Bill to provide for the constitution and control of co-operative credit societies. The main provisions of the Bill which became the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act (Act X of 1904) were—

- (1) That any ten persons living in the same village or town or belonging to the same class or caste might be registered as a co-operative society for the encouragement of thrift and self-help among the members.
- (2) The main business of a society was to raise funds by deposits from members and loans from non-members, Government and other co-operative societies, and to distribute the money thus obtained in loans to members, or with the special permission of the Registrar, to other co-operative credit societies.
- (3) The organisation and control of co-operative credit societies in every Province were put under the charge of a special Govern-

ment officer called the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies.

(4) The accounts of every society were to be audited by the Registrar or by a member of his staff free of charge.

(5) The liability of a member of a rural society was to be unlimited.

(6) No dividends were to be paid from the profits of a rural society, but the profits were to be carried at the end of the year to the reserve fund, although when this fund had grown beyond certain limits fixed under the bye-laws, a bonus might be distributed to the members.

(7) In urban societies no dividend was payable until one-fourth of the profits in a year were carried to the reserve fund.

Soon after the passing of the Act the local Governments in all the Provinces and major provinces appointed Registrars with full powers to organise registers, and supervise societies. In the early stages of the working of this Act, Government loans were freely given to the societies, and the response to the organising work of the Registrars was gradual and steady throughout most parts of the country.

Co-operative Societies Act.—As co-operation progressed in the country defects were noticed in the Co-operative Credit Societies Act and these were brought to the attention of Government by the Conferences of the Registrars which were for some years held annually. In two directions the need for improved legislation was especially felt. In the first place, the success of credit societies had led to the introduction of co-operative societies for distribution and for purposes other than credit for which no legislative protection could be secured under the then existing law. And, secondly, the need for a free supply of capital and for an improved system of supervision had led to the formation of various central agencies to finance and supervise primary credit societies and these central agencies ran all the risks attendant on a status unprotected by legislation. The Government of India recognising the desirability for removing these defects, decided to amend the old Act, and a Bill embodying the essential alterations proposed was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council, and after a few amendments it emerged from the Council as the Co-operative Societies Act (II of 1912) replacing Act X of 1904. The outstanding features of the new Act were as under—

(a) It authorised the formation of societies for purposes other than credit, which was possible under the old Act only with the special permission of the Local Government. (This extension of co-operation to purposes other than credit marks an important stage in its development in India.)

(b) It defined, in precise terms, the objects for which co-operative societies could be organised.

(c) It removed the arbitrary division of societies into rural and urban and substituted a more scientific division in accordance with the form of liability adopted.

(d) It facilitated the growth of central agencies by limiting on limited liability by means of a special clause about the registration of a society one of whose members is a registered society.

(e) It empowered Local Governments to frame rules and alter bye-laws so as to put restrictions on the dividends to be declared by societies and allowed to societies with unlimited liability the discretion to sanction distribution of profits to their members according to principles laid down by the Local Governments.

(f) It allowed societies with the permission of the Registrar to contribute from their net profits, after the reserve fund was provided for, amounts up to 10 per cent of their remaining profits to any charitable purpose as defined in the Charitable Endowments Act. (This kept the movement in touch with local life by permitting societies to lend assistance to local educational and charitable institutions.)

(g) It prohibited the use of the word "co-operative" as part of the title of any business concern except a registered society.

Composition of the Capital of Agricultural Societies.—On the organisation of agricultural credit was necessarily concentrated the attention of the promoters, for it presented a far more important and far more difficult problem than urban credit. There was a great variety of types among the agricultural societies started in different provinces, and some Registrars adopted the "Half-interest" and some the "Lusatti" methods in their entirety. The commonest type, as prevailing in the Punjab, Burma, and the United Provinces—and now extended practically all over India—is the unlimited liability society with a small fee for membership and a share capital, the share payments to be made in annual instalments. In some places, the bye-law insist on compulsory deposits from members before entitling them to enjoy the full privileges of membership. Part of the working capital is raised by deposits from members and other local sympathisers but the bulk of it in all provinces is obtained by loans from central and other co-operative societies. The proportion of owned capital to the total resources is growing almost everywhere. In all the Provinces, the Government set apart in the initial stages every year a certain sum to be advanced as loans to newly started co-operative societies, usually up to an amount equal to the deposits from members, raised by a society. State aid in the form of direct money does to agricultural credit societies has now become an exception rather than the rule, and this withdrawal in no way hampers the development of the movement on account of the rapid increase of co-operative financing agencies and the growth of public confidence in these institutions. Out of a total working capital of 32½ crores, 4 crores were loans, 5 crores reserves, 1½ crores deposits of members, 1½ crores deposits from non-members and societies, 2 crores loans from Government and 10½ crores loans from central societies. In Bombay, since 1923 Government have taken the place of the deposit of the Provincial Bank as a guarantee for distribution of advances to agriculturists under the Land Improvement Loans Act, such advances to be made through the primary societies and the central banks to which these are affiliated. The Royal Commission on Agriculture have recommended that where co-operative land mortgage banks are organised

they provide suitable agency for the distribution of loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act.

Constitution of Agricultural Credit Societies.—The typical agricultural credit society in India corresponds to the "Raisfelsen society," the management being gratuitous, the profits indivisible, and the area of work limited. Where shares form an integral part of the system, the distribution as dividend of a portion of the profits after ten years working is permitted under certain restrictions although in the Punjab the tendency now is to make the profits wholly indivisible and the shares non-withdrawable. In several parts of the country there are villages where a few literate agriculturists may be found but many of these are hardly fit enough to undertake the responsible work of a secretary, being practically ignorant of account-keeping. In such villages either the village school master or the village accountant is sometimes appointed secretary. In some places, where a suitable person is not available on the low pay a single society can afford, neighbouring societies are grouped together with a whole time well paid secretary. In the Central Provinces, especially and to a certain extent in Bihar and Orissa, Bengal and the United Provinces, the accounts are written up by group secretaries, clerks or Muharrirs, controlled more or less by the staff of central banks or unions to which societies are affiliated. As the work of societies develops, the need for trained secretaries is being felt more keenly for it is now realized that the function of a secretary does not consist merely in writing the accounts correctly. With a view to meet the demand for trained secretaries, training classes have been organised in Bombay, in the Punjab, in Bengal and elsewhere during the last few years and efforts have been made to provide education in co-operation through the new educational and propagandist associations which have been started in most of the major provinces. Arrangements have also been devised in some provinces to educate the members of managing committees in the principles of the movement through peripatetic instructors and courses of simple lectures are delivered at central villages while the local unions have been utilized to promote such co-operative education among rural workers.

Internal Management of Societies.—The managing committee of a society consists of five to nine members, the chairman being usually one of the leading persons in the village. The daily work is carried on by the secretary but the managing committee supervises this and has alone the power to admit new members, to receive deposits, to arrange for outside loans, to grant loans to members and to take notice of defaulters. The practice is now growing of fixing the normal credit of every member once or twice in the year at a general meeting and the committee can sanction loans only within the limits so fixed. The accounts of the society are kept by the secretary and the necessary forms, papers, and books are usually supplied from the Registrar's office or the central organisations referred to above to simplify the work of the secretary. The books are kept according to the rules framed by the

Local Governments and are open to inspection by the Registrar and his staff. The accounts are audited, at least once a year by the auditors working under the Registrars of Co-operative Societies and the societies are inspected from time to time by honorary or paid inspectors. In Burma and Madras the supervision is carried out by unions, while in Bihar and Orissa, and Bengal the responsibility for supervision rests mainly with the central banks. In the Central Provinces, the inspection was for some years controlled by the Provincial Federation working through the central banks. Recently the arrangements have been revised and a group system has been introduced under which groups of societies are looked after by full time officers working under local boards composed of representatives of the Co-operative Department. The central bank and the propagandist and educational institutes. The work is co-ordinated through and controlled by divisional representatives boards. In Bombay supervision is conducted partly by unions, partly by central banks and partly by honorary organisers. In the Punjab while paid for by societies, the inspecting staff works under the direct orders of the Provincial Union with the Registrar as its President. Similar arrangement have now been devised in the United Provinces.

The supreme seat of authority in co-operative societies is the entire body of members assembled in general meetings at which every member has one vote and one only. At the annual general meeting held at the close of the co-operative year the accounts are submitted, the balance-sheet passed, and the managing committees with the chairman and secretaries are elected. The general meeting fixes in some provinces the borrowing limit of individual members, lays down the maximum amount up to which the managing committees may borrow during the ensuing year, dismisses members for misconduct or serious default, and settles the rates of interest for loans and deposits. All the net profits of a society are annually carried to the reserve fund, which is indivisible, that is, incapable of distribution as dividend or bonus, which cannot be drawn upon without the sanction of the Registrar, and which must be invested in such manner as the rules framed under the Act may prescribe. It is intended to meet unforeseen losses and to serve as an asset or security in borrowings. Except in the Central Provinces and Madras, and to some extent in a few other provinces, the reserve funds of primary societies are generally utilised in the grant of loans to members, unless they have considerable outside deposits and have to make special arrangements in respect of fluid resource to cover such borrowings.

Main defects.—The main defects of primary societies may be summarized. The most prominent is the evil of unpunctuality. The percentage of overdues so total outstandings was a little over for all the provinces and States, but was as high as in some provinces. These arrears are due more to easy going ways of life and the narrowness of margin between income and expenditure than to malfeasance. Next is the general apathy of the members towards the

working of the societies owing to their lack of education and an absence of higher ideals. The general body very often leaves affairs wholly to the discretion of the committee and the committee transfers its powers to the chairman, secretary or some other member. Then there is the objectionable practice of making book adjustments and taking benefit loans. A grave defect is the inability of the societies to act as real banks, accepting for deposit money when presented, meeting withdrawals of such savings deposits or temporary surplus funds without delay and granting loans on demand according to actual requirements. In many a society, activity is displayed only twice in the year, once during the cultivation season when loans are advanced, and again after harvest time when recoveries are made. In several provinces members have to wait for weeks before they can get funds for agricultural operations and as such operations must be proceeded with, resort to the money lender is not uncommon. With the approval of normal credits in advance and the provision of banking facilities through the opening of branches of district banks or the starting of central banks for smaller areas this defect is now being gradually remedied. To provide for members who want large loans on the security of land for clearance of debt or agricultural improvement, separate land mortgage societies have been started in the Punjab, Madras and Bombay and may be found necessary in other Provinces where large amounts are required by agriculturists on the security of their landed property. The arrangements for financing the scheme of land mortgage credit differ from province to province. In the Punjab Provincial Bank, after entering into an agreement with Government has issued long term debentures bearing interest 6 per cent to the extent of Rs 5 lakhs. A similar scheme for land mortgage banks for groups of villages has also been accepted in Madras where the local Government have agreed to the subscribe to half the capital required if the other half is raised locally. A few banks have already commenced working. But the system of each local bank floating its own debentures does not seem to have found favour and Government have approved of the starting of a central land-mortgage to provide capital by raising debentures Government agreeing to guarantee interest on half a crore of debenture for five years. This Bank was registered in the year and has received a subsidy from Government who have in addition given further assistance by appointing a special staff for the work of inquiry and investigation. It is proposed in Burma to have for the work of land mortgage credit a separate organisation, distinct from the organisation for co-operative credit. In Bombay the assistance asked for from the State for the scheme of co-operative land mortgage banks is the recognition of the land mortgage bank's debentures as trustee securities, and a Government guarantee for payment of interest. The Government of Bombay have approved of the starting of three societies for land mortgage credit, but in the initial stages finance is to be provided for these bodies by the existing Bombay Provincial Bank, the debentures issued by which, in accordance with its agreement with the Secretary of

State, will be purchased by Government to the extent of Rs. 5 lakhs. The three Societies started work during the year and have already absorbed the funds raised by the sale of debentures of the value of two lakhs. As the bye laws of primary agricultural societies in many provinces place a limitation on the amount of loan that can be advanced to an individual and financing agencies are often unable to make long term advances societies cannot be said everywhere to have supplanted the money lender. In Bombay an attempt has been made to remedy this defect by the sanction of special limits in excess of the ordinary limit of persons with larger requirements.

Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.—Non-agricultural credit societies have sprung up in towns and cities as part of a movement for improving the economic condition of persons engaged in handicrafts and cottage industries, of artisans and small traders, members of particular castes and employees of big firms and Government departments. These societies have usually a limited liability. This is due partly to the absence of any assets in real property among their members, but mainly to the field of their work not being compact as is the case with agricultural societies, where every member may be expected to know every other member. Their constitution is based on the Schulze Delslache model. In most societies, the management is honorary, though sometimes when the sphere of a society's work is extended, a paid staff is employed. There is in all societies a substantial share capital, payments being made in monthly instalments, and the rest of the working capital is obtained by local deposits from members and others. Loans from co-operative banks and societies usually form only a meagre proportion of the capital. At the end of the year 1928-29 out of a total working capital of nearly 13 2/3 crores only 1 1/8 crore were held from central banks.

At the end of every year, one-fourth of the net profits must be carried to the reserve fund and the balance may be distributed as dividend or bonus. There are a few drawbacks in the working of these societies. The most serious of these complaints are that the spirit of co-operation is lacking in many non-agricultural societies, that there is too great a desire to go in for profit-making and dividends and a growing tendency to make the societies close preserves once they have started running on profitable lines. The rates of interest on loans are at times higher than they ought to be, and the men at the head of the societies are loath to admit new members who are in need of loans for fear of the latter cutting down the profits.

Included in this group are communal societies, and societies of employees of firms, railway companies and Government offices. There are again, in Bombay and Burma, a few societies organised on the lines of the People's Banks of Italy to assist small traders and artisans in towns and there are also some societies comprising members of particular communities. The larger banks in Bombay and Burma open current accounts grant cash credits and overdrafts and issue or discount local bills of exchange. In Bombay, during the last few years some of the urban people's banks

have also begun to finance traders on the security of goods including agricultural produce, and this line of work is expected to develop considerably in course of time. These banks give promise of developing a truly non-capitalist system of banking run for the people and by the people, providing for the person of small means those modern banking facilities which have so largely assisted in developing trade and industry in other countries. Some of the larger non-agricultural societies after meeting the needs of their members, have large balances on hand, which they were allowed, with the previous sanction of the Registrar, to advance to smaller primary societies. This practice is however being now discontinued, and the surpluses of all primary societies are being concentrated in their central banks through which all finance is provided.

With the growth of industries and the development of cities an important labouring class has grown up in big industrial towns, and this class is as deeply indebted and as badly remunerated as the agriculturists. Ultimately as Co-operation, if introduced, among people of this class, provides opportunities of organization for common ends besides being the means of their economic regeneration. Systematic efforts have been made, however, only in a few centres, elsewhere urban co-operation has so far been confined more or less to middle class people. The first experiment among backward classes was initiated in Bombay under the auspices of an organization known as the Debt Redemption Committee. Considerable work in this direction has also been done in Madras, through social workers and the Labour Department particularly among the depressed classes and among the low paid employees of municipal bodies. The Social Service League of Bombay and the Y M C A in several other centres have lately started a large number of credit societies among factory workers, and the formation of co-operative credit societies for workers in factories has come to be recognised as an essential feature of every well considered scheme of industrial welfare work.

Loans advanced.—The total amount of loans advanced to members by agricultural and non-agricultural societies during the year 1925-26 were Rs. 12,55,52,204 and Rs. 9,22,98,312, respectively. Loans are mostly given on the security of two co-members. Under the Act, societies are allowed, subject to certain conditions, to advance loans on the hypothecation of moveable or immovable property, and there is nothing unco-operative in this so long as personal security which is the central principle of co-operation, is given and the borrower's property is recognised as only a secondary or collateral protection. Mortgages are taken occasionally, especially as security for long-term loans or loans for large amounts. Agricultural credit societies are not permitted to grant advances on the security of moveable property without the special sanction of the Registrar owing to the difficulty likely to be experienced in valuing such property and keeping it in safe custody, advances on the pledge of gold and silver ornaments are recently being introduced at some branches of the Provincial Bank of Bombay for members of rural societies. In

Madras, Bombay, and Burma the practice has been adopted of granting short term advances against agricultural produce to be kept in possession by the societies or by some central organization on their behalf. The system of advances on the specific security of crops in the fields has also been introduced in some provinces. Loans for agricultural purposes are made repayable at harvest time while two or three annual instalments are allowed for repayment of advances taken for purchase of bullocks, carts, implements or for ceremonial or domestic expenses. The repayment of loans for liquidation of previous debt or for land improvement or purchase and installation of agricultural machinery is spread over a longer period extending from five to ten years.

It is impossible to insist on the restriction of loans to productive objects and there are circumstances under which unproductive loans are permissible and even advisable. What should be and generally is borne in mind is that precautions are taken by societies that the expenditure is inevitable and that it is not excessive in amount. The chief objects of the loans advanced are cultivation expenses, purchase of live-stock, fodder, seed, manure and agricultural implements, payment of rent, revenue or irrigation dues, land improvement and sinking of wells, purchase of new lands, repayment of debt or redemption of mortgaged land and personal maintenance in times of scarcity in agricultural societies, and for purchase of raw materials, for industries, or trade, for house building, for education or medical relief and for food and other necessities of life in non-agricultural societies. The rates of interest vary from 9½ per cent. in Madras and Bombay to 12½ in the Punjab and 15 in almost all the other major provinces, both for agricultural and non-agricultural societies. Rates of lending by central banks vary from about 7 or 8 per cent in Madras and Bombay, to 9 in the Punjab, 10 in Burma and about 12 in all the other major provinces. An unsatisfactory feature of the co-operative system in some of the provinces is the laxity and unpunctuality in the matter of repayment of loans by members and a general apathy in the matter on the part of societies. As co-operation is both financially and educationally a failure unless punctuality in repayment is ensured, no efforts are spared by organisations to educate societies in this respect. The Co-operative Societies Act grants to societies priority of claim over other creditors (except the State or the landlord) to enforce any outstanding demand due to the societies from members or past members upon the crops or other agricultural produce, and upon the cattle, fodder or agricultural implements, of members to whom loans have been advanced for the purposes specified. Law courts have ruled that the claim is not valid unless a decree is obtained by a society in its favour in advance. To carry out the intention of the framers of the legislation, the Madras Committee recommended the conversion of this claim into a lien and thus get over the legal difficulty, and this has already been done under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act, 1925. Most local Governments have also framed rules under the Act enabling the Registrar to refer

disputed claims to arbitration and to enforce the awards of the arbitrator in the same manner as decrees of the Civil Court. Under the rules in some provinces, and according to the new Act in Bombay sums due under awards of arbitrators are, under certain conditions made recoverable according to the procedure allowed for the recovery of arrears of land revenue. The Local Governments of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa were the first to adopt enactments enabling the contributions levied by the liquidator of a cancelled society to be collected in the same manner as arrears of land revenue on an application being made in that behalf by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies. Legislation on similar lines has since then been adopted in almost all other provinces.

The Financing of Agricultural Societies.—As soon as the initial stage of the movement passed, a very urgent problem had to be faced. This was to finance agricultural societies the number of which was growing rapidly. And the problem was solved in different provinces according to the special conditions and the stages of development the movement had attained. In Madras, a central bank, which lent to co-operative societies all over the Presidency, was started without Government aid as early as in 1907. This was followed by the starting of banks at district headquarters. In other provinces district and taluka banks were established making good the deficiency in the local capital of the societies within their respective areas of operations and in some places joint stock banks were persuaded to make advances to agricultural societies direct or through the medium of local central banks. A large number of prosperous non-agricultural societies, as stated above could in the early days afford to make temporary advances to agricultural societies out of their surplus funds. Government aid was also freely given in a few provinces, although with the progress of the movement, this aid was discontinued. In Bombay there was no movement to start local financing agencies and the slow increase in the number of societies made it difficult for central banks with a restricted area of operations to work successfully. Accordingly, the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank was founded in 1911, with the object of financing co-operative societies throughout the Presidency. Later on, local central banks came to be started, and have taken over from the central bank at Bombay the work of financing societies in the various districts. The bank at Bombay has, therefore, assumed the functions and even the name of a Provincial Bank. It confines its dealings with primary societies to those areas where central banks are not likely to be established in the near future or where special local circumstances favour direct relations with a strong financial organisation. For areas served by it, the Provincial Bank has opened twenty-eight branches, and twenty-six branches have been started by several of the leading district central banks.

The Madras Central Bank referred to above has also been converted into a Provincial Bank working through the district banks. A Provincial Bank with central banks and societies affiliated to it is in existence in

Burma, and this Bank finances primary societies either through the affiliated local banks of which, however, the majority are new and with resources undeveloped, or through the guaranteeing unions composed of societies. An Apex Bank was started in the Central Provinces in 1913 to form a link between the central banks and the joint stock banks with branches in the province. It led to the establishment of a Provincial Bank with a similar constitution in Bihar and Orissa. A Provincial Bank composed of central banks as shareholders has been started in Bengal, where, as also in Bihar and Orissa, primary societies are at present financed by central banks at district or taluka headquarters. In the United Provinces, primary societies are financed on the same system, and there too, the starting of a Provincial Apex Bank under which central banks will be federated has long since been under contemplation, but the proposal has been finally abandoned by the Local Government. The Punjab has a local central banking system and an Apex Bank with central banks and societies as shareholders has been started, with power to issue debentures, as in Bombay, with interest guaranteed by Government. Debentures of the value of Rs 5 lakhs have already been issued with interest at 6 per cent. guaranteed by Government. In addition to the Provincial Banks mentioned above, Assam has a Provincial Bank as also the Indian States of Mysore and Hyderabad.

The constitution of central banks is not uniform, but the existing banks may be classified under three general heads:—(1) banks in which the membership is confined to individuals or where societies are admitted as members on exactly the same footing as individuals, (2) banks of which the membership is confined to societies, and (3) banks which include societies and individuals as their members and secure to societies separate representation on the board of directors. The majority of the central banks are of the mixed type and there are hardly any of them which now adhere to the old capitalist constitution. The federal type is theoretically the best but the paucity of the resources of the constituent primary societies, the lack of personnel and the need for enlisting the support of the urban middle classes have all combined to make the mixed type the most popular in almost all provinces. In Bengal and the Punjab, as also to a smaller degree in the United Provinces and Bihar and Orissa, there has recently been an increase in the number of federal central banks, which are found to work well, provided their area of operations is much smaller than a revenue district and they serve a compact group of well established societies. Branches of banks, central and provincial, have been tried with success only in Bombay.

Functions of Central Banks.—The functions of central banks are to balance the funds of societies and to supply capital. But their duties are not limited to the provision of banking facilities only, but often include the inspection and development of societies. Hence in all the major provinces with the exception of the Punjab, Madras and Burma, central banks perform the functions of inspection and guidance of the societies affiliated to them.

and as some they also organise new societies and even take up the work of training and propaganda. Usually, the unit of area for a central bank is fixed as co-terminous with the whole of a revenue district, as the personnel necessary for its successful working may be difficult to secure in a smaller area. However, in most of the provinces of Upper India and Bengal there are in existence central societies for talukas and occasionally for smaller tracts. An important class of institutions included under the statistics of central societies are unions. These may be described as federations of societies which are organized for supervision either combined or not with the assessment or guarantee of loans to primary societies. They do not, however, undertake banking business, except in the Punjab, the unions in which save for the smallness of the area they cover in no way differ from the pure type of central bank referred to above. These supervising unions have a very restricted sphere of operations, covering an area not larger than a taluka. They formed integral parts of the provincial organization in Burma and originally in the Central Provinces also, in one province serving as a link between primary societies and the provincial bank and in the other between primary societies and local banks. In both, however, the machinery has broken down having been found defective. The system of unions for supervision was first started in Madras and has now developed to such an extent that almost every primary society is affiliated to a union. In Bombay guaranteeing unions were introduced as local agencies for supervision and assessment of credit, but the policy now is to have new unions which enforce the guarantee and work as supervising and local controlling bodies with a fairly wide area of operations and engage competent well-trained supervisors. Government and central banks grant subsidies to these bodies. In Burma and Madras, some progress has been made in federating the unions into district councils intended to co-ordinate local activities and to represent local co-operative interests. In Bombay too a beginning has been made in the same direction by constituting district unions boards composed of representatives of the unions, the financing agencies the Co-operative Institute and the Co-operative Department.

Organization and Propaganda—It may be mentioned that in most of the provinces, the work of organizing and looking after the societies was in the earlier days done by the Registrar with the help of a staff of assistant registrars, auditors and other officers and a few honorary non official workers. In Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and the United Provinces where the central bank system has developed properly, the directors of the central banks either themselves or through a paid agency, organise societies and, as stated above, supervise their working. Apart from these, the number of honorary workers is steadily increasing, and in some provinces there is a staff of specially appointed honorary organisers who regularly assist the Registrars. The activities of the honorary workers are often, however, spasmodic and unorganised, and in most of the major provinces the need has been felt for some co-operative institution which will

so ordinate and systematise the efforts of non-official workers, and place their activities on a responsible basis. The objective is to have the movement directed and controlled through self governing representative bodies like organisation societies or federations existing in Germany, England Ireland and elsewhere. Such institutions carry on active educational propaganda and through the agency of local committees and groups of workers assist in the organisation of new societies and attend to their supervision. Arrangements are made for carrying on the audit of societies on payment of some fixed contributions. Finally, such federations may gradually manage to have the ultimate voice in the determination of policy, and subject to the statutory powers of the Registrar may hope to take over, in course of time, the entire control of the co-operative organisation in a province. In the Central Provinces, there functioned as a controlling body a federation of Co-operative Banks and Societies which provided a regular and efficient system of supervision audit and control, arranged for the training of the federation staff attempted to secure uniformity of practice among co-operative institutions and to promote their interests and foster the spread of co-operation by active propaganda. The working of this Federation was adversely criticised in the report of a Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Local Government in 1922 and it was proposed that this body should be dissolved and replaced by separate educational institutes for the Central Provinces and Berar. Though the Federation has not been dissolved institutes for education and propaganda have already been started in Berar and the Jubulpore and Nerbudda Divisions. A Provincial Union is also in existence in Madras, whose objects are mainly educational and propagandist. Its activities comprise the issuing of co-operative journals the organisation of training classes and the holding of conferences. Its constitution and its line of work have now been revised so as to make it the central self governing organisation in the movement but its working has been considerably hampered by lack of funds and want of support from societies. Its relations both with societies, unions, district federations and the local organizations for Andhra Pradesh, Malabar and Kanara, are still undefined. A Central Institute to focus the efforts of co-operative workers and to carry on propagandist work was established in Bombay in 1918. The objects of this institution are to develop the co-operative movement in the Presidency by promoting the study of co-operation and by co-ordinating the activities of several existing propagandist and organisation agencies. The Institute has no powers of control though it is expected to ascertain and represent the views of co-operators on questions affecting the movement. The activities of the Institute in the mutual aid are carried on through its divisional branches formed on a linguistic basis and local branches in all the revenue districts of the Presidency. This is one of the most active among the non official central organizations in India, and has established international relations. The Provincial Co-operative Institute, as well as similar organizations in other parts of India, join in the celebration of the International Co-operators' Day on the first Saturday in July. As the month of July is

suitable for agriculturists all over India for the organization of demonstrations the celebrations are now proposed to be held annually in November. Public addresses, social gatherings, conventions, processions and mass meetings are arranged on this day in villages, towns and cities. The constitution of the Institute in Bombay has recently been revised with a view to give to societies a larger representation and a predominant share in the working. The Institute receives a handsome grant from Government, but will be in a position to increase its income from within the movement under its revised bye laws. In Bengal a similar propagandist organisation has been started with identical aims. The Society has taken over some of the educational and propagandist work hitherto performed by the Co-operative Department and has assisted in the organisation of various non credit activities, among which prominent mention may be made of the starting of co-operative societies for the sale of jute and paddy and the supply of agricultural requisites. It has also devised arrangements for the training of members of village societies and their secretaries as also for the grant of certificates for work in non credit organizations. A federation with a constitution more or less similar to that of the Central Provinces Federation but having divisional boards to decentralize control is also in existence in Bihar and Orissa, and has appointed a special officer for propaganda and development. In the Punjab, a provincial union, with the Registrar as President, has been organized to conduct the audit and inspection of primary societies and to undertake general propagandist and educational work. The United Provinces have a standing committee serving as an advisory Board for the Registrar's Department and this committee has recently been converted into a statutorily recognized union. In Burma the audit of primary societies is conducted by a Provincial Co-operative Council consisting of representatives of co-operative institutions. This also assists in the organization of the provincial conference and acts as an advisory body to the Registrar. Organization, supervision and propaganda are furthered by district federations of unions of primary societies. Educational and propagandist bodies like the Institute in Bombay have been started in the States of Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda and Travancore. These are all recent developments and it is still too early to forecast on what lines the transfer of work to representative co-operative agencies will be carried out. In the beginning of the year 1928, an informal Conference of all these institutes and federations was held in Bombay at which it was decided to convene an All India Conference periodically and to establish closer contact among these bodies by the starting, if necessary, of an All India Confederation of these bodies. At another conference held in September 1928, this idea was given a more definite shape and a scheme was drawn up thereafter for a central association which has secured the support of almost all the provincial organisations. The scheme was formally accepted by various provincial institute unions or federations and the All India Institute Association was established in 1929. The first task the Association has undertaken is publication of an Indian

Co-operative Year Book. Another Conference that deserves mention is the one at which representatives of Provincial Co-operative Banks in different provinces and Indian States meet together once in two years. To secure co-ordination in the working of existing provincial banks to bring about closer touch and to convene periodical Conferences, an association of the provincial banks has been started. This Association has made a good beginning by educating public opinion on the place of co-operative banking in the proposed scheme of a central bank and co-ordination of banking through the agency of a Reserve Bank of India. As a result of its efforts the joint select Committee of the Indian Legislature made provision in the Reserve Bank Bill which has now been abandoned, for the appointment of a Director on the Board of the Reserve Bank to represent provincial co-operative banks and also for the negotiation of certain types of bills and securities presented by such banks. The Association was also able to secure for co-operative interests representation on the Central Banking Inquiry Committee as well as on the Provincial Committees.

Other forms of Co operation.—After the passing of the amended Co-operative Societies' Act in 1912, the application of co-operation to purposes other than credit was greatly extended but it is only during the last few years that a general demand for producers and consumers societies has arisen. The total number of non-agricultural non credit societies was 4,368 149 for purchase and sale, 1,100 for production, 1,221 for production and sales, and the remaining 2,758 for other forms of co-operation. Before the year 1918-19, there were only a few stores societies all over the country. In all provinces, particularly in Madras a beginning had been made in the direction of distributive co-operation among the middle classes, while in Bengal and the United Provinces some attention had been devoted to the starting of stores for students living in hostels attached to colleges. The movement obtained popular favour in view of the increasing prices of the daily necessities of life, and the profiteering which assumed serious proportions at the close of the War. Supply unions, store societies, and distributive departments attached to credit societies were organized in some provinces while arrangements were contemplated for obtaining cheap, wholesale supplies for the various distributive organizations. The work of organizing co-operative distribution in rural areas was pushed ahead with a fair amount of success under official auspices in the Punjab and Madras, but in both provinces a setback is now evident. Neither the supply unions nor the primary purchase and sale societies are in a flourishing condition. The consumers movement in urban areas received particular attention in Bombay, Madras, Bengal, Burma, and a few other provinces, but with the disappearance of the special conditions which generated enthusiasm in the years immediately succeeding the close of the War, stagnation has set in and only a few among the numerous store societies started in these provinces have firmly established their position and continue to enjoy the loyal support of their members. Attempts have been made in

two or three provinces to revive the movement by the starting of central organisations for joint wholesale purchases, but the proposals have not yet taken definite shape. Apart from the Triplicane Stores in Madras—which stands in a class by itself, and a few other Stores in Madras Presidency and Mysore State the only successful consumers' societies are stores for college students, some communal hostels or boarding houses and a few agencies for supply of special requisites.

In some Provinces, efforts have been made to revive the ancient handicrafts of the country and cottage industries by organizing co-operative societies for the cottage workers. Many of these societies merely provide cheap credit, but in some places they undertake the supply of raw materials and the sale of manufactured goods. The most important industry which flourished in India before the introduction of machinery was handloom weaving and efforts have been made to strengthen and develop it by the formation of co-operative societies of handloom weavers. Most of the weavers societies are merely credit societies, but some undertake the purchase of yarn for members, and others have store branches to sell the cloth produced by members. They have also been instrumental in introducing improved looms and methods among the conservative weaving classes. In Bengal and the Punjab, much success has attended the organisation of central unions among weavers societies, and similar intensive work in Bihar and Orissa and Bombay has also met with good results. Other industrial societies, to be found in very small numbers here and there are those for gaoles or millmen dyers basket and brass workers in the Central Provinces, Chamars and Dhors in Bombay and the Punjab, lacquerware workers, carpenters wood-carvers, blacksmiths and potters in Mysore, where the State provides special facilities in the shape of loans and technical assistance for the development of artisans societies. In Bombay the producers movement has extended to communities of workers like coppermiths and goldsmiths, carpenters dyers, and others, and drawing its inspiration from the ancient guild spirit animating the communities it aims at creating a strong economic organisation among these various industrial workers and craftsmen, based on self help and self-government. Another offshoot of this movement is the starting of co-operative societies among skilled or unskilled labourers on the lines of the labour societies of Italy. The initiative came from Kashmir while experimental societies were also started in Madras and in Bombay. The object of these is to organize labourers to tender for contracts for public or private works, to eliminate the middle man contractor and to utilise the profits for the economic and social betterment of the laboring community. The Indian Industrial Commission in the course of their inquiries devoted some attention to the development of small and cottage industries and the possibility of reviving them by the introduction of co-operation. Their recommendations on this subject were, however not very definite and no action appears to have been taken on these. The development of subsidiary occupations in rural areas also

came up for consideration by the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India, who were of opinion that technical education and co-operative organization were the only means by which the smaller industries could hold their own. The Commission particularly recommended the grant of advances to artisans' societies for purchase of improved machinery and suggested the linking up of the cultivator through co-operative agency with localised factories dealing with agricultural produce.

An interesting development during recent years is the provision of housing through co-operative societies. A good number of housing societies have been started in Bombay City and suburbs and also in a few other centres in the Presidency like Ahmedabad and Karachi. They are generally organized on the co-partnership system, under which the society owns the houses and lets them to members at fixed rents. The scheme is feasible for such sections of the middle classes as can provide a certain proportion of the initial capital. Tenant ownership societies have also been started and are now more favoured than pure co-partnership societies. There are some building societies in Madras and a few more in Mysore but their activities are confined mainly to the provision of capital for building schemes and only occasionally extend to the joint purchase of land or of building materials. The Punjab has only one society for co-operative housing and town planning. The Local Governments of Bombay and Madras as also the State of Mysore set apart annually some funds to be advanced to housing societies at fair rates of interest and with repayments spread over a number of years.

The province of Burma was a pioneer in the matter of cattle insurance, and to support the village insurance societies which have been started in the province, there was organised a central re insurance society, which received some financial backing from Government. In the other provinces where it has been introduced co-operative insurance for cattle has made only slight progress, and in Burma, as also in the Punjab where the movement had advanced so far as to necessitate the starting of a re insurance society there has been a setback recently.

Agricultural Co-operation—Co-operative societies have, until recently, been organised only to supply cheap credit to their members, but there are various other fields of work to which they may extend their activities. The total number of agricultural non credit societies is 3,295 of which 404 were societies for purchase and sale, 1,089 for production, 1,086 for production and sale and 747 for other forms of co-operation. Grain banks have, in some provinces been started with advantage, receiving deposits in kind and allowing these to accumulate to be sold at profitable rates or distributed to the members in times of scarcity. Such banks have been started in Bihar and Orissa, Bengal, Mysore and Coorg. Societies on a similar basis for the storage of fodder have been started in Baroda. Another direction in which the co-operative principle is being applied is the starting of societies for the purchase and distribution among members of pure and selected seed. A number of small societies for supply of seed and

seed unions were organised in the Bombay Presidency and in the Central Provinces and Berar. Societies for the co-operative purchase and sale of manure will also prove a great boon, and a few such stores have been established in Madras, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and Bombay. In the Punjab and in Madras, the supply of agricultural requisites has been undertaken either by the credit societies or the commission indent system or special supply unions are organised for bulking orders, making contracts, distributing goods, and collecting payments.

Joint sale of produce gets popular as co-operative credit thrives and agriculturists become less dependent on local traders. While Burma led the way by starting societies for the joint sale of paddy the most interesting developments in the direction have taken place in Bombay and Bengal. Societies for the sale of agricultural commodities, chiefly cotton and jaggery, have been started in several districts all over the Bombay Presidency. Co-operative marketing of cotton has recently made much progress in the Dharwar, Broach and Surat districts where these have led to the starting of a few co-operative ginning factories controlled by cotton growers. This aspect of co-operation has lately attracted considerable attention and attempts similar to those made in Bombay have been made in Madras and the Punjab. In the latter province with considerable success at Lyallpur and Montgomery. In Bengal, there has been a move recently to organize the sale of jute and paddy on co-operative lines. A vigorous propaganda has been undertaken for the purpose and a central depot has been opened for the sale of jute principally in Calcutta. The Central Wholesale Society co-ordinates the work of the local Societies, supplies a trained staff gives necessary directions about working arrangements for finance and keeps the cultivation in touch with the Central market. It will indeed be a great achievement if these efforts are successful and the cultivator obtains adequate returns for his produce. At present he buys in the dearest market and sells in the cheapest. But if co-operative purchase and sale show good progress, his economic position will be much improved. Besides separate societies for the purpose, credit societies and central banks in a few parts of the country, arrange for the joint supply of agricultural requisites. In some places, credit societies undertake the joint purchase of agricultural implements for members while in others separate registered societies are started for the purpose of selling implements or supplying these on hire. In some provinces in Upper India this work is performed by central banks for the societies affiliated to them. Apart from separately registered societies in Bombay the branches of the Provincial Bank have helped considerably in the distribution of seeds, manures and fertilizers, the supply of agricultural implements, and the sale of produce, particularly jaggery. As the work develops it is transferred to separate registered societies or unions.

Efforts have been made in various parts of the country to solve the problem of milk-supply—to reduce the price and increase the purity—by starting co-operative dairies composed either wholly of gaoles or milkmen or the

producers and the consumers together. The most successful of these efforts has been the group of milk supply societies started in the neighbourhood of Calcutta which have federated themselves into a union. The union has with the help of the Calcutta Municipality and the export officers of Government erected a well-equipped modern plant for pasteurizing milk, and while the milk supply it controls has been satisfactory to consumers it is interesting to note that by co-operation the producers have also considerably improved their economic position, having paid off debts, bought more cattle, put up decent cattle sheds and accumulated substantial sums in their local societies in the shape of shares and reserves. Similar experiments have recently been undertaken in Madras and at Dacca in Eastern Bengal. Co-operative creameries and ghee producing societies have also been started in one or two provinces. Another interesting development is the starting of sheep breeding and cattle-breeding societies in the Punjab and elsewhere. In a few provinces there are societies for rice-bulking, the manufacture of jaggery and for joint irrigation. The latter is an interesting development of co-operation which though tried also in Bombay appears to have established itself in popular favour especially in the Burdwan Division of Bengal. This tract once very flourishing, has been ravaged in recent years by frequent floods and famines and the population had lost all initiative and sunk into poverty while their lands deteriorated and malaria claimed a heavy toll. The starting of irrigation societies has opened a new chapter in the history of the tract and has revived the energy of the people and brought them together for common economic endeavour. Ginning on co-operative lines has also been attempted. An interesting experiment in agricultural co-operation is the starting in the Punjab of societies for the consolidation of small and scattered holdings. These arrange to regroup and re-allot the small and scattered holdings of members and if voluntary action proves sufficient for the purpose in other provinces one of the gravest evils of modern Indian agriculture will be solved without the aid of State help or legislation. After the last floods that occurred four years ago in the central parts of the Madras Presidency co-operative societies were started to enable agriculturists to reclaim their land by clearing away the layers of sand and replacing the soil. These societies received assistance from Government both in the shape of long term capital and facilities for transport of material. Similarly, after the heavy flood of 1927 in North Gujarat and Western Sind reconstruction societies have been started in the devastated areas for the repair and rebuilding of houses. The Punjab has in canal areas, some societies for silt clearance and reclamation of waste lands and Burma has led the way in the colonization of newly developed lands on co-operative lines. A number of societies have recently been started in the Punjab to promote better farming, some of which merely call upon members to undertake certain improvements and introduce approved method of agriculture, while others go a stage further and employ a staff for local experiment, research and demonstration work. In Bombay a beginning was made in the direction of starting co-operative societies for joint farm-

ing and the movement may lead to the evolution of a system of co-operative cultivation of land, such as has been extremely successful in Italy in tracts like those to be irrigated under the Sukkur Barrage Scheme. Proposals to encourage this form of co-operation have been submitted to the Government of Bombay by the Hind Co-operative Institute.

Co-operation has already been successful to some extent in assuaging the evil effects of usury but if the improvement in the agriculturists-economic condition is to be permanent it is essential that he should be prevailed upon to adopt improved methods of production. The Agricultural Departments in various provinces do under take propagandist work with this object, but their efforts have not proved as successful as they ought to be. A co-operative society provides an effective agency for reaching the agriculturist, and in many places societies have been the means of bringing home to him the need for improved methods and have been made the centres for conducting the propagandist activities of the Agricultural Department and district Agricultural Associations. As a result, a few societies have been enterprising enough to purchase modern agricultural implements, and the machinery recommended by the Department and to use the proper manure and the certified varieties of seeds. Wherever agriculture and co-operation have experienced the assistance which each can derive from association with the other they are fast developing a truly organic connection. To this end joint efforts are being promoted in almost all provinces as both the Departments are in charge of one Minister. This co-ordination is secured by joint conferences, and joint boards of co-operation and agriculture and the starting of local agricultural associations registered under the Co-operative Societies Act. Several of these bodies have lately been started in Bihar and Orissa and in Bombay. In Bombay, the tatuka development associations undertake active propagandist work, hold demonstrations and assist in the work of general economic improvement of the agriculturists. The subject of agricultural co-operation and even of agricultural credit came under enquiry by the Royal Commission of Agriculture in India whose Report was published in 1922. The Commission describe the co-operative movement as the greatest hope for the salvation of the rural masses from their crushing burden of debt and look upon it as the natural basis for social, educational and economic development in India where the predominant industry is agriculture. They admit that there are defects in the present organization for rural credit, but are confident that under the influence of patient persistent and systematic education of the members in the principles and meaning of co-operation these defects are bound to disappear in course of time. The provision of this education in co-operation should, the Commission hold, be the principal care of provincial Co-operative Departments, and through the strengthening of the official staff is suggested the Commission also recommend the organization of supervising unions, federations and institutes and the grant to these bodies of financial support. Recommendations are also made for

developing the joint marketing of agricultural produce on co-operative lines and for utilizing the agency of co-operative organizations in the work of agricultural demonstration and propaganda, the supply of approved varieties of seeds, implements and manures, the consolidation of holdings and for social and educational betterment.

Committee on Co-operation in India --

In July 1914, the Government of India issued a lengthy Resolution on Co-operation in India, surveying its progress in the country during the previous ten years. In October of the same year Government appointed a Committee under Sir Edward MacLagan to examine whether the movement, especially in its higher stages, and in its financial aspect was progressing on sound lines and to suggest any measures of improvement which seemed to be required. The enquiry was to be directed primarily to an examination of such matters as the constitution and working of central and provincial banks, the financial connection between the various parts of the co-operative organization, the audit, inspection, and management of all classes of societies, and the utilization of the reserve funds. In its Report, which was issued in September 1918, the Committee stated that it had not confined its enquiries to the subjects referred to it, for it had to recognize that the financial welfare of the higher stages of the co-operative system was largely based on the soundness of the foundation. The Government of India passed orders in 1918 on the recommendations in the light of the opinions of the Local Governments. With a view further to elicit opinion on the recommendations, a special conference of the Registrars was convened in August 1918, to which all the Registrars and a few selected non-official co-operators were invited. The Conference was also asked to consider the suggestion made by the Committee on Co-operation that as the financing of the movement involved grave difficulties which baffled solution unless the discounting of promissory notes was arranged through an Imperial State Bank or the several Presidency Banks, a careful examination of the question was immediately called for. A proposal was made for the appointment of an expert committee, but the Government of India shelved it by stating that they would assemble the committee at some date convenient to them.

Provincial Legislation.—Under the Reforms, co-operation has been made a provincial subject and also a transferred subject. The control of Co-operative Departments has been entrusted to Ministers and in Madras, the United Provinces, and the Central Provinces, Bills have been drawn up for enactment by the local Legislative Councils to take the place of the Co-operative Societies Act. The Bombay Co-operative Societies Bill was introduced in the Bombay Legislative Council in July 1924, and was finally passed into law in 1925. It reproduces, in the main, the framework of the Act of 1912 but introduces the following important modifications —

- (i) The adoption of a scientific system of classifying societies
- (ii) The improvement of the procedure for liquidation of cancelled societies

(iii) The extension of summary powers of recovery to the awards of arbitrators

(iv) The provision of penalties against specified offences

No other provincial Council except Burma where a Provincial Act was placed on the statute book in 1927 has yet enacted legislation on similar lines

Provincial Inquiries—In the Central Provinces, owing to the drying up of recoveries and the issue of large advances to agriculturists to tide over the bad season of 1920-21 the fluid resources of the movement were seriously depleted and the Apex Bank was able to meet its liabilities only with the financial assistance of Government. The fluid resources of the Provincial Bank were replenished and the Local Government, with the concurrence of the Government of India, placed credits at the disposal of the Provincial Bank and made advances direct to primary societies in the form of Tagnai loans. A Committee of inquiry was appointed which made sweeping recommendations, the most important of which was a proposal to liquidate the Provincial Bank and to place central banks in direct touch with commercial banks. This recommendation was however subsequently turned down by the Local Government although some other recommendations such as the division of agricultural finance into short-term crop loans and long-term non-crop loans met with a considerable measure of public support. In Bengal and the Punjab, the return of favourable seasons averted any breakdown of the system which threatened to overtake the local co-operative organizations when agricultural scarcity on a wide scale caused serious difficulties some years ago. The same may now be asserted of the United Provinces, where there appeared to be some danger of the strain not being quite successfully withstood. The problem there is now that of pushing ahead and a Committee was appointed in 1925 to hold a comprehensive inquiry and to suggest the lines of future development. The Report of the Committee contains numerous recommendations on matters of detailed administration and proposals for strengthening the official staff of the Co-operative Department. The Committee recommended that central banks should be relieved of the work of supervision and inspection which should be entrusted to a staff working under the directions of the Standing Committees of Co-operators. The Committee further suggested that a beginning might be made in the direction of constituting an apex bank for the province but their proposal has not found favour with the local Government. Committees of Inquiry were also appointed in Bihar and Orissa and Mysore. In the former to advise about financial organization and official control and in the latter to lay down a policy of development particularly in relation to higher finance non credit co-operation, agricultural improvement and the relief of indebtedness. In September 1927, on the recommendation of the Madras Legislative Council the Government of Madras appointed a Committee to enquire into the progress of the Co-operative movement in the Presidency and to suggest suitable measures for effecting necessary improvements. The Report

of the Committee was published in 1928, and deals exhaustively with the defects of the movement and sets forth in detail the suggested remedies. Prominent among these is the improvement and strengthening of the system of supervising unions and the linking up of these with the provincial unions through district federations. The provincial union and district federations are charged with the duty of providing education and training and a system of liberal grants in aid is proposed to these bodies. Central banks are advised to undertake the inspection of affiliated societies by appointing their own staff and at the time subsidizing the federation for the work of supervision. Among other important recommendations are the separation of short term and long term finance in rural credit societies and the creation of a central land mortgage bank for the issue of debentures to finance local land mortgage banks. The Agricultural Commission were of opinion that similar inquiries could with advantage, be undertaken in other provinces and pursuant to this suggestion the Government of Burma appointed a Committee of Inquiry the report of which was published in 1929. The report indicates that both the primary societies and the financing agencies are not in a sound financial condition while the system of guaranteeing unions has failed altogether. Recommendations are made for the improvement of the arrangements for supervision inspection and control and the Committee proposes the winding up of the Provincial Bank and the creation of central banks for the districts. Government however has decided to reconstitute the Apex bank by granting to it a special credit of thirty lakhs of rupees.

Banking Inquiry—In the year 1929 at the instance of the Central Legislature and in response to the demands of federations and Chambers of Commerce both Indian and non-Indian the Government of India ordered a comprehensive inquiry into the present position of banking in India and into the measures necessary for promoting banking development strengthening the organization of credit facilities in agriculture and industries co-ordinating the work of various Credit and Banking Agencies and linking up banking with the financial machinery of Government. For conducting local inquiries particularly into the system of agricultural credit, the financing of marketing and internal trade the provision of funds for industrial development and other cognate matters committees of seven members each were appointed in all the provinces. The Committees included one co-operative expert in addition to other members interested in co-operation and examined the possibility of further developing the Co-operative movement for provision of agricultural credit on an organized basis. From the recently published reports of the provincial committees it appears that a majority of the Committees hold the view that the solution of the problem of agricultural credit lies in the improvement of the Co-operative Credit system and its expansion on sound lines. Several Committees have also approved of facilities for the marketing of agricultural produce being developed on co-operative lines and on the whole favour the idea of rural economic life being organized co-operatively. The reports of the provincial

committees are now under consideration by the Indian Central Banking Inquiry Committee, which has on it two representatives of the Co-operative movement, one being a nominee of the All India Provincial Banks Association. In their examination of the problem the Central Committee have the assistance of a group of foreign experts some of whom have been selected because of their study and practical experience of Co-operative Banking in other countries.

Effect of Crises on Co-operation—It is hardly possible without any close and scientific inquiry such as has not yet been carried out, to appreciate accurately the effects of the co-operative movement in enabling agriculturists to resist the rigours of a famine as also to judge the reaction of the latter on the co-operative organisation as there is an interplay of various economic forces affecting the life and industry of agriculturists the proportionate value of which cannot be estimated easily. The agricultural season of 1918-19, however, put the co-operative organisation in most provinces to a very severe test and the reports for the succeeding years afford some indication of the resisting power of the co-operative organisation.

With a better appreciation of the dependence of agricultural finance on the vagaries of seasons, and a more systematic management of the funds of central societies it is anticipated that in future the situation arising out of a failure of rains will be satisfactorily met. In 1913 and the following months, practically the whole of the country was subjected to a banking crisis of considerable magnitude, but a marked feature of this crisis was a tendency to withdraw deposits from commercial institutions and to place them in co-operative banks. The outbreak of the War brought another set of influences into play and there was a temporary tendency to withdraw deposits and a temporary cessation of new deposits. The disturbance was not serious except in two or three provinces and by the end of the year 1914-15, the situation became practically normal. In two of the provinces where the situation caused some anxiety owing to the cessation of fresh deposits in central banks, the Government sanctioned advances to central societies to be utilized in the grant of urgent loans to agricultural societies or to meet withdrawals of deposits. The floods that overtook practically the whole of North Gujarat and some districts of Sind in the earlier part of the monsoon of 1927 affected the working of co-operative societies in the flooded areas, but on the whole, the movement rose to the occasion. Early arrangements were made for helping agriculturists to rescue and to replenish their stocks of grain or fodder and replace lost cattle, implements or domestic necessities of life. Advances were made for these purposes at the special rate of 5 per cent. interest and later on, demands were investigated for rebuilding or repairing houses and funds were provided either through co-operative agency or suitable recommendations were made to the local officials of Government. A charitable fund was also started for the relief of distress among members and contributions to this were received from all parts of India and also from Russia.

Social Reform—Co-operation has in some places stimulated the desire for education

and members of rural societies have been known, even at advanced ages, to receive the elements of education to enable them to put their signatures on their societies' papers, and to take a lively interest in the internal work of their institutions. In Bombay, night schools for adults were started with the aid of a splendid donation made by the late Sir Vithaldas D. Thackersey, while in the Punjab, Bihar, Bengal and elsewhere such expenditure on education is incurred by co-operative institutions themselves. In the Punjab separate rural societies have been registered to conduct night schools and also to insist on compulsory education for the children of members. The Punjab also possesses a number of societies for the promotion of better living, the members of which societies lay down a social code for themselves breach of this code involves punishment by fines. Similar societies are being started in the United Provinces. The Madras Presidency has taken the lead in undertaking the work of rural reconstruction on a comprehensive basis in several districts through the agency of local co-operative organisations, financing the programme with the help of the central and provincial banks and co-ordinating it under the aegis of the provincial co-operative union. In Bengal, attempts have been made to fight the scourge of malaria and to promote village sanitation by starting anti-malarial co-operative societies. The societies are federated into a central union in Calcutta which supplements the local funds, co-ordinates the working of the societies, issues literature on hygiene and sanitation, and arranges with local doctors for the provision of free medical relief to members. There are not a few cases where a society has set its face against drunkenness, expelled members notorious for their intemperate habits and has insisted on good moral conduct and attempted to improve the standard of life. Societies have occasionally condemned excessive expenditure on marriages, and have thus indirectly trained members to habits of thrift. The liquidation of old debts again has been rendered possible to a great extent and many an agriculturist who was formerly in a state of chronic indebtedness has been relieved of all his debts and as a result of the practice of thrift freed from the necessity of incurring new ones. Credit has been much cheapened and it is now possible for the agriculturist to borrow at 9 to 18 per cent. what he could not borrow at less than 20 to 75 per cent. formerly. It has been calculated that in interest alone the agriculturists of India, by taking loans from co-operative credit societies instead of from the village money-lenders, are even now saving themselves from an unnecessary burden of over three crores of rupees. The village rates of interest have naturally gone down considerably. And the Sowkar is, in most places, not the terror and the force that he was. Business habits have been inculcated with a beneficial result that the agriculturist has learnt to conduct his own work more efficiently. Thrift has been encouraged and the value of savings better appreciated. Special societies are started in the Punjab to promote thrift, while in Bombay, Bengal and Bihar & Orissa, the savings of members are attracted to the village

credit societies and either special facilities are provided or special propaganda is conducted to induce members to save and deposit voluntarily. Association in a public institution for common good has brought home to the people the blessings of unity and litigation has often decreased in villages with co-operative societies. In the Punjab, a number of societies have been started in rural areas whose members agree to refer all disputes to arbitration by their elected committees and to abide by the awards of

arbitrators. Participation in the management of societies has instilled among members the important lessons of self help and self reliance but the most important achievement of co-operation has been the development of sense of communal life—a feeling of "all for each and each for all"—among members of village societies and the gradual revival of the corporate instincts which made Indian rural organization famous in the world's history.

The following statements show the progress of the co-operative movement in different provinces, and contain some information about their detailed working till the end of the official year 1928-29.

Number of Societies for all India, showing the increase since 1906-07

	Average for 5 years from					Average for 5 years from				
	1906-07 to					1924-25				
	1909-10					1916-16 to				
	1914-15					1919-20				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions)	17	231	304	500						
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Insurance Societies)	1 713	10 891	25 873	1,802						
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	196	654	1,062	51,716						
Non-Agricultural	1 926	11,786	28,477	4,183						
Total										
	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29						
6	7	8	9							
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions)	567	577	598	593						
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Insurance Societies)	1 408	1 421	1 442	1 419						
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	71,140	78 940	84,959	88 377						
Non-Agricultural	7 069	8,188	9,092	9 781						
Total	80,182	89,071	96 091	100,150						

Number of Societies by Provinces for 1938-39 only

Province	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Population in millions	Central (including Provincial Banks and Banking Unions)	Supervising and Co- operative Unions (including Co-insurance Societies)	Agricultural (including Cattle In- surance Socie- ties)	Non- Agricultural	Total number of Societies	Number of Societies per 100,000 Inhabitants
1								
Madras		42.3	32	440	12,947	1,659	15,078	35.6
Bombay		19.3	20	102	4,574	778	6,472	28.4
Bengal		46.7	112	213	15,463	1,723	18,186	32.6
Bihar and Orissa		34.0	98	213	6,482	933	7,415	21.8
United Provinces		45.4	70	585	16,473	2,535	19,008	42.0
Punjab		20.7	121	585	3,370	104	4,166	38.0
Burma		11.7	18	19	3,817	183	4,000	35.0
Central Provinces and Berar		18.9	35	19	1,254	70	1,850	28.4
Assam		7.8	11	12	89	11	101	4.4
North West Frontier Province		2.2	1	2	214	16	243	121.0
Ajmer-Merwara		0.2	6	2	490	98	605	121.0
Coorg		0.1	1	2	14	14	14	14.0
Hyderabad Administered Area		0.1	1	2	236	43	280	56.0
Delhi		0.5	1					
Total (British India)		245.2	493	1,331	75,397	8,195	85,471	34.0
Mysore		5.0	16	2	1,560	356	1,962	32.7
Hyderabad		2.1	5		1,831	147	1,978	46.4
Bombay		12.5	25	10	1,694	350	2,073	16.5
Madras		3.2	1		1,080	26	1,160	164.8
Goa		1.1	1		3,597	44	3,641	113.8
Indrapur		1.1	5		84	34	414	37.6
Kashmir		3.3	17	26	2,379	207	2,569	77.8
Travancore		4.0	17		1,379	312	1,716	42.9
Cochin		1.0	1		119	50	170	17.0
Total (Indian States)		38.9	95	33	12,080	1,566	14,678	47.3
Grand Total		279.1	593	1,419	88,377	9,761	100,150	35.9

Number of Members for all India, showing the increase since 1906-07

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Average for 4 years from 1906-7 to 1909-10	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15	Average for 6 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Bank ing Unions),		1,087	23,877	89,225	168,822	197,980	214,201	222,946	2,13,837
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insur- ance Societies)				10,971	24,437	31,206	34,214	35,684	38,027
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies,		107,643	458,096	903,980*	1,661,098	2,327,899	2,622,040	2,876,726	3,009,900
Non-Agricultural		54,267	80,157	226,031	498,509	730,129	799,807	903,447	992,297
Total Number of members of primary Societies		161,910	548,253	1,129,961	2,154,607	3,058,028	3,421,905	3,780,173	4,002,197

* Excluding members of Cattle Insurance Societies at the end of 1915-16 and 1916-17, and those in Bombay and the United Provinces at the end of 1917-18

Number of Members by Provinces for 1928-29 only

Province	Population in millions	Central (including Provincial and Central Banking Unions)	Supervising and Guar- anteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies)	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	Non Agricultural	Total number of primary Societies	Number of Members of primary Societies per 1,000 inhabitants
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	42.1	16,177	11,383	690,682	246,092	987,574	22.8
Bombay	19.8	12,105	2,079	338,881	108,117	536,998	27.8
Bengal	46.7	21,886	2,683	476,639	192,981	669,620	14.3
Bihar and Orissa	34.0	11,837	10,794	332,413	22,924	255,877	7.4
United Provinces	45.4	11,230	108	128,612	23,278	151,785	9.8
Punjab	20.7	46,108		501,907	99,190	604,097	29.3
Burma	11.7	2,082	3,765	75,911	89,414	168,126	0.1
Central Provinces and Berar	18.9	68,685	4,575	50,182	16,090	15,275	5.4
Azamgarh	7.6	1,564		35,032	12,846	65,401	8.0
North West Frontier Province	2.8	123		2,400	1,815	3,815	1.7
Coorg	0.2	274	190	10,921	1,762	12,718	63.6
Almora-Nainital	0.5	1,560	141	10,681	5,540	17,170	84.3
Almora-Nainital	0.1				2,168	2,168	21.1
Dehradun	0.1	487		5,911	1,376	6,837	12.8
Total (British India)	243.4	190,122	31,208	2,589,277	877,028	3,466,305	14.0
Nepore	0.1	2,090		63,483	50,118	113,596	19.0
Bahawalpur	0.1	1,234	40	27,823	9,531	32,904	15.7
Hyderabad	12.5	4,040		36,403	13,290	49,693	4.4
Bhopal	0.7	2,421	251	18,810	449	19,259	27.5
Gwalior	8.2	6,801		63,396	848	64,441	20.1
Indore	1.1	1,718		7,144	2,957	10,121	9.2
Kanpur	3.8	3,080		44,165	4,071	48,239	14.6
Tanjore	4.0	1,780	1,468	1,52,635	42,383	194,968	48.7
Cochin	1.0	95		11,154	8,127	19,281	19.3
Total (Indian States)	33.9	23,715	1,759	420,623	137,269	557,892	16.5
Grand Total	279.1	219,837	36,037	3,009,900	997,297	4,007,197	14.3

Working Capital for all Federations showing the increase since 1906-07

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20	Average for 7 years from 1920-21 to 1926-27	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29
Share capital paid up	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Members	13 10	(1,000) 88.87	(1,000) 2,51.97	(1,000) 5 2.06	(1,000) 7 80.65	(1,000) 8 87.38	(1,000) 10 06.07	(1,000) 11 08.16	(1,000) 5 78.38
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies	14 1	88.28	86.20	2 4.45	1 83.61	49.52	5 07.64	3 47.64	5 78.38
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Provincial or Central Banks	13 30	1 98.42*	47.81	1 49.08	2 02.18	2 38.99	2 19.78	3 47.64	5 78.38
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Government	3 86	10.97	20.38	12.09.88	14.21.90	22.83.76	25 19.34	26 00.06	26 00.06
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Non Members and other sources	19 09	1 41.98	4 70.25	10 98.22	18.18.00	21 84.42	24,64.19	25 84.80	25 84.80
Reserves and other funds	1 67	25.00	1 23.92	3 12.38	5,13.01	6 00.33	7 00.77	8 22.27	8 22.27
Total	60 1	2 43.43	15,14.47	38 00.26	57 60.99	67 03.61	76 70.87	82 03.96	82 03.96

* Includes loans from Provincial, Central, Banks

Working Capital by Provinces for 1928-29 only

Province	Popu- lation in mil- lions	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from							Total	Number of loans per head of popu- lation
		Share Capital paid up	Members	Co-operators	Provincial or Central Banks	Govern- ment	Non Members and other sources	Reserve and other funds		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	An
Madras	42.3	2,14.40	46.38	1,27.23	6,30.83	33.91	5,72.19	82.09	16,86.84	63
Bombay	19.3	1,48.40	2,00.44	1,27.23	1,79.10	44.84	3,10.37	80.65	11,91.79	97
Bengal	48.7	1,61.82	71.96	20.19	4,44.04	5.8	4,64.46	1,11.04	12,78.26	44
United Provinces	34.0	48.41	14.83	3.36	2,51.83	15	1,99.97	45.71	3,62.12	27
Other Provinces	43.4	14.21	4.27	3.36	63.43	15	5,16.71	35.28	2,16.97	8
Punjab	20.7	2,60.27	67.91	64.42	5,94.68	29.89	5,35.11	203.18	16,79.84	130
Burma	11.7	88.02	11.49	4.94	86.76	6.56	1,11.34	75.18	3,14.73	43
Central Provinces and Berar	7.6	7.10	7.03	33.21	1,97.97	5.1	1,17.33	99.39	9,06.86	58
Assam	2.3	99	7.81	1.61	17.87	7.8	22.76	7.33	91.63	14
North West Frontier Province	2.3	2.43	2.3	2	2.42	6	3.2	1.2	6.18	4
Coorg	0.2	2.43	2.3	2	2.42	6	3.2	1.2	6.18	4
Aligarh	0.5	6.63	1.02	1.10	10.60	6	2.27	1.85	9.09	72
Hyderabad	0.1	1.40	2.35	1	10.60	6	16.47	8.72	43.74	146
General Administered Area	0.1	1.40	2.35	1	10.60	6	16.47	8.72	43.74	146
Delhi	0.2	1.06	0.3	1	0.2	6	12.66	1.22	22.67	73
Total (British India)	245.2	9,43.74	5,64.0	3,19.21	25,06.86	17.36	24,92.17	-78.84	7,04.86	49
Mysore	6.0	44.28	21.7	3.59	16.43	2.83	42.55	20.84	1,38.77	41
Baroda	2.1	4.54	7.62	2.31	16.86	7.39	21.06	20.84	1,38.77	52
Hyderabad	12.5	41.04	2.07	2.46	57.03	4.39	48.77	20.92	1,84.09	24
Bhopal	0.7	1.26	1	1	1.06	4.83	1	1	23.16	49
Gwalior	3.2	13.51	4.43	0.70	38.17	5.83	5.83	10.17	35.16	48
Indore	1.1	2.80	8.91	6.7	12.74	2.57	13.62	11.9	35.08	42
Kashmir	3.3	15.70	19	61	26.01	4.30	15.86	11.9	75.93	67
Travancore	4.0	24.73	3.74	8.5	7.92	1.08	3.61	3.61	53.76	21
Cochin	1.0	2.45	2.61	1.34	9.10	1.26	6.74	2.21	1.71	1.8
Total (Indian States)	23.9	1,09.42	40.48	19.12	1,48.20	64.44	1,62.63	1,08.43	7,04.70	33
Grand Total	269.1	11,03.16	6,133	3,47.64	26,55.06	1,82.70	26,54.80	8,22.27	82,68.96	47

Societies : Literary, Scientific and Social.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta).—Founded 1820. A Class Annual subscription Rs 82. Ku tranee fee Rs 8. B Class Annual subscription Rs 12. Secretary S Percy Lancaster. FLS PRES MRAS Offg Superintendent B (Christian), 1, Alipore Road Alipore.

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF BURMA.—Superintendent C A Giffening. Agri Horticultural Gardens Ka dawgay, Rangoon.

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF MADRAS.—Established 1830. Quarterly subscription for members in Class A Rs 7 in Class B Rs 3. President H E The Governor of Madras, Chairman C W F Cotton CIB. Hon Secretary Mr H M Naidu. Hon Treasurer Mr H S (Class). Toydampett, S W Madras.

ANGLO-INDIAN LEAGUE.—To protect the interests of Anglo-Indians. President Dr H K B Moreno. Plt Honorary Secretary Mrs V C Bastien. Hon Treasurer Mr S V Cowen. Office 12 Wellesley Square, Calcutta.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF BOMBAY.—Founded 1889, to promote the prosecution of Anthropological research in India to correspond with Anthropological Societies throughout the world to hold monthly meetings for reading and discussing papers and to publish a journal containing the transactions of the Society. Annual subscription Rs 10. President Shams ul Lima. Dr Jivanji Jamshedji Modi B.A., Ph.D. 172 Hornby Road Bombay. Hon Secretary Principal J McKenzie, M.A.

BENARES MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1918 for the encouragement and promotion of research in the various branches of Pure and Applied Mathematics and in the History of Mathematics. It conducts a journal 'The Proceedings of the Benares Mathematical Society' in which original papers on Mathematics are published and maintains a library. There are about 60 members from all parts of India. Admission fee Rs 10. Annual subscription Rs 12 (resident members) and Rs 20 (non resident members). Life President Dr G. rash Prasad, M.A. (Cantab). Sec Secretary Prof Chandri Prasad, M.A. BSC Treasurer Prof Pushapati Prasad M.A., BSC.

BHANDARKAR ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, POONA.—The Institute was inaugurated on the 6th of July 1917, the 80th birthday of late Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, at the hands of H. E. Lord Willington, who became its first President. Its objects are to publish critical editions of texts and original works bearing on Oriental Antiquities, to provide an up-to-date Oriental Library, to train students in the methods of research and to act as an information bureau on all points connected with Oriental Studies. The valuable library of the late Dr Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, which he had bequeathed already to the Institute was handed over after his demise by his executors to the Institute, and is now located in the Central Hall of the Institute. Since the 1st

of April 1918 the Government of Bombay have transferred to the custody of the Institute the unique collection of nearly 20,000 manuscripts formerly in charge of the Deccan College together with a maintenance grant of Rs. 3,000 a year. Government have likewise entrusted to the Institute a grant of Rs. 12,000 a year for the publication of the Government Oriental Series. The Institute has under taken to edit the *Mahabharata* critically at the request of the Chief of Amudhi who has promised a grant of Rs. 5,000 annually for that purpose. Grants are being received from the Government of India, the University of Bombay and the Governments of Bombay, Boma, Baroda, Mysore and Madras as well as several Southern Mahratta States. The Institute has a journal called *Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute* published four times a year. It also held under its auspices the first Oriental Conference on the 6th and 7th of November 1919 under the patronage of H. F. Sir George Lloyd and the presidency of Sir B. G. Bhandarkar. Owing to liberal donations from the Latas and the Jain community supplemented by Grants in Aid from the Government of Bombay the Institute is housed in a fine building near the hills behind the Home of the Servants of India Society. Since August 1927 the Institute has been conducting regular V.A. classes in Sanskrit, Pali, Ardhamagadhi, and Ancient Indian Culture, where at present over 25 students paying Rs. 20 per term are attending. It is intended shortly to affiliate this class to the Bombay University. Minimum membership dues Rs. 10 a year or Rs. 100 compounded for life. Members can subject to certain conditions borrow books from the library and get the Journal free and other publications (a list covering about 100 names sent free upon request) at concession rates. Secretary Dr S. A. Bolvalkar M.A. Ph.D. (Harvard).

BOMBAY ART SOCIETY.—Founded 1888, to promote and encourage Art by exhibitions of Pictures and Applied Arts, and to assist in the establishment and maintenance of a permanent gallery for pictures and other works of Art. Annual exhibition usually held every January. Annual subscription Rs. 10. Life member Rs. 100. Hon-Secretary V. V. Oak Bar-at-Law. Offg Secretary Ground Floor Bombay.

BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—Founded 1864 to investigate and encourage Oriental Arts, Sciences and Literature. Annual subscription Rs. 60. Secretary Dr Edward Parker Town Hall Bombay.

BOMBAY NATURAL HISTORY SOCIETY (Registered under Act XXI of 1860).—Founded 1885 to promote the study of Natural History in all its branches. The Society has a membership of about 1,400 all over the world and a museum with a representative collection of the different vertebrates and invertebrates found in the Indian Empire and Ceylon. In 1921 the Society was entrusted with the management

of the Natural History Section of the Prince of Wales Museum and a great part of the Society's collections have been transferred to that Museum. A Journal is published at varying times during the year which contains articles on natural history and sport as well as descriptions of new species and local lists of different orders. The Society's library is open to members and books may be borrowed under special arrangement by members residing in the mofussil. The Society's Taxidermist Department undertakes the curing and mounting of trophies for members. Annual subscription Rs. 25. Entrance fee Rs. 20. *Patrons* H. K. The Maharaja of India H. B. H. the Prince of Wales *Life Patrons* H. H. The Maharaja of Cutch G. C. S. I. H. H. the Maharaja of Jodhpur K. C. S. I. K. C. V. H. H. the Maharaja of Rewa K. C. S. I. H. H. the Maharani of Dhar H. H. the Maharaja of Bhavnagar and Mr. F. V. Evans Liverpool Sir David Raza Kt. A. S. Vernay Esq. London *President* H. E. The Rt. Hon. Major General Sir Frederick B. K. C. S. I. G. R. E. K. C. S. I. *Vice Presidents* The Hon. Sir Ernest Hosson K. C. S. I. 108, B. H. the Maharaja of Cutch G. C. S. I. G. C. I. E. Rev. E. Blatter S. J. P. D. P. L. S. *Honorary Secretaries* Sir Reginald Spencer Kt., F. L. S. M. L. C. and Mr. P. M. D. Sanders in P. P. S. *Curator* S. H. Prater O. M. S. M. L. *Anti-Curators* C. McCann, J. S. J. *Personne Head Clerk* Mr. A. F. Fernandes *Offices* 6 Apollo Street, Bombay.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY—
Since 1811 the British and Foreign Bible

Society has been at work in this country. It has 6 Auxiliaries in India and an Agency in Burma. The first Auxiliary was established in Calcutta, in 1811, then followed the Bombay Auxiliary in 1818, the Madras Auxiliary in 1820, the North India Auxiliary in 1845, the Punjab Auxiliary in 1863, the Bangalore Auxiliary in 1875 while the Burma Agency was founded in 1899. The Bible or some portion of it is now to be had in nearly 100 different Indian languages and dialects and the circulation throughout India and Burma reached nearly 11,88,000 issues in 1928. The Bible, Testaments, and Portions in the various vernaculars are sold at rates which the very poorest can pay and at considerable loss to the Society. Grants of English Scriptures are made to Students who pass University examinations, as under—

The New Testament and Psalms to Matriculates and the Bible to Graduates.

Portions of Scriptures in the important vernaculars have been prepared in raised type for the use of the blind and large grants of money are annually given to the different Missions, to enable them to carry on Colportage and Bible Woman's work. Besides the British and Foreign Bible Society there is Bible work carried on in India and Burma in a much smaller way by the Bible Translation Society which is connected with the Baptist Missionary Society—the National Bible Society of Scotland, the American Bible Society and the Tanjorebar Tamil Bible Society.

The following table shows the growth in the British & Foreign Bible Society's work during the past few years in India and Burma—

TABLE OF CIRCULATION OF THE B. F. B. S. IN INDIA

Auxiliaries	1927	1926	1925	1924
Calcutta	174,924	178,270	122,781	107,094
Bombay	169,593	155,116	164,820	161,263
Madras	223,125	211,787	233,371	215,247
Bangalore	88,936	17,461	2,315	29,088
North India	154,272	154,683	193,228	144,930
Punjab	106,628	73,848	81,593	61,781
Burma	78,618	75,462	71,928	63,472
Total	976,981	861,818	842,446	782,815

These returns do not include the copies which any Auxiliary has supplied to London or to other Auxiliaries and agencies during the year.

NIGITRI—Chairman Mr R I B Gail
Joint Secretaries Mr C N Rowbottom
and Miss A I N Brock

PTENAR—Chairman, Mr Owen Roberts
M.C., Secretary Major R Corlison
M.V.O., M.B.E.

BIRD—Chairman Mr R R Backhouse
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JUCHITOPOLY—Chairman Mr R H
Maitli Secretary Mr F L A V Paricut

LITTED PRO-INDIES—Chairman Mr T
Gavin Jones Secretary Mr J J Fair

**INDIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE CULTIVATION OF
SCIENCE (Calcutta)**—Honorary Secretary, Mr
C V Ramani Kt M.A., D.Sc. F.R.S. 210
Bow Bazar Street Calcutta

INDIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY—Was founded in
1924 with Sir P C Ray as President located in
the University College of Science buildings
92, Upper Circular Road Calcutta. Sir P C
Ray President, Prof G B J Fowler Dr U
N Brahmachari, Prof Dr V R Dhar and
Prof Dr J N Mukherjee, Vice Presidents.
Prof Dr J C Mitter Honorary Secretary Prof
Dr N Sen Honorary Treasurer Prof Dr R S
Bhatnagar and Prof Dr B K Sinha Honorary
Editors Rev Father J F Gairns Dr J K
Chowdhury Prof Dr B B Dey Dr J B
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Dr S D Muzaffar Dr P Neogi Rev Father
I Van Neste and Rao Bahadur M R Rama
swami Sivan members of the Council

Bombay Branch Rev Father J F Gairns
President Dr Mata Prasad and Mr B S
Pant Joint Secretaries

Lahore Branch Prof P C Spence, President
Dr J N Ray, Secretary

Madras Branch Dr V O Pareek, F.R.C.
President Dr K I Moudgill Secretary

The Society publishes a monthly Journal dealing
with original researches in Chemistry in India.
Subscription to Fellows Rs 15 Non Fellows
Rs 10 Fellowship is open to graduates of
Chemistry and to those who are interested
with the progress of Chemistry. Particulars
and Election form can be had from the Honorary
Secretary Indian Chemical Society, P O
Box 19357 92 Upper Circular Road Calcutta.

**INDIAN INSTITUTE OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL
SCIENCE**—Founded on 30th March 1917 to
promote a systematic study of political and
social science in general and Indian political
and social problems in particular in all their
aspects taking the terms "political and
social" in their widest sense to organise
free and well informed discussions on current
political and social topics as well as on ab-
stract political and social questions to for-
mulate considered views on current political
and social questions, to publish literature
and make representations from time to time
on questions arising or necessary to be raised
in the interest of the public, and to form and
maintain a library for the promotion of the
above objects. Office Servants of India
Society, Sandhurst Road Girgaum, Bombay.
President M A Jinnah, Bar at-Law

Vice-Presidents Mr Jambadas M Mehta,
Bar-at-Law, M.L.A. Mr Bhabubhai J Desai
M.A., J.L.S. Advocates Hon. Secretaries
Mr B G Warty, M.A. and Mr Mavji Govindji
Trenner Mr V B Bhende

INDIAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY—Founded in
1907 for the advancement of Mathematical
studies in India. It conducts a bi-monthly
journal in which papers on mathematical sub-
jects are published and maintains a library
with current mathematical periodicals in all
languages and new books on the subject.
The library is located in the Fergusson College,
Poona whence the journals and books are
circulated to members by post. The journal
of the Society is published in Madras. There
are about 225 members from all parts of
India. President V Ramaswami Aiyar M.A.
(Retired) Deputy Collector (Retired) Secre-
taries, Dr R Vaidyanatha Swami M.A. D.Sc.
University Madras and Prof Mukund Lal
M.A. Government College Lathi Librarian,
Prof V B Nalk, M.A. Poona

**INDIAN ROADS AND TRANSPORT DEVELOPMENT
ASSOCIATION LTD.**—The Association was
formed in 1928 and registered in October 1927,
and is conducted on similar lines to the Euro-
pean Association with a Council having Head
quarters in Bombay. The subscription for
membership of the Association is Re 1 per
annum.

The aims and objects of the Association are
to promote the cause of Road Development
throughout India by making representations to
the Government of India Government of
Provinces District Boards and other public
bodies concerned regarding the construction
improvement and maintenance of Roads and
Bridges and the improvement of methods
of transport to make representations to all
or any of the bodies regarding the adjustment
of taxation customs duties and excise affecting
motor vehicles and other modes of transport
and employment of same in such manner as
to facilitate the development of Road
Transport throughout India to educate the
public by means of propaganda work and
to create authoritative public opinion with
regard to the needs of and advantages to be
derived from improved road communi-
cations. All persons firms or companies
interested in Road and Transport problems
are eligible for election as members.

Branches are already in existence in Bombay
Calcutta Madras Karachi and Assam and
others will be formed as and when occasion
demands. The following are the addresses
of the Honorary Secretaries of the Branches.
Bombay P O Box 863 Calcutta P O Box
2285 Madras P O Box 1270 Karachi
P O Box 168

INDIAN SOCIETY OF ORIENTAL ART (Calcutta)
—President Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee
K.C.I.R. Vice President Mr O O Ganguly
Collector Extraordinary, Rupam; Joint Hon. Secre-
taries, C W E Cotton and G N Tagore
Assistant Secretary, P Chatterjee, Hon. Treas-
urer Rai Fandira Lal De Bahadur Officer—
6A, Corporation Street, Hindustan Buildings,
First floor Calcutta

INDIA SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION—The India Sunday School Union is an international organisation having for its object the strengthening of religious and moral education throughout the Indian Empire. It embraces a score of Auxiliaries, which are generally associated with language areas. There is a number of full time workers European and Indian, but much help is given in all parts of the organisation by honorary helpers.

The I S S U was founded in Allahabad in 1876. Its general committee is made up of representatives from the National Christian Council of India, from the auxiliaries and from other sources. Funds for the carrying on of the work are partially found in India but the major part is still provided by The World's Sunday School Association. The headquarters of the Union is at Coonoor in the Nilgiri Hills where buldies the office and well-stocked book shop there is The St Andrew Teacher Training Institution. In this institution a leaders in religious education from all parts of India are trained for their duties.

Besides the central training college the chief activities of the Union are the providing of literature for the religious educational needs of India, good literature for teachers and for children, extension courses of lectures delivered in English or vernaculars in all parts of the Empire, the arranging of teachers' conventions and conferences, the arrangement of examinations in Scripture for teachers and scholars in the Sunday Schools.

The following journals and quarterlies are published by the I S S U—

The India Sunday School Journal,
The Senior Lesson Quarterly

Approximately a million scholars in Sunday Schools and Day Schools are touched by the activities of the Union, and 80,000 to 70,000 teachers.

The officers of the I S S U are—President—Bishop J. W. Robinson, Delhi. Treasurer—W. H. Warren, Madras. General Secretary—K. A. Annett, London. Assistant Secretary—Rev. N. Franklin, Coonoor.

INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS (INDIA)—The organisation of the Institution commenced in 1919 and it was inaugurated by H. B. Lord Chelmsford early in 1921. Its object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in India on the same lines as are adopted by the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers in the United Kingdom. The standard of qualification is the same. Membership is divided into four classes, viz., Members, Associate Members, Companions and Associates and there is an additional class for students. President, Sir Cecil B. de Ver. Atkinson, 100, Annexe, Office—8, Esplanade Row, East P. O. Box 600, Calcutta. MADRAS FINN ARTS SOCIETY—Patron, H. E. Lord Hon. Viscount Goschen, President The Hon. Mr. Justice B. H. Wallace, Secretary, P. Y. Fyson, Chopaluk, Presidency College, Madras.

ADRIAN LITERARY SOCIETY AND AUXILIARY OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY—Secretary, B. W. Batchelor, Messrs Binny & Co., Madras.

NATIONAL HORSE BREEDING AND SHOW SOCIETY OF INDIA—Formed in 1923, by Major General Sir Bernard James CB OBE MVO who was President from 1923 to 1925. Objects To form a national body of public opinion on horse-breeding matters to encourage and promote horse-breeding in India, to protect and promote the interests of horse breeders and to give them every encouragement, to improve and standardise the various types of horse bred in India to prepare an Indian stud book and to promote uniformity in all matters connected with horse shows in India. Patron-in-Chief—H. E. The Viceroy, President (for 1929-31) Nawab Mir Malik Khairat Khan Tiwana of Kalra Shahpur District Punjab. Secretary Major General Sir Bernard James, CB OBE, MVO. The Society issues the following publications:

Horse Breeding An Illustrated Quarterly Journal in English and Urdu. Stallion Register and Supplement, Indian Stud Book, Record of Country Bred Racing, Ahmednagar Stud Book Show Judging Pamphlet. The Second Volume of the Indian Stud Book was published at the end of 1930. The Society holds The Imperial Delhi Horse Show annually in February. Registered Office—Delhi.

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION—Founded in 1870. Its objects are—(a) To extend in England knowledge of India, and interest in the people of that country. (b) To co-operate with all efforts made for advancing Education and Social reform in India. (c) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India. In all the proceedings of the Association the principle of non interference in religion and avoidance of political controversy is strictly maintained. It has branches in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Calcutta, Mangpur and Lahore. Hon. Secretary Miss Beck, 21, Cromwell road, London. Publication, *The Indian Magazine and Review* (8 numbers a year) which chronicles the doings of the Association in England and in India and takes note of movements for educational and social progress. It publishes articles about the East to interest Western readers and articles about the West to interest readers in the East. *Life Members*—Ten Guineas. Annual Subscriptions, Members, one Guinea. County Members, Ten shillings. Associate Students, Seven shillings and Six pence.

PASSENGERS AND TRAFFIC RELIEF ASSOCIATION (Established in 1915). Head Office—130, Meadows Street Fort, Bombay. Objects—(a) To inquire into and ascertain grievances with respect to passengers in India generally. (b) To petition Government, local bodies, Railway, Steamers and other companies carrying passengers and traffic, to take all proper and necessary steps to obtain redress with regard to the said grievances. (c) To hold periodical meetings and discuss questions relating to grievances. (d) To start branch offices throughout India, and to affiliate societies and bodies having objects similar to this Association. (e) To start a fund to meet expenses for carrying out the objects of the Association. President—Meyer Nimin, Esquire, M.A., Vice-Presidents—

L. R. Talwar Esquire, B.A., Lachmandas Daga, Esquire Hon. Secretaries—Jivraj G. Narsay, Esquire Khan Bahadur P. K. Ghamat Assistant Secretary—Patanjali Jamseifi, Esquire

PHILATELIC SOCIETY OF INDIA—Formed March 1897 Annual subscription Rs. 15 Secretary, Jna. Godinho, 15, Burrows Street, Bombay

PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta)—Annual subscription Rs. 30 (Fellow Members) and Rs. 15 (Mofussil members) Entrance fee Rs. 20 and Rs. 10 The Society is affiliated to the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain London, and holds annual exhibitions distributes a monthly journal to members, and undertakes developing printing and enlarging work from its members only. There are excellent work rooms apparatus and reading room at the Society's Head quarters at 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta Hon. Secretary A. Hearn 229 Lower Circular Road, Calcutta

JOOA BEVA SADAN SOCIETY—This Institution was started in 1908 by the late Mrs. Ramabai Lunade, Mr. G. K. Devadhar and a few other ladies and gentlemen in Poona and registered in 1917. It is now working independently though for a few years in the beginning it was conducted as a branch of the Bombay Beva Sadan. Its main object is to make women self-reliant and to train them for missionary work undertaking educational and medical activities for their sisters and brethren, especially the former in backward areas and working on a non-sectarian basis. Nominal fees are now being charged for instruction except for the Music Classes for Special Classes in English, and for High School classes, etc. There are eight different departments subdivided into 60 classes. Arrangements are made for training Nurses and Midwives and women Sub Assistant Surgeons at the Sassoon Hospital Poona, and a hostel is maintained for the former and two for those attending the Sub Assistant Surgeons' Classes. There is a Public Health School affiliated to the Lady Chelmsford League for Maternity and Child Welfare Delhi. The number in those three hostels is now about 85. Besides there is a full fledged training College named after Jai Motilal Wadia with about 46 students excluding those in the V F Class for being trained as Mistresses for vernacular schools. This college is probably the only college in India maintained by a non-official non-Christian missionary body teaching the full course. The results of the Certificate Examination held in the year 1927-28 under the authority of the Local Government Training College for Women were as follows: 1 year senior 12. The total number of certificates granted so far is 247 now. The Practising School for little girls attached to the Training College has now eleven classes with 265 students reading up to the Marathi VI Standard, English being taught in the V standard class. Primary Classes for grown up women teaching up to the Marathi V Standard are attended by about 100 women. It is here that poor women are recruited for training as a teacher, nurse, midwife, or doctor. Special classes for teach-

ing English, First Aid, Home Nursing were attended by about 95 students, the Music Classes by 112 students and the Work room Classes for teaching Sewing, Embroidery, Knitting and Weaving by 158 women. Thus, the total number of pupils is 984 to-day. There are two branches of the Society started at Satara and Baranasi which are named after Lady Vithaldas Thakorey, the wife of the greatest helper of the Society so far the late Sir Vithal das D. Thakorey. Besides there are branches started at Bombay (Dadar and Girgaum), Sholapur, Ahmednagar, Alibag, Nasik, Nagpur, Gwalior and Madras for either educational or medical work or for both. Thus the total number of women and girls including about 160 duplications in the rolls at these various Centres of the Society is over 1,000. There are in Poona six hostels three of which are located at the headquarters and the other three in the Baste's Path and the Sonawar Peth for Nurses, etc., undertaking at the Sassoon Hospital. The number of resident students is about 200 in these six hostels. One of the three hostels at the headquarters is intended for women of depressed class. The number of these women at present is 7. In connection with the medical branch a Committee has been formed in England, which will enable the Society to send fully qualified Nurses there to undergo further training. Two fully qualified Nurses have so far been sent by the Society for the first graduate course in Public Health Nursing at Bedford College for women, London with the partial help of a scholarship of the League of Red Cross Society, Paris. There is an active Infant Welfare centre and ante-natal clinics with the average daily attendance of 50 excluding expectant mothers. The Society has extended its medical activities in Bombay by undertaking with the help of two charitable Trusts in Bombay to work out the scheme of Maternity, Infant Welfare Child Welfare and General Nursing for the women and children of the Bham Community under the supervision of Mr. G. K. Devadhar the organizer of the society. This scheme has a Maternity Hospital and Nursing Home, and three Infant Welfare centres. Besides, there are Maternity Hospitals and Nursing Homes at Ahmednagar, Alibag, Nasik and Sholapur under the management of the society in connection with other organizations. New life and efficiency the Countess of Irwin the Countess of Reading, Lady Wilson, Lady Lloyn, Lady Willington, Lady Sydenham and Lady Chelmsford are Hon. Patronesses. The institution is largely dependant upon public contributions and Government assistance. The annual expenditure of the whole organization now exceeds Rs. 2,50,000. President Shrimant Saubhagyaaji H. H. the Rautsahab of Sangli, Honorary Organizer and General Secretary Mr. Gopal Krishna Devadhar, M.A., C.I.E., Local Secretary and Treasurer Mrs. Yamunabai Dhat, Lady Superintendent and Secretary for Development and Collections Mrs. Janakibai Bhat (Kawer Hind Silver Medal), Joint Lady Superintendents Mrs. Saralabai Nalk, M.A., and Miss Dwarakabai Dhat, B.A., B.T. Hon. Secretaries, Nursing and Medical Education Committee Rao Baladhar

Dr P V Shikharé L M & S, Dr V C Gokhale, L M & S and Dr N J Ranade
B A MRS

Press-Workers Association, Bombay—
Started on 30th April 1919 to promote the interests of the printing and litho presses and allied trades to bring about harmony and co-operation among press owners and proprietors and to take such steps as may be necessary in furtherance of the above objects

Office—Galwadi, Girgaum, Bombay 4

President—Shri Pandurang Javjee, J P

Secretary—Mr Manilal C Modi

RANGOON LIBRARY SOCIETY—President H E the Governor of Burma *Lion Secretary* Mrs C Peacock 17 York Road

RECREATION CLUB INSTITUTE—This Institute was started in 1912-13 by the members of the Ismaili Dhammic (religious) Library in Bombay. Its central office is in Bombay with branches at Ahmedabad, Ahmednagar, Karachi, Hyderabad (Sindh), Poona, Warangal, etc. The aims and objects of the society are to elevate and improve the social, economic and spiritual condition of the depressed and poor classes of people and with that intent to found primary schools, associations and such departments and to take all constructive means to achieve the above objects. The Institute has 2 orphanages with 150 inmates, industrial works, domestic industries, sales depots, clubs, libraries, etc. It also issues two Anglo Vernacular papers, *The Ismaili* (a weekly) and *The Azari* (a monthly). *Hon Secretary*, Mr Hasan Lalji Devraj

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, INDIAN SECTION—This Society was founded in London in 1754. Its recently published history by Sir Henry Truman Wood, late Secretary of the Society, gives the following account of the Indian Section. In 1857, a proposition was made by Mr Hyde Clarke, who wrote to the Council suggesting that "a special section be formed for India, another for Australia, one for English America and so on." It was suggested that the Indian Section should meet once a fortnight for the reading of papers. Nothing came of the suggestion until ten years later when Mr Hyde Clarke returned to England, and in 1868 he renewed his proposal, but only proposing the formation of a Committee which should organise conferences on Indian subjects. This time the suggestion was taken up more warmly. Mr Hyde Clarke himself was placed on the Council, and the Indian Conferences, which soon developed into the Indian Section, were started. The Indian Section thus established became a most important department of the Society. It has had great results in India by spreading information as to the directions which the development of Indian manufactures and Indian products could most usefully take, and in England by giving similar information as to the industrial resources and progress of India itself. The Section has received great help from the Indian press and

it has in return been of service to the Indian press in supplying useful information to it. It has been of great value to the Society itself as the means by which many members have been added to its list, so that in fact thanks to a very large extent to the work of the Indian Section and of the allied section for the Dominions and Colonies a large proportion of the present number of members come from the dependencies of the Empire abroad. *Secretary of the Society* G K Menzies, *Secretary of the Indian and Dominions and Colonies Sections* W Lerry, B A 108 (retired) 18 John Street, Adelphi London, W C 2

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY—The Servants of India Society founded by the late Hon Mr G K Gokhale in 1905 is a body of men who are pledged to devote all their lives to the service of the country on such allowances as the Society may be able to give. Its objects are to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote by all constitutional means the interests of the Indian people. Its present strength is 21 Ordinary members, 2 members under training, 2 permanent assistants, 1 Attache and 3 probationers. The Society has its head quarters in Poona with branches at Madras, Bombay, Alkhabad and Nagpur and other centres of work at Dohad in Gujarat, Mangalore and Calcutta in the Madras Presidency, Lucknow in U P, Lahore in the Punjab and Cuttack in Bihar and Orissa. The Society's work is primarily political, but as it believes in all round progress of the Indian people it has always laid equal emphasis on social, economic, educational, labour and depressed class activities and has worked in these fields. The political work is done through the legislatures, the non official political organizations, deputations to foreign countries and propaganda. The Right Hon V S Srinivasa Sastry was in the old Imperial Legislative Council and in the new Council of State till 1924 and has to his credit many achievements. Pandit Bhrday Nath Kunzru was a member of the U P Legislative Council and of the Legislative Assembly. He takes special interest in the questions of the Indianisation of Army, public services, education and Indians overseas. Mr N M Joshi has been a nominated member of the Assembly since 1921 and has to his credit many a labour legislation. Mr N A Darda was for three years a member of the C P Council. Mr Joshi was a member of Bombay Municipal Corporation and Mr B. R. Bakhale a member of the Board of the Port of Bombay for a short period. Mr Kunzru has been the General Secretary of the National Liberal Federation of India, and Messrs Joshi, S P Andrews, Dube and K P Kaul are Secretaries of its Provincial branches and have all done the work of organising political conferences. Messrs Sastry and Kunzru were members of the Liberal Party's deputation to England during the Reforms period of 1919-20. Mr Sastry again toured some of the Dominions in 1921 on behalf of the Government of India to secure legitimate rights for Indians there, attended as India's representative the Assembly of the League of Nations and the Washington Naval Disarmament Conference,

went to England in 1923 as a Leader of the Kenya Deputation of the Indian Legislature, went in 1927 to South Africa as Agent-General of the Government of India under the now famous Cape Town Agreement for eighteen months and lastly went to Kenya in 1929 on behalf of Government to place the Kenya Indians' case before Sir Samuel Wilson. His achievements in South Africa are a marvel to the world and brought the White and Indian communities together. Mr. Kunzru went in 1929 to Kenya to preside over the East African Congress and to England as the spokesman of the Kenya Indians to put their case before the British Government. Mr. P. Kodand Rao was in South Africa with Mr. Sastri and in Kenya with Mr. Kunzru and has mastered the question of Indians there. Mr. Joshi was a member of the Nehru Committee which is the author of the now famous Nehru Report on Constitutional Reforms.

In the field of social economic and educational work, the Society's activities are equally varied. Some of its members are practically the founders of such institutions as the Poona Seva Sadan, Bombay and Madras Social Service League, the U. P. Seva Samiti, the Bihari Seva Mandal catering for the needs and uplift of the aboriginal tribes in Central India. The Seva Sadan has been a model institution for the education of women which gives training to over 1,500 girls and women in all useful directions. It has many branches in different parts of India carrying on social and educational work. The Social Service League has done good co-operative, educational and welfare work for the mill workers in Bombay by starting Co-operative Societies, a night and technical schools and conducting welfare centres. The Seva Samiti is an unique organisation in Upper India doing service to the pilgrims going to religious places such as Haridwar and Benares and working in times of epidemics. Its Boy Scouts organisation is a well knit body recognised both by the public and Government. Mr. Chittala conducts the Bhagini Samaj for social educational work among the Gujarati ladies. The Society has been conducting a model Depressed Class Mission in Mangalore and the Devadhar Malabar Reconstruction Trust activities at Calicut. In the Co-operative movement the Society has done the pioneering work in the Bombay and Madras presidencies. During natural calamities such as floods, famines and epidemics, the Society has done relief work in every part of India. By its work in the Moplah rebellion the Society has become a household name in Malabar. Mr. Sastri was for many years a member of the Madras University Senate. Mr. Kunzru is a member of the Allahabad and Benares University Senates and Syndicates and Mr. Dube a member of the Lucknow University Court and of the Lucknow District Local Board.

The Society has taken equally prominent part in various labour activities. Messrs Joshi and Bakhale have been General and Assistant Secretaries of the All India Trade Union Congress since 1925 and are greatly responsible for the shape given to the labour movement and for the organisational work particularly in Bombay. They have been President and General Secretary of the Bombay Textile Labour Union since 1928 and have conducted many Textile strikes. Mr.

Joshi attended five times the International Labour Conference at Washington and Geneva as Indian Worker's Delegate and the British Commonwealth Labour Conference. In 1925 Mr. Bakhale went to Europe in 1928 to attend on behalf of Indian Labour the Geneva International Labour Conference, the British Commonwealth Labour Conference, the International Textile Workers' Congress, the Labour and Socialist International Congress and the British Trades Union Congress. He studied the Trade Union movement in Great Britain, Germany and Russia. Mr. Parulekar and a few other members of the Society are doing similar labour work. Messrs. Sastri and Joshi are members of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour.

The Society conducts three papers—The *Services of India* an English weekly of which Mr. S. G. Vaze is Editor, the *Dnyan Prakash* the oldest Marathi daily of which Mr. Limaye is the Editor and the *Himant* a bi-weekly. Mr. Parulekar conducts the *All India Trade Union Bulletin*. Mr. K. G. Sivarami the *Co-operative Bulletin* in Madras and Mr. A. V. Patwardhan the *Sanskhar Samaja* a Marathi weekly for the benefit of the subjects of Indian States. The Society has also published several pamphlets on public questions of the day.

The question of the subjects of the Indian States has also engaged the attention of the Society and some of its members, particularly Messrs A. V. Patwardhan and A. V. Thakkar are devoting a part of their energies for that work.

The Right Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri P. C. C. is the President and Mr. K. K. Devadhar M. A. C. S. is the Vice President and Mr. P. Kodand Rao the Secretary. Messrs Sastri, Devadhar, Kunzru and David are senior members of the four branches. Mr. Joshi is the Secretary of the Bombay Branch.

The Society is a non communal, non sectarian body which does not recognise any caste distinctions.

SEVA SADAN—The Seva Sadan Society was started on the 11th of July 1908 by the late Mr. S. M. Malabari. It is the pioneer in Indian ladies society for training Indian sisters ministrant and serving (through them) the poor, the sick and the distressed. To spread its Gospel far and wide the first branch was opened at Poona as early as 1909. The Society has its headquarters in Gamdevi Bombay. The Society maintains the following departments of work: (1) Home for the Homeless (2) Ashrams (Training Homes), (3) Marathi Normal Classes (4) Home Education Classes (5) Industrial Department including a work room, Sewing, Cutting, Hosiery, Canvas, Cookery, Fancy Embroidery and Artificial Flowers are among the chief industries taught. Total number of women in the different classes is nearly 450.

Secretary, Miss B. A. Engineer, M. A. LL. B. M. B. N., J. P.

CONSUMPTIVES HOME SOCIETY—This Society was started by the late Mr. B. M. Malabari and Mr. Dayaram Ghidmal on the 1st of June 1909. It was registered under Act XVI of 1860. Mr. Malabari secured a large grant of land in a Himalayan pine

Forest in Dharampur (Simla Hills) from H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala, for a Sanatorium for consumptives. His Highness also gave a donation of Rs. one lakh. In 1911 by special permission the Sanatorium was named The King Edward VII Sanatorium. The Sanatorium has its special water works known as the Lady Harding's Water Works presented by the late Sir (Lieut.) Madhavilal Dutt of Ahmedabad. The Sanatorium has a Guest House. The Nodirwan A'ini Guest House for visitors to Dharampur. It has accommodation for 80 patients including the special Punjab Block built from a grant of the Punjab Government and reserved for European patients. Most of the blocks and cottages are built by Parsis. The Sanatorium has its own dairy and is called the Dal Pirojhai R. H. Patsek Dairy. The Recreation Hall is called The Sir Brupinder Singh Recreation Hall after the name of the Maharaja of Patiala. Mr. Nidheri collected an endowment fund of about Rs. 67,000 lodged with the Treasurer. Charitable endowments, under Act VI of 1890. About Rs. 2,50,000 have been spent on laying out the site buildings, etc. and the current annual expenditure is about Rs. 46,000. The Senior and Junior Medical Officers are in charge of the Sanatorium. The Office of the Society is situated at the Seva Sadan Buildings, Gandhi Bazaar, Mr. S. P. Wadia is the Hon. Secretary and Diwan Bahadur K. M. Jhaveri is the Hon. Treasurer.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN IN WESTERN INDIA—Office and Homes at King's Circle Matunga.

Founded—To prevent the public and private wrongs of children and the corruption of their morals, to take action for the enforcement of the laws for their protection, and, if necessary, to suggest new laws or amendments of the existing laws. To provide and maintain an organization for these objects to promote education, and to do all other lawful things incidental or conducive to the attainment of the foregoing objects. Subscription for annual membership Rs. 10 for Life Membership, Rs. 100. **President**—Dr. Sir Tejpal B. Nariman M.A.

Honorary Secretaries Dr. Mrs. D. A. De Monte, and Mrs. R. P. Masani, **Hon. Treasurer** Khan Bahadur H. S. Kutrak.

THEOSOPHICAL EDUCATIONAL TRUST—This Society was established in 1913 and stands for the education of Indian boys and girls, in which the physical, emotional, intellectual and religious welfare are equally attended to. The general educational policy of the Trust is embodied in "Principles of Education" by Dr. Besant. The chief schools and colleges maintained are (1) Theosophical School and College at Adyar (Residential and Co-educational), (2) Theosophical College and High School at Madanapalli (Co-educational), (3) Theosophical School for Boys at Benares, (4) Theosophical College for Women at Benares. It is under contemplation to open a Unitary Residential University at Madanapalli and apply for a charter. **President** Dr. Annie Besant, **Secretary** Mr. Iqbal Narsain Gurtu, M.L.C. Mr. G. V. Subba

Bro. Additional Secretary Treasurer Mr. A. Schwara (Headquarters are at Adyar).

WESTERN INDIA NATIONAL LIBERAL ASSOCIATION—Founded in 1919.—The Association was formed in pursuance of clause (b) of Resolution VI of the First Session of the All India Conference of the Moderate Party with a view—to do sustained work for the political progress and the moral and material welfare of the people. To give expression from time to time to the considered opinion of the Party on matters of public interest, and to inform and educate public opinion in this Presidency in support of its views, policy and methods.

The objects of the Association are the attainment by constitutional means of full Dominion Status for India at the earliest possible date. For the promotion of these objects the Association shall adopt constitutional methods of agitation and work and shall foster a spirit of broadminded liberalism based on principles of liberty, equality and fraternity among the different classes and communities of the people. For the fulfilment of these objects the Association shall carry on educational and propagandist work by means of leaflets, pamphlets and other publications, (a) representations to Government, (c) meetings or conferences, lectures and all such methods as may be deemed practicable and expedient to educate public opinion, and (d) for advancing the interests of the Liberal Party by organizing and influencing elections to the legislatures (Central and Provincial, to Municipalities and District Local Boards).

The affairs of the Association are conducted by a Council consisting of 46 members who are elected every two years.

President—Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad K.C.I.E., LL.D. **Vice-Presidents** The Hon. Sir Phiroze (Sethna) K. C. I.E., and Sir Govindji Jhangir (Jr.) K.C.I.E. **Hon. Secretaries**—Mr. Hazi Kabiruddin Mr. J. R. B. Jajeebhoy Mr. D. G. Dalvi and Mr. A. D. Shroff **Assistant Secretary**—Mr. V. R. Rande **Office**—Alice Building, Ercaby Road Fort, Bombay.

WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION—This Association was started in Adyar, Madras, in 1917, with aims of service to women similar to those of the Seva Sadan in Bombay. It has 70 branches and over 3,000 members. It establishes classes, meeting places and regular lecture programmes for women in each of these branches. Each branch is autonomous and works according to the need of the locality. Classes are held to teach the vernacular, English needle-work—plain and fancy—first-aid, basket work, spinning, weaving and music and child welfare centres are conducted. Weekly lectures are given on subjects of general interest relating to women, such as health, education, religion, civic responsibilities, woman suffrage, etc. Though started entirely as an educational institution the movement for the Reform Bill proved that a most necessary part of work for the advancement of women was propaganda in support of woman suffrage. Accordingly the gaining of the vote for women was added to the objects of the Association and the Association

specialise on woman suffrage and the removal of sex disqualification from all franchise and candidature for local boards, municipal and legislative councils. Valuable work along these lines has been done by the association as this is the only woman suffrage organization in India. The Association publishes a monthly magazine, *Stri-Dharma* edited by Shrimati Malati Patwardhan B.A. in English with Hindi, Tamil and Telugu articles. (Rs. 4 to non members, Rs. 2 to members). It is an all India Association. Its largest branch is in Bombay, its greatest number of branches in South India but yearly additional branches are being started in other provinces, and there are flourishing branches as far north as Kashmir and Lashkar. The prospects of rapid growth for the Association are very bright as it has been found that women everywhere welcome the self-development which the establishment of these branches brings. The Association is affiliated with the International Woman Suffrage Alliance and the International Women's League for Peace and Freedom.

Objects —

To present to women their responsibility as daughters of India,

To band women into groups for the purpose of self development, education, and the definite service of others,

To gain compulsory primary education for every boy and girl in India

To secure the abolition of child marriage and child parenthood

To help women to realize that the future of India lies largely in their hands, for as wives and mothers they have the task of training and guiding and forming the character of the future rulers of India,

To secure for women the vote for Municipal and Legislative Councils as it is or may be granted to men,

To secure for women the right to be elected as members on all Municipal and Legislative Councils.

Readers: Adyar Madras President—Dr Annie Besant, Vice-Presidents—Dr Muthulakshmi S. C. Mrs. Jinarajadasa Hon. General Secretary—Mrs M. K. Cousins Hon. Treasurer—Shrimati Ammu Swaminathan

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION —

This Association, which was founded by the late Sir George Williams in 1844, is now a world-wide movement, well established in almost every country in both the hemispheres. The aim of the Association is, through its religious, social, educational, and physical work to answer the fourfold—spiritual, social, mental and physical—needs of young men.

The Young Men's Christian Association though relatively new to India, is spreading rapidly. The local Associations are autonomous and governed by local Boards of Directors. These Associations in Convention elect a National Council which is responsible for the supervision and expansion of all forms of the Association work in India, Burma and Ceylon.

There are now over 60 Associations affiliated to the national union and many other village Associations with many thousands of members of all races and creeds. The following Associa-

tions own one or more buildings which serve as the local headquarters — Allahabad Bangalore, Alleppey Bombay Calcutta Calicut Coimbatore, Colombo, Calt, Hyderabad Jubbulpore, Kandy Karachi Kunnamkulam Kottayam, Lahore Madras, Nagpur Naini Tal, Poona Raipur Secunderabad Simla Ootacamund, Wellington Delhi Jaipur Madras Mysore Bhopal Trivandrum the others use rented or rent-free buildings.

The work of the National Council and of the local Association is carried on by numerous voluntary workers and Committees, assisted by 107 specially trained full-time Secretaries. A feature of the Y M C A in India is the international character of its Secretariat. It is made up of 14 Americans, 4 Canadians, 19 Englishmen, 2 Scotchmen, 1 Swiss, 2 Anglo-Indians, 1 Dane, 3 Australians and 60 Indians and Ceylonese.

The classes of people reached by the Indian Y M C A and the lines of service it attempts to do for them may be stated as follows — **Generally —** 1. Literature — Publication of original works and reprints. Four series.

Heritage of India Religious Quot of India Religious Life of India Makers of Modern India.

2. Lecture Bureau — Many thousands of slides on a wide variety of educational and recreational topics serving a clientele in over 700 centres in India.

3. Physical—Training Physical Directors for schools and colleges fostering playground movement, Olympics.

4. British Army Work in a number of centres and especially on the N.W. Frontier.

Boys — Scouting Boys Clubs Camps etc. **Students** — Hostels and Institutes in most University Centres.

Indian students in Britain — Specially in London Edinburgh and Glasgow.

Citizens — (i.e. English educated Indians, Ceylonese and Burmese) Reading Rooms, Libraries, Lectures, Group Conferences. Study Circles handling many subjects of vital interest—social, intellectual and religious.

Soldiers — Institutes and Holiday Homes. **Anglo Indians** — Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux.

Europeans — Hostels, Institutes Employment Bureaux.

Laborers in Mills — Welfare Work.

Indians in Prison — Welfare Work.

Rural Communities — Rural Reconstruction work embracing Co-operative Banking, Distribution, Cattle Insurance and Arbitration, Cottage Industries and Adult Education in four Sikkim centres.

A monthly magazine the **YOUNG MEN OF INDIA** is issued at Rs. 5 per annum, including postage.

The work of the National Council (excluding that of the 170 local Y M C A's) called for a Budget of Rs. 2,04,480 in 1929. Of this sum Rs. 68,650 had to be raised from the public in India.

The Headquarters of the National Council is 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The office is —

Patron — His Excellency the Rt Hon Baron Irwin of Killybegs, Underdale, P.O. G.O.S. 6012 Viceroy and Governor General of India

President of the National Council — The Most Rev Dr Foss Westcott, Metropolitan of India

General Secretary — K. T. Paul, O.B.E., B.A. The Bombay Association now possesses four well equipped buildings — Warehouse Road, Lamington Road, Robesh Street and Rowlands Road. The President is Mr W. H. Nollan, O.B.E., M.C.E. and the General Secretary is Mr W. H. Bryant, M.B.E. In connection with each branch there is a well managed hostel providing accommodation for over 200 young men. These branches are managed by a Committee working under the Board of Directors. Each Branch organisation directs many and varied activities designed to meet the physical, spiritual, social, and mental needs of their members. A Welfare Service agency for labourers started in 1924 is now conducting five centres serving mill workers, Municipal mental employees and Railway employees. A programme of education, lectures, physical culture play and general uplift profitably fills up the leisure time of the workers and their families. The Association is responsible for the direction of three public playgrounds in the city which are financed by the Municipality. Three new centres will shortly open, two more for Municipal mental employees and one for the Port Trust families in Antop village.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON — This Association founded in the year 1875 was organised nationally in 1890. The aim of the Association is to promote the physical, intellectual, social and spiritual welfare of young women and girls in India, including European Anglo-Indian and Indian. This is done by the establishment of local branches in different centres. At present they number 76 including city and student branches. The Associations in big cities have a large membership including most classes of the community. The needs of girls are met by physical drill, recreation, clubs and classes, lectures, commercial classes, Bible Study, and devotional meetings, and meetings for social intercourse. Hostels are some of them holding as many as 70 girls, are established where there is a demand for them and the Association, at

present, owns 21 including 8 holiday homes in the hills. These hostels accommodate working girls, teachers, nurses, students and apprentices. Rates vary according to the residents' salaries and accommodation though all equally receive the benefits of a comfortable home, good food and wholesome surroundings. The holiday homes provide cheap holidays in healthy surroundings and also accommodate girls who work in the hills during the hot season. In addition to holiday homes, Summer Conferences are held annually at Anandagiri, the Conference estate owned by the Association in Ootacamund and in the North Indian Centre. Special Girls Camps are arranged from time to time in many centres.

Travellers' aid work is done in the large ports, especially Colombo, and a large number of transient guests and visitors are accommodated in the Houses in these centres. The Association also runs employment bureaux through the agency of which many girls find positions. The Commercial schools train girls for office and business life. These larger Associations are manned by a staff of trained secretaries, some of whom come from Great Britain, America, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. The others are found and trained in India. In many of the smaller branches where the work is of a simpler nature, it is carried on by voluntary workers who render faithful service year by year. The majority of the Indian branches are also carried on in this way. The Student Department is affiliated to the World Student Christian Federation and has 36 branches in the various Schools and Colleges.

The Association which is affiliated to the World's Young Women's Christian Association, is International and inter-denominational. Full membership is confined to members of the Christian Church, but Associate membership is open to any girl or woman of good character, no matter what her religion may be. The National Headquarters are situated in Calcutta and business is conducted by the National Committee which has a representative membership in all parts of India, Burma and Ceylon.

The Patroness of the Association is H. E. Lady Irwin.

Copies of the annual reports and other printed matter can be obtained from the National Office which is at 11 Harrington Mansions, Calcutta. The official organ of the Association is the 'Woman's Outlook', an illustrated monthly magazine, which supplies women living in India with a good magazine at the price of Rs 2 0 0, post free per annum.

ASSOCIATION OF BRITISH UNIVERSITY WOMEN IN INDIA

The Association of British University Women in India was established in 1913. Its objects are —

(1) To facilitate intercommunication and co-operation between women belonging to the universities of the United Kingdom, resident in India.

(2) To provide a means of keeping in touch with the universities of the United Kingdom,

by communication with the British Federation of University Women and otherwise as may seem expedient.

(3) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by university women.

Membership is open only to those women who hold degrees in any university in the

United Kingdom or hold Oxford or Cambridge Honours Certificates but Associate Membership is open to women who have studied at a British University for two years and each Branch may admit as Honorary Members women who have advanced the higher education and interests of women.

The Association of British University Women has four branches. The addresses of the Honorary Secretaries are as follows —

Hon. General Secretary — Mrs F J Kingelev
c/o P O B 636, Bombay

Honorary Local Secretaries

Bombay	Mrs Blair, Arthur House, Coopers, Bombay
Calcutta	Hon. Secretary c/o Mrs Cornelia Sorabji, 28 Chowringhee, Calcutta.
Dolbi	Mrs Blomfield, Amritsar Rd, Rajmunda Dolbi
Punjab	Mrs Irving, 16, Davis Road, Lahore

The Dolbi and Punjab Branches came into existence in 1918. The Calcutta and Bombay Branches are influential and have repeatedly intervened with good effect to educate public opinion with regard to subjects affecting women. All Branches have for instance made investigation on behalf of the Education Department Government of India. The Calcutta University Commission etc and have applied, through the International Federation of University Women, information on Secondary Education in India to the League of Nations. They have been the means of introducing women on to University Senates and Municipalities. The Calcutta Branch carried through an important exhibition of Food Products.

The Bombay Branch has done good work in connection with the formation of the Social Purity Committee and has, through a special sub-committee, organized public meeting for women on subjects affecting their interests about which legislation was being or had been recently enacted.

A valuable part of the work of the Association was the establishment of Women's Employment Bureau in Calcutta and Bombay. They were remarkably successful. The Bombay Bureau was eventually merged into the Employment Bureau established by the Women's Council, the Calcutta Bureau has ceased to exist.

As a means of promoting friendships between women from various parts of the United Kingdom, with widely differing tastes and interests and spheres of life in India, and as an instrument for affording opportunities for usefulness to educated women, the Association of University Women has a useful function to perform.

Federation of University Women in India

This is an organization conceived to unite for service and fellowship all University Women of whatever race or University who may be resident in India. Units representing British Universities, Indian Universities and American Universities severally have existed since 1913 (Britain) and 1920 (India and America) respectively.

These Units are now fused together into one body and are as such affiliated to the International Federation of University Women which embraces 51 countries of the world and has its headquarters at Grosvenor Hall, Cheyne Walk, London.

This International Federation is then a kind of League of Nations in which the University is the Unit and the opportunities it affords for better understanding for world friendship, and world service, will easily be imagined.

As forming one family, its Members help the common cause of women. They help one another by inspiration and interchange of service. They help the country for which as Individual Units they stand inasmuch as that country is swept forthwith by reason of its place within the International Federation alone into world statistics and the dignity of recognition by the League of Nations at Geneva.

The benefit to Members individually also is great. The Club Houses of the Federation all over the world are open to them. Equally so are all Scholarships and Fellowships offered by the Federation.

During 1920 these last have included Scholarships from Great Britain and America which gave free tuition, board and residence at certain Colleges to students for a degree, residential scholarships at Grosvenor Hall, valuable fellowships and prizes offered chiefly for Medical or Scientific research by Australia and America.

A special scholarship was offered in 1920 by Harvard College, Columbia University to under graduates from India.

Membership is open to Women Graduates of any University through the Unit representing that University. Colonial Graduates are at present attached to the British Unit.

Subscriptions — British Unit	Rs 3 a year
Indian Unit	Rs 3 a year
American Unit	Rs 2 a year

The Federation has Branches in Bombay, Calcutta, Lahore, Madras, Kodaikanal. Each Branch has its local Committee. But as a whole the Federation is under a Central Committee with Headquarters at Calcutta for the years 1928 and 1929. Headquarters are at Bombay for 1930-31.

OFFICE BEARERS, CENTRAL COMMITTEE

President — Miss McDougall

LOCAL REPRESENTATIVES

Bombay	Miss Phipps
	Mrs Kanga
Calcutta	Mrs Cornelia Sorabji
Punjab	Mrs Skemp
	Miss Jital
Madras	Miss P. Sethia

Honorary General Secretary, Mrs Doctor, Hiral Mansions Bombay

Applications for membership should be made to the Honorary General Secretary who will forward the same to the Local Secretary to whose Unit it may appertain.

PRINCIPAL CLUBS IN INDIA.

Name of Club.	Fata lished	Club-house	Subscription			Secretary
			Ent	An nual	Mon- thly	
ABBOTTANAD		Abbotabad N W F Provinces	24		11	Col S O L Steer, C B
ADYAR	1890	Madras	76	12	6	C. A. Aylev
AGRA	1868	Agra Cantonment	7		12	1st Col P H Wilson
AIHENDTAGAR	1890		50		11	Capt H. Harvey M O
AIJAL	1893	Lushai Hills L B & Assam	32		20	Capt I Noel I A
AJMER	1883	Kaiser Bagh	60		18	1st P W Crisp
AKOLA	1870	Berar	100		15	1st T Wright
ALLAHABAD	1868	Allahabad	100		12	1st A Anderson
AMRATOTI			100	0	13	1st W Nix Tames
AMRITSAR	1894	Amritsar	30		30	Capt G W Biddwin
BANGALORE, UNITED SERVICE	1868	38 Residency Road	100		1	1st J. J. J. J.
BARKILLY	1893	Municipal Gardens	50		9	Capt C A Tice
BARISAL	1864	Backergunj, Barisal	32		13	Wm Stewart
BARACKPORE	1850	Grand Trunk Road S River side	100		15	W H Jacques
BASSETT CYMRHAN	1881	Fyfe Street, Baseldn, Barina	50		11	C C Lyne
BELGAUM	1884	Close to Race Course	50		13	Capt R H Cord
BENARES			50		18	Capt W T Clyde
BENGAL	1827	73 Chowringhee Road Calcutta	500	25	20	1st Col H De L. Fer- guson D S O
BENGAL UNITED SER- VICE	1845	20, Chowringhee Road	150	20	10	R S Smith
BOMBAY	1832	Kaplanado Road	100	12	10	W F Murdoch
BOMBAY CYMRHAN			7	12	9	1st B Barclay and W H Tiley
BYOULLA	1833	Dollala Road Bombay	50	24	12	H B Holmes, D S O, M C
CALCUTTA	1907	241 Lower Circular Road	200	12	10	Dr S. Goswami and R B Whitehead
CANNING	1844	Canning	50		10	G Rose
CHITTAGONG	1878	Pioneer Hill, Chitta- gonj	75	12	10	F B Francis
CLUB OF CENTRAL INDIA	1885	Mhow	60		1	Capt I B F. F. F., R A
CLUB OF WESTERN INDIA	1865	Niphinstone Road Poona	200	12	10	Capt H A De each
COCHIN	1878		100	12	10	C B Billing
COCHINADA	1896	Cochinada	76		10	H A Che sarrs
COIMBATORE	1893	Coimbatore	75	9	10	W H Miller
COONOR	1894	Coonor, Nilgiris	100	12	8	A Perival Dall
DACCA	1864	Dacca	50		20	1st F. J. J. J., I P W L Stevenson
DALHOUSIE		Dalhousie Punjab		15		
DARTMOUTH	1868	Auckland Road	100	16	7	A A Price
DELHI	1898	Ludlow Castle, Delhi	100	15	15	Capt C F Weber

Name of Club	Estab-lished	Club house	Subscription			Secretary
			Ent	An-nual	Mon-thly	
			Rs	Rs	Rs.	
JHANSI	1887	Next to Public Gar-dens, Jhansi	75		17	Capt J W S Gardner 1880
MADRAS	1831	Mount Road, Madras	250	20	10	J A Thomson
MADRAS COSMOPOLITAN	1873	Mount Road	150	24	5	Rao Bahadur C V Krishnaswami Chet-ty
MALABAR	1884	Beach Road, Calcutt	100		12	C H Ball
MATUNTO	1001		100	12	20	J R Gouli
MOOLTAN	1892	Mooltan	50		9	Capt R Tow. Tu in
MAINITAL	1804		1 0	12	11	Lt Col J de Gray ON F P RGS
OOTACAMUND	1840	Ootacamund Nilgiri Hills	150	18	10	Capt A Catling
ORIENT		Chowpaty Bombay	300	72	6	S B Smith and R M Chinoy
PRGU	1871	Prome Road Rangoon	300	20	12	(Vacant)
PESHAWAR	1883	Peshawar	50		12	Major E F Hille
PUNJAB QUETTA	1870 1879	Upper Mall, Lahore Quetta	150 120	15	12 18	R C Saxena Col A L Barr tt D S O
RANGOON GYMNASIA RANGOON BOAT CLUB	1874	Halpin Rd Rangoon Royal Lakes Rangoon	75 48	8 2	10 6	Capt C L Foreman Edward Thomson
RAJPUTANA REGAL HONGKONG YACHT CLUB	1880 1889	Mount Abu Apollo Bunder	50 450		12	R T Complan Capt F F Hend mon
ROYAL CALCUTTA TURF CLUB	1861	11 Russell Street	500	25		Capt A Howard, M C
ROYAL WESTERN INDIA GOLF CLUB SATURDAY		Nasik 7, Wood Street, Calcutta	75 100	15 12	12 10	W F Bushby F A Yeareky
SECUNDERABAD	1883	Secunderabad (Deccan)	100		12	Lt-Col W C Clark, D S O
SHILLONG	1878	Northbrook Road, Shillong	100		20	F M (Jifford)
SHALHOT		Shalkot, Punjab	32		19	Major J Mulvan
SIND	1871	Karachi	300	12	12	Major J C Crocker
TRICHINOPOLY	1869	Cantonment	90	12	12	Dr C F H Norman
TUTICORIN	1885	Tuticorin	50	6	12	R S Kemp Scriven
UNITED SERVICE CLUB	1866	Simla	200	12		Major L B Grant F R
UNITED SERVICE CLUB, LUCKNOW	1861	Clutter Manzil Palace	100		12	F J Hawkins
UPPER BUNA	1889	Fort Dufferin, Mandalay	50	12	20	Capt J Harell D S O M C
WESTERN INDIA TURF		Bombay and Poona	50	15		(Vacant)
WILMINGTON SPORTS	1917	Clark Road, Bombay	500	120		W Botterill
WHEELER	1863	The Mall Meerut	75		10	Major R E Webb

ROTARY IN INDIA

ROTARY CLUBS IN MIDDLE ASIA REGION

F R Jim & Honorary Commissioner Middle Asia Region 200 Mount Road Madras

INDIA

BOMBAY (1930) Pres S P Dildroz C Seelani Kt Canada Building Hornby Road Hon Secy H W Bryant Y M C A Woodhouse Road Every Tuesday 1 30 pm Maxims Restaurant

CALCUTTA (1929) Pres A H Watson c/o Statebank Hon Secy D C Ghose 23 Debendra Ghose Road Bhutanagar Every Tuesday 1 30 pm Pettis Restaurant

DELHI (1929) Pres Grant Gowan c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy W G I Gilbert 49 Rajpore Road Every Friday 1 30 pm Midan Hotel

LAHORE (1927) H P Thomas c/o Punjab Club Hon Secy E R Hollock 44 The Mall Every Tuesday 1 30 pm Nichols Hotel

MADRAS (1920) Pres J W Macfarlane c/o South Indian Export Co Ltd Hon Secy G C D Priestly c/o Imperial Chemical Industries (India) Ltd Every Friday 1 30 pm Gymkhana Club

BRITAIN

HANCOON (1929) Pres T Davidson CBE c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy T Milby c/o Pulao Manufacturing Co 91 Judah Street Rangoon Every Tuesday 1 pm Strand Hotel

THATTEMYO (1929) Pres R Carroll Conduct c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy Saw Bi Htin c/o Rotary Club Every Saturday 3 pm Rotary Club House

CHINA

COLOMBO (1929) Pres C Herbert F Newland Mayor of Colombo Hon Secy C P Wishard c/o Y M C A Every Thursday 1 pm Grand Oriental Hotel

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

SINGAPORE (1930) Pres Roland Braddell c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy A J Gilmour c/o Victoria Theatre Every Friday 1 pm Raffles Hotel

PENANG (1930) Pres Hon P M Robinson c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy J D Irving c/o General Rubber Co Every Tuesday 1 pm R & O Hotel

MALACCA (1930) Pres D A E Bell c/o Hongkong Shanghai Banking Corporation Hon Secy E C Martin c/o Sime Darby & Co Ltd Every Tuesday 1 pm Masonic Hall

INDICATED MAJAY STAFFS

KUALA LUMPUR (1930) Pres The Honorable Mr S Veraswamy Hon Secy A B Jordan c/o Protectorate of Chinese Social Union 1 pm Crest Eastern Hotel and Inst Friday 8 pm Masonic Hall

IPON (1930) Pres Dr K T Khong c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy J H Saunders 112 and 114 Bedford Street Every Wednesday 1 pm Grand Hotel

SEREMBAN (1929) Pres Chang Sun Long c/o Rotary Club Hon Joint Secretaries J Jander Nkol (Corresponding) A Luhn Mee First Friday 6 30 pm and Third Friday 8 pm Hukla Club

KLANG AND CAPE (1930) Pres Anshu Jain c/o Rotary Club Hon Secy Dr H J Jiwson c/o Department of Health First and Third Saturday 8 pm Hakka Club

TAIWAN

BAIYAN (1930) Pres C B J Quarles van Gifford c/o Stormart My Nederland Hon Secy C A de Vries c/o Anti Press Agency Every Wednesday 8 30 pm Restaurant Versteeg

BANDONG (1930) Pres Dr H Philippel c/o Surveying Service Hon Secy A C de Jongh c/o Hon Kantar van de Wagon Every Thursday 8 30 pm Concordia Club

DIJOKAKARTA (1930) Pres S J Rijkers Mannfacturing Chemist Hon Secy Dr J Gilm c/o N I Spooling Mh Every Friday 8 pm Societie de Yerenping

MALAKO (1930) Pres C H G Van Vierssen Second Regiment Artillery Hon Secy Jan W Wijeman c/o Kawstraat 21 Every Wednesday 8 pm Edele Restaurant

SOKERABAYA (1930) Pres R Macfarlane c/o Royal Dutch Oil c/o Hon Secy C Nolin c/o Waterkrachtbedryf First and Third Mondays 8 pm Olympia Club

SAMARANG (1930) Pres A J W Voeter c/o Nederlands India Railway Hon Secy H A C Rijkers c/o Cultuur Mij der Vooeten land Every Tuesday 1 pm Societie Harmonia

SINCE

MEDEAN (1930) Pres Dr J C Geelings First Deputy Hon Secy J Jansen c/o Gouvernementskantoor First and Third Mondays 8 pm Hotel de Bort

SIAM

BANGKOK (1930) Pres His Royal Highness Prince Parakrit Ministry of Communications Hon Secy Frank S Williams c/o American Commercial Attache Office Chartered Bank Lane Every Thursday 12 30 pm Rajdhani (Railway) Hotel

The Church.

The Church of England in India became on March 1 1839 a self governing branch of the Anglican Communion. Until that date it had been an integral part of the Church of England and its bishops were considered to be suffragans of the Archbishop of Canterbury. This legal bond was severed by the passing of the Indian Church Act and Measure in 1927 and from the date of severance appointed under the Act the Church of India Burma and Ceylon has been free to manage its own affairs although as it states in the Preamble to its Constitution it has no intention or desire to renounce its obligations to the rest of the Holy Catholic Church and its fundamental principles, but on the contrary acknowledges that if it should abandon those fundamental principles it would break spiritual continuity with its past and destroy its spiritual identity.

Like all the other branches of the Anglican communion the Church of India Burma and Ceylon is Episcopial. It is composed of fourteen sees: Calcutta Madras Bombay Colombo Lahore Bangoon Travancore and Cochin Chota Nagpur Lucknow Tinnevely and Madras Nagpur Dornakal Assam and Nasik. Of these the first to be erected was Calcutta in 1814 and the last was Nasik in 1920. Vacancies on the Episcopial Bench are filled by election each diocese electing its own bishop. The bishop rules the church and to him is reserved the final word in all matters of faith and order, but they rule in conjunction with a system of Councils which, has been framed so as to give the greatest possible amount of representation to the whole body of the faithful. The foundation of the system is the **Parochial Council** of which the Parish Priest is the convener and chairman. Every baptised, and confirmed member of the Church residing in the parochial area who contributes in some recognised way, to the financial support of the Church is a member of the Parochial Council of the ecclesiastical area in which he resides and is called a Qualified Elector.

Above the Parochial Councils come the **Diocesan Councils**. All Priests holding the Bishop's license are members of the Diocesan Council and to it are sent Lay Representatives elected by the Qualified Electors of every Parochial Council. The Diocesan Councils manage all purely domestic matters and have the right of petitioning the General Council about any subject of wider importance which may interest them. They elect a given number of priests and laymen to be their representatives on the General Council. General Councils are held not less than every three years and usually at Calcutta. They consist of three Houses, Bishops, Priests and Laymen. Every Diocesan Bishop has a place in the House of Bishops. The other two Houses are formed by the elected representatives of the Diocesan Councils. The three Houses usually sit and vote together but any House has the right to meet alone if it desires to do so in order to formulate its policy or classify its opinions. A Canon of the Church is a Resolution passed with additional precautions ensuring due consideration by all three Houses. In all questions

touching faith or Order the position of the episcopate as the divinely authorised teacher of the Church is most carefully safeguarded and the Bishops alone without the concurrence of the other Houses can issue Determinations about both subjects. But no Determination of the Bishops can be the subject of disciplinary action until it has become a Canon.

Every priest before being licensed to work in the Church of India Burma and Ceylon takes an oath of obedience to the Canons.

The Ecclesiastical Establishment—At the time of the passing of the Indian Church Act and Measure the Government of India acknowledged that it was responsible for providing for the spiritual needs of the Soldiers and Civilians whom it brought out to India. These responsibilities it discharges by maintaining an establishment of chaplains and churches for the four principal denominations of Christians—Anglican, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic and the Free Churches. The Chaplains of the two first named groups are appointed by the Secretary of State for India the Anglicans on the recommendation of a Selection Committee of which the Archbishop of Canterbury is the Chairman. They are paid by Government and pensioned after a warranted period of service. Although they form a definite Department of Government they are not subject to the orders of anyone save their own ecclesiastical superiors. The Presbyterian Chaplains are sometimes appointed to stations and sometimes to regiments. The Anglican chaplains are always chaplains of stations and have the pastoral care of all the inhabitants of the station who do not deliberately withdraw themselves from their ministrations but when troops are included in the number of their parishioners Government orders that they shall have the first claim on their services. The chaplains and their congregations are members of the Church of India Burma and Ceylon during their residence in India and have full rights of representation in the Councils of the Church. Their right to the use in worship of the Prayer Book of the Church of England is not only acknowledged in the Constitution of the Church but is also safeguarded by clauses in the Indian Church Act.

Government gives to the Metropolitan an annual block grant which is divided between the seven bishops whom Government recognises as having jurisdiction over the Establishment Chaplains and their congregations. These are the Bishops of Calcutta, Madras Bombay, Lahore Lucknow Bangoon and Nagpur. Before 1930 they formed part of the Establishment. One of the difficulties which the Church is facing is that the Government Block Grant is not large enough to provide for all the needs of these bishops. In consequence the Church is struggling to raise Diocesan Endowment funds to make up deficits. More serious still however, is the situation brought about by the action of Government in 1924 when in pursuance of a general policy of economy necessitated by post war conditions it cut down the number of its chaplains by sixty. This

at the dioceses a very difficult task. It became necessary suddenly to provide the salaries of Diocesan Chaplains and to furnish funds for the upkeep of the churches of many civil stations previously maintained by Government. Realising the magnitude of this burden, Government agreed to help for a period of seven years by means of a very generous *Block Grant*. The question of the continuance of this grant is to be reconsidered in 1931. If the grant is considerably reduced the situation in most dioceses will be very serious. Either the Church must raise and devote to its purposes a greatly increased sum of money or many of the churches in up-country stations will have to be closed. The chief sufferers will be the Anglo-Indian and Domnicelled community, which on account of indiscrimination is less able than ever to carry the burden which it bears. It must inevitably be laid upon it. The difficulty of raising funds for the education of the children of this community and of obtaining priests to work for it becomes greater year by year. Nevertheless the Domnicelled Community is the backbone of the Church in India and it is through this community that the conversion of India must come.

The Churches in India have not been wholly blind to these facts and have made desperate attempts to cope with the needs of the community in spite of lack of real support from home. The education of its children is very largely in the hands of the Christian denominations. Though there are a few institutions such as the La Martinière schools, on a non-denominational basis, but they are exceptional. In all the large centres there exist schools of various grades as well as orphanages, for the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians under the control of various Christian bodies. The Roman Catholic Church is honourably distinguished by much activity and financial generosity in this respect. Her schools are to be found throughout the length and breadth of the Indian Empire, and they maintain a high standard of efficiency. The Anglican Church comes next and the American Methodists have established some excellent schools in the larger hill stations. The Presbyterians are also well represented in this field, particularly by the admirable institution for destitute children at Kalimpong, near Darjeeling. Schools of all denominations receive liberal grants in aid from Government, and are regularly inspected by the Education Departments of the various provinces. Thanks to the free operation of the denominational principle and its frank recognition by Government, there is no 'religious difficulty' in the schools of the European and Anglo-Indian communities.

Christian Missions.

The tradition that St. Thomas the Apostle, was the first Christian missionary in India is by no means improbable. History, however, carries us no further back than the sixth century, when a community of Christians is known to have existed in Malabar. Since then the so-called Syrian Church in south-west India has had a continuous life. Except in its fancy this Church (or rather these Churches or the Syrian Christians are now divided into

four communions) has displayed little of the missionary spirit until quite recent times. Western Christianity was first introduced into India by the Portuguese who established their hierarchy throughout their sphere of influence, Goa being the metropolitan see of the Indies. St. Francis Xavier a Spaniard by race, took full advantage of the Portuguese power in Western India to carry on his Christian propaganda. His almost super-human zeal was rewarded with much success, but many of the fruits of his labour were lost with the shrinkage of the Portuguese Empire. It is really to the work of the missionaries of the Propaganda in the 17th century that the Papacy owes its large and powerful following in India to-day. The Roman Catholics in India number 1,825,000, of whom 332,000 were added during the decade 1911-1921. The total of 'Syrian' Christians (exclusive of those who while using the Syrian liturgy are of the Roman obedience) is 315,000 as against 387,000 in 1901. Protestant Christians (the term throughout this article includes Anglicans) number 2,390,000 an increase of 347,000 since 1911. Thus, the total number of Christians of all denominations in India is now close on five millions. In fact it probably exceeds that figure at the present moment as these statistics are taken from the Census Report of 1911 and the rate of increase during the previous decade was nearly 100,000 per annum.

The Protestant Churches made no serious attempt to evangelise India till 1813. They have thus been at work in the Indian mission field for over 110 years, and the statistical results of their efforts are given above. It is now, however, generally recognized that Christian missions are producing indirect effects in India which lend themselves only incompletely to any sort of tabulation. The main agency of this more diffuse influence of Christianity is the missionary school and college. The Protestant missions fill a considerable part in the elementary education of the country. According to the 1923 Report of the National Christian Council for India they are teaching 420,205 children in 12,698 elementary schools mostly situated in villages. The majority (243,891) of children in these schools are non-Christians. The same is true also of the secondary schools and in a still greater degree of the colleges. The former number 523 with 70,204 male and 25,303 female pupils. There are 40 colleges affiliated to Universities, containing 20,082 male and 1,809 female students. Of these as many as 14,148 are non-Christians. From the standpoint of missionary policy much importance is attached to these agencies for the indirect propagation of the Christian faith. The statesman and the publicist are chiefly interested in the excellent moral effect produced by these institutions amongst the educated classes and the higher educational ideals maintained by their staffs. The principal University colleges under Protestant auspices are the Madras Christian College, the Duff College, Calcutta, the Wilson College, Bombay, the Forman College, Lahore, and three women's colleges—the Women's Christian College at Madras, the Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow, and the Women's Christian Medical College

at Ludhiana. The Roman Catholics have a large number of educational institutions, ranging from small village schools to great colleges preparing students for University degrees. But the proportion of Christian students in their institutions is very much larger than in those of the Protestant bodies. The proportion of literates amongst native Roman Catholics is probably lower than amongst the Protestant converts but compared with Hindus and Mohammedans it is conspicuous. In India the Roman Catholics have some 1,000 elementary schools in which 98,000 boys and 41,000 girls are receiving instruction. In middle and high schools they have 143,000 boys and 73,000 girls and in University colleges about 5,000 students of both sexes. These figures however, include a large proportion of Europeans and Eurasians, who are an almost negligible quantity in Protestant mission schools and colleges.

More recent but producing even more widespread results is the philanthropic work of Christian missions. Before the great famine of 1878, missionaries confined themselves almost exclusively to evangelistic and educational activity. The famine threw crowds of destitute people and orphan children upon their hands. Orphanages and industrial schools became an urgent necessity. But the philanthropic spirit is never satisfied with one kind of organisation or method. A great stimulus was also given to medical missions. Hospitals and dispensaries have sprung up in all parts of the mission field, and leper asylums are almost a monopoly of Christian missionary effort. In 1911 the total number of medical missionaries working under Protestant societies in India was 118 men and 217 women, the majority of the former being also ordained ministers of religion. There are 184 industrial institutions in which 59 different arts and crafts are taught, ranging from agriculture to type-writing. In this department the Salvation Army hold a prominent place, and the confidence of Government in their methods has been shown by their being officially entrusted with the difficult work of winning over certain criminal tribes to a life of industry. The indirect effect of all this philanthropic activity under missionary auspices has been most marked. It has awakened the social conscience of the non-Christian public and such movements as 'The Servants of India' and the mission to the Depressed Classes are merely the outward and visible sign of a great stirring of the philanthropic spirit far beyond the sphere of Christian missionary operations.

Reunion.—For very many years Indian Christians have shown that they felt much more sympathy than Europeans the sound and disadvantage of the divisions of Christianity. These divisions are due to a very much greater extent than is always recognised to political causes, and in the political conflicts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when they became crystallised, India had no part. Even those differences amongst Christians which have a purely religious origin and foundation seem to be of very little account to Indian converts. For them the great divid-

ing line is that between Christ and Mahomed or Shiva and Vishnu. Standing before a background of paganism they are conscious of a real fundamental unity in Christ. Compared with the greatness of the gulf which separates Christian from non-Christian, the differences of confession and order which separate Christian from Christian seem to be wholly accidental and negligible. In consequence the reunion movement, which is noticeable all over the world, is nowhere so strong as in India. In South India it has already resulted in the formation of the South India United Church which is a group union of five of the principal Protestant communions, and as these bodies are in communion individually with all, or almost all the other Protestant bodies at work in India the Union may be regarded as a Pan-Protestant Union. The S. I. U. C. is at present negotiating with the Anglican Church. If as seems probable the negotiations are successful the result will amount to a union of all the Christian bodies in South India, except the Roman Catholics, on the basis of the last Lambeth encyclical. This will mean that a real National Indian Church will come into being. Although it will be tolerant of almost every expression of evangelical opinion and will retain the freedom of development characteristic of Protestantism, by its acceptance of the Catholic creeds and the historic Episcopate it will be linked up with the Catholic tradition of the Anglican Church.

Anglican Missionary Societies

The Church Missionary Society carries on work in India in seven different missions—the United Provinces South India, Travancore and Cochin, Bengal, Western India, Punjab and Sind and the Central Provinces and Rajputana. The names are in order of seniority. Work was begun in what are now called the United Provinces in 1813, in Bombay in 1820, in the Punjab in 1851, and in the Central Provinces in 1854. The Society has always kept Evangelistic work well to the fore, but it also has important medical missions, especially on the N-W Frontier, and many schools of the Primary, Middle and High standards. The Church of England Zenana Missionary Society is an offshoot of the C. M. S. controlling the work of 162 missionary ladies. The number of ordained European missionaries of the C. M. S. in India and Ceylon is 160, European laymen 30 and European lay women 258. The Society claims a Christian community of 2,21,359 of whom 68,655 are adult communicants.

Society for the propagation of the Gospel.—Statistics of the work of this Society are not easily ascertained, as much of it is done through Diocesan institutions, which, while financed in many cases managed by the S. P. G., are entirely controlled by the Diocesan authorities. The best known of the S. P. G. missions is that at Delhi, commonly called the Cambridge Mission to Delhi, carrying on educational work at St. Stephen's College and Feroz College. At the College there are about 200 students under instruction, and at the High School 800. The College hostels accommodate 100 students. Missions to the depressed classes exist in Burma, in the Ahmednagar District and

several parts of South India, especially in the Diocese of Travancore Madras. The S. P. G. also maintains an important Criminal Tribes settlement at Hubli in the Bombay Carnatic. There are 110,000 Indian Christians under the aegis of the S. P. G. 90 ordained European missionaries and 98 European lay workers.

Other Anglican Societies.—The Oxford Mission to Calcutta was started in 1850. It works in the poorest parts of Calcutta and also at Barisal. There are 11 mission priests of this Society and 16 sisters. In addition to its work amongst the poor, the Oxford Mission addresses itself to the educated classes in Bengal and issues a periodical called *Asaphany* which is known all over India.

The Society of St. John the Evangelist (commonly known as the Cowley Fathers) has houses at Bombay and Poona and small stations in the Bombay Konkan. In Bombay its missionary work centres upon the Church of Holy Cross, Umarsindi, where there is a school and a dispensary. The Christians are chiefly drawn from the very poorest classes of the Bombay population. At Poona the Society co-operates with the Wantage Sisters and in Bombay with the All Saints Sisters. Other Anglican Sisterhoods represented in India are the Clerkenwell Sisters at Calcutta and the Sisters of the Church

(Kilburn) at Madras. The St. Hilda's Deaconesses Association of Lahore carries on important educational work (chiefly amongst the domiciled community) in the Punjab. The mission of the Scottish Episcopal Church at Naggur, the Dublin University Mission at Hazaribagh, and the Mission of the Church of England in Canada working at Kangra and Yamampur (Punjab) should also be mentioned under the head of Anglican Missions.

An interesting development has lately taken place in the Anglican communion. In 1922 the foundations were laid of a new Religious community called the Christa Seva Sangh or the Society of the Servants of Christ. The aim of its members is to enable Indians and Europeans to live together a common life based upon the three-fold vows of poverty, chastity and obedience and by living together to develop the Religious life along lines peculiarly suited to India. Indians appreciate fully the value of renunciation. The Sangh hopes to commend Christianity to India by presenting it with a concrete illustration of Christian asceticism. The first Ashram of the Brotherhood was consecrated by Dr. Palmer, Bishop of Bombay, in 1923. It is situated in Poona and it contained at the time of consecration 13 Brothers, of whom 6 were Indians and 7 Europeans. It shows every sign of life and growth.

Bengal Ecclesiastical Department

Wickett, Most Rev. Canon, D.D.

Archbishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan of India.

SENIOR CHURCHMEN

Crane, Ven. Archdeacon John

Archdeacon of Calcutta and Senior Chaplain St. John's Church, Calcutta.

Dyer, Rev. Basil Saunders, M.A.

Chaplain, Dargah, B. & O.

Hick, Rev. Canon Ormond, Whitley, M.C.

On leave.

Phonson, Rev. Thomas Alkirk

Chaplain, Dargah.

Williams, Rev. Henry Frank Fulford, M.A.

On leave.

Walford, Rev. Ernest Roland, M.A.

On leave.

Lee, Rev. Philip Freckin, M.A.

Chaplain, Dargah, Punjab.

Young, Rev. Ernest Joseph, B.A.

Chaplain, Bankipur, Bihar and Orissa.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

Macpherson, Rev. George Cook, O.B.E., M.A., B.D., J.D.

Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland, Bengal.

Nicholson, Rev. James Donald, M.A., B.D., J.D.

Secular Chaplain, Church of Scotland (On leave) (Scotland).

Macdonald, Rev. Donald, M.A., B.D.

Second Chaplain, St. Andrews Church, Calcutta.

CHURCH OF ROME

Parker, The Most Rev. Dr. Ferdinand, S.J.

Archbishop, Calcutta.

Dryan, Rev. Leo, S.J.

Chaplain, Alipore Central Jail.

Bombay Ecclesiastical Department

Acland, The Right Rev. Richard Dyke, M.A.

Lord Bishop of Bombay.

Martindale, Ven. Henry, M.A.

Archdeacon.

Walker, G. F.

Registrar of the Diocese.

Lille, A. F.

Off.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Collier Rev Canon Charles Bernard Gray M A	On leave
Hewitt Rev George	Do
Harvey Rev Canon Frederick M A	Senior Presidency Chaplain
Ryall Rev Dr Charles Richard M A D D M A	On leave
B D	
Mason Rev Charles Douglas Thomas M A	Doolall
A E F	
Dart Rev John Irving Campbell M A	On leave
Wormald Rev Robert Leonard, M A M B E	(old)
Ashley Brown Rev W L T H	Rikee
Douster Rev F J M A	Belgaum

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

CHAPLAINS

Dod Rev G B	Presidency Senior Chaplain St Andrews
McCall Rev M W M A	Chaplain of Poona and Lucknow
McLean Rev J	On leave
Reenan Rev J M A, B D D L M	Chaplain of Karachi

CHAPLAIN OF THE CHURCH OF ROME

Lama The Most Rev Dr Jonathan R	President
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Assam Ecclesiastical Department

CHAPLAINS

Higham, The Rev P, M A	Shillong
Jacobs	Darrang
Farquhar Rev W M A M C	Lakhimpur
Wood Rev W H S M C	Shikhar
Sefton, Rev J	Sibsagar

Bihar and Orissa Ecclesiastical Department

CHAPLAINS

Dyer Rev B G	Chaplain of Dinapore
Young Rev E J	Senior Chaplain Bankipore

ADDITIONAL CLERGY

Perfect Rev H	Bhagalpur
Sage Rev W H	Monghyr and Jaulmupur
Ethelred Judah Rev J A	Muzaffarpur and Dorthanga.
Bewcher, Rev Robert	Ranchi

Burma Ecclesiastical Department

The Right Reverend Norman Henry Lubbock M A	Lord Bishop of Rangoon	On leave
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SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Cowper Johnson The Venble Wilfrid Harry, M A	Archdeacon of Rangoon and Bishop's Commissary Also in charge of the duties of Bishop of Rangoon (On leave)
Anderson Rev Nicol Keith M A	Chaplain, Rangoon Cathedral Off Ditto
Park, Rev William Robert C I F D R F M A	Chaplain Muzmyo
Thursfield Rev Gerald Arthur Richard M A	Chaplain Rangoon Cantonment, Rangoon
Dalshaw Rev William	Chaplain (On leave)

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS

Lee Rev Arthur Okibicki Norris M A	Chaplain Mandalay
Lambert L W, M A Bar-at Law	Registrar of the Diocese and Archdeaconry of Rangoon

Central Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Wood Right Rev Alex MA Ph D OBE DD	Lord Bishop of Nagpur
Roberts The Venble Arthur Botton	Archdeacon Acting as Bishop's Commissary in charge of Diocese of Nagpur in addition
Bridges The Rev Francis MA	On leave
Carter Rev Bryan Bernard MA	On leave
Harwood, Rev K C	Saugor
Clark Rev Richard Charles Hollingbrook, MA	Pachmarhi
Martin Rev Frederick William	Services placed at the disposal of the U P Government
Jay Rev Piwari Hiday MA	Vadrad
Warrington Rev Guy Wilson MA	Mhow (C.I.)
D Sales Rev Andrew Augustine Fane BA	Kamptee
Saunders Rev Harold Martin MA	Nagpur
Patwick Rev Rowland BA	Mhow (C.I.)
Stratfield Rev S F BA	Jubbulpore

Madras Ecclesiastical Department

CHURCH OF ENGLAND

Waller Right Reverend Edward Harry Mansfield DD	Lord Bishop of Madras On leave
Crichton Rev Walter Richard	Archdeacon Senior Joint Chaplain St George's Cathedral and Domestic Chaplain to the Bishop Diocese of Madras
S L W C	On leave

SENIOR CHAPLAIN

Wheeler Rev Charles Ernest Ruspin	On leave
Bull Rev Francis Faulkner	On leave
Jones Rev Hugh MA	Chaplain Wellington
Langdale Smith Rev Richard Marmaduke BA	Cathryn Chaplain Fort St George
Edmonds Rev Herbert James MA	Senior Chaplain St George's Cathedral Madras
Trench, Rev Albert Charles MC	St Thomas Mount

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

Lee, Rev B E	Presidency Senior Chaplain St Andrew's Church Madras
Mackenzie Rev D F MA	On leave
Cameron Rev S W	St Andrew's Church Bangalore (Junior Chaplain)
Ingram, Rev J W	On leave

North-West Frontier Ecclesiastical Department

SENIOR CHAPLAIN

Marshall, Rev N F MA	Chaplain Hazara (Abbottabad)
Jones Rev C R S BA	On leave

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS

Fryer Rev M B MA MO	Chaplain Peshawar
O'Neill Rev W S MA	Chaplain, Derajat (Kohat)
Gasking Rev C A L TH	Assistant Chaplain, Peshawar
Claydon, Rev B MA	Chaplain Risalpur
Stephenson Rev W	Chaplain Rawalak (Waziristan)
Bradbury Rev J H, A & C	Chaplain of Nowshera

Punjab Ecclesiastical Department

Durrant The Right Reverend H B M A D D	Lord Bishop of Lahore
Carden The Ven ble Henry Craven M A	Archdeacon of Lahore Bishop's Commissary and Chaplain
Barnes Rev Canon George Dunsford M A (Oxon)	On Foreign Service Serving under the G of I Army Department as Principal the Lawrence Royal Military School Simla
England Rev Canon Herbert George M A (Durham)	Simla
Strand Jones Rev John B A (Oxon)	On leave
Hemming Rev Canon Charles Henry M A	Do
Kerr Rev George Henry Bruce M A (Dur)	Murree
McKevie Rev Robert Fritz Stanley M A D D (Oxon)	Murree & G
Lister Rev J G M A	Kasaulpur
Tambling Rev F G H	Karnal
Marshall Rev Norman Edwin M A	Ahmedabad
Storrs Fox Rev F A	New Delhi
Johnston Rev G F B A	Quetta
Devanish Rev R C S B A	On leave
Gorrie Rev L M	Do
Rennison Rev Eric David Robert M A	Euclid
Jones Rev G W B A	Simla (Assistant)

United Provinces Ecclesiastical Department

Saunders The Right Rev Charles John Cudde	Bishop of Lucknow Headquarters Allahabad
Bell The Ven ble G A M A	Archdeacon of Lucknow Headquarters Allahabad
Westmacott R	Registrar of the Diocese of Lucknow Headquarters Calcutta

SENIOR CHAPLAINS

Oxton Rev Canon B n M A	On leave
Bell The Ven ble Sidney Alfred M A	Nadmal
Cohn Rev Clifford John M A	Lucknow (Civil)
Talbot Rev Alfred Dixon	Lahore Dun
Dunlop Rev Douglas Lill (London) M A	On leave
Mansard Rev Arthur	Cawnpore (Cantt)
Broughton Rev Arthur Hardwick M A	Ranikhet (Almora)
Rigg Rev Arthur (Cell Plotron) M A	Almora
Martin Rev Frederick William M A	Chakrata (Lahore Dun)
Har Rev Arthur Neville M A	Meerut

ADDITIONAL clergy

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

SENIOR CHAPLAIN

AND

JUNIOR CHAPLAIN

McLellan Rev Duncan Tait Hutchinson M A	Jhansi and Ranikhet (Army)
Rutledge Rev James William Kenwick M A	Cawnpore (Army) In visiting charge of Lucknow and Benares
Mackintosh, Rev Kenneth M A	Chakrata and Lahore Dun

ACTING CHAPLAIN

Hazlett Rev Calvin H B A	Allahabad
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THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH

With regard to numbers, the *Catholic Directory of India, 1924*, gives the following tables —

	1901	1911	1921
1 <i>British India and Indian States—</i>			
(a) Latin Rite	1 312 224	1 614 020	1,851 408
(b) Syrian Rite	315 928	364 660	440,488
2 <i>French India</i>	27,850	26 018	25,480
3 <i>Portuguese India</i>	262,650	390 148	388,741
Total, India	1,916 656	2 401 846	2 606 117
4 <i>Ceylon</i>	285,018	322 103	363,986
Total India and Ceylon	2 201 674	2 623 959	2 970 103

NOTE (1) — In 1860 the total for India and Ceylon was 1,170,834. In 1880 it had risen to 1,610,267, and in 1900 to 2,201,674.

NOTE (2) — In 1926 the total for India and Ceylon has been worked out at \$241,744 allowing an increase of quarter of a million in five years.

NOTE (3) — The number of Catholics under the Portuguese jurisdiction in 1921 were reckoned at 604,802 of whom more than half were in British India.

NOTE (4) — In 1860 there were 1,504 priests. In 1921 there were 3,158.

The Catholic community as thus existing is composed of the following elements —

(1) The Syrian Christians of the Malabar Coast, traditionally said to have been converted by the Apostle St Thomas. They were brought under allegiance to the Pope by the Portuguese in 1500 and placed first under Jesuit bishops and then under Carmelite Vicars Apostolic. They are at present ruled by an Archbishop and three suffragan Bishops of their own Syrian rite.

(2) Converts of the Portuguese missionaries from 1600 and onwards, starting from Goa and working in the south of the peninsula and up the west coast, Ceylon, Bengal, etc.

(3) European immigrants at all times, including British troops.

(4) Modern converts from Hinduism and Islamism in recent mission centres.

The Portuguese mission enterprise starting after 1600, continued for about 200 years, after which it began to decline. To meet this decline fresh missionaries were sent out by the Congregation *de propaganda fide*, till by the middle of the 19th century the whole country was divided out among them except such portions as were occupied by the Goa clergy. Hence arose a conflict of jurisdiction in many parts between the Portuguese clergy of the "Padroado" or royal patronage, and the propaganda clergy. This conflict was set at rest by the Concordat of 1886. At the same time the whole country was placed under a regular hierarchy which after subsequent adjustments now stands as follows —

Of the Portuguese Jurisdiction —
The archbishopric of Goa (having some extension into British territory) with suffragan bishoprics at Cochin and Mysapore (both in British territory).

Of the Propaganda Jurisdiction —
The archbishopric of Agra with suffragan bishoprics of Allahabad and Ajmere.
The archbishopric of Bombay, with suffragan bishoprics of Poona, Mangalore, Calicut, Trichinopoly, and Tuticorin.

The archbishopric of Calcutta, with suffragan bishoprics of Ranchi, Dacca, Chittagong, Krishnagar, Dinajpur and Patna and the Prefecture Apostolic of Assam.

The archbishopric of Madras, with suffragan bishoprics of Nellore, Hyderabad, Vizagapatam and Nagpur.

The archbishopric of Pondicherry (French) with suffragan bishoprics of Mysoor, Coimbatore and Kumbakonam.

The archbishopric of Simla with suffragan bishopric of Lahore and the Prefecture Apostolic of Kashmir.

The archbishopric of Colombo (Ceylon) with suffragan bishoprics at Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee.

The archbishopric of Oranopoly with suffragan bishopric of Quilon.

One archbishopric and three bishoprics of the Syrian rite for the Syrian Christians of Malabar.

Three Vicariates Apostolic and one Prefecture Apostolic of Burma.

Propaganda changes —

New dioceses formed — Tuticorin by division of Trichinopoly, Calcutta by division of Mangalore, Chittagong by division of Dacca, Dinajpur by division of Krishnagar, Ranchi by division of Calcutta. Separate missions have been established at Catick, Bellary and Jubbalpore.

Padroado changes —

In May 1908 an agreement was made between the Holy See and Portugal to modify the arrangements of the Concordat of 1886. The diocese of Damaun is merged in the Archdiocese of Bombay and a complete readjustment has taken place in relation to Mysapore and Madras the main object being to obliterate 'double jurisdiction'.

The European clergy engaged in India almost all belong to religious orders congregations or mission seminaries, and in the great majority are either French, Belgian, Dutch, Swiss, Spanish or Italian by nationality. They number about 1,000 besides which there is a body of secular clergy mostly native to the

country, numbering about 2,000 and probably about 2,000 nuns. The first work of the clergy is parochial ministrations to existing Christians, including railway people and British troops. Second comes education, which is not confined to their own people, their schools being frequented by large numbers of Hindus, Mahomedans, Parsis, etc. Among the most important institutions are St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, St. Peter's College, Agra, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, St. Aloysius College, Mangalore, Loyola College Madras teaching university courses besides a large number of high schools and elementary schools. The education of girls is supplied for by numerous convent schools worked by religious congregations of nuns to say nothing of orphanages and other charitable institutions. The total number under education amounted in 1904 to 143,061 boys and 73,164 girls, later figures being unavailable. As to missionary work proper, the country is covered with numerous modern mission centres, among which those in the Punjab, Cochin, Nagpur, Krishnagar, Gujerat, the Ahmednagar district and the Telugu coasts may be

mentioned. (Full particulars on all points will be found in the Catholic Directory already quoted.) The mission work is limited solely by shortage of men and money, which if forthcoming would give the means to an indefinite extension. The resources of the clergy after the ordinary church collections and pay of a few military and railway chaplains are derived mainly from Europe, that is, from the collections of the Society for the Propagation of the Faith and of the Holy Childhood, helped out by private or other donations secured from home by the differential local missionaries. In mission work the fathers count as enrolled only those who are baptized and persevering as Christians, and no baptisms except for infants or at point of death, is administered except after careful instruction and probation. This, while keeping down the record, has the advantage of guaranteeing solid results.

The Holy See is usually represented by a Delegate Apostolic of the East Indies who resides at Bangalore. At present this post is occupied by the Most Rev. Edward Mooney, D.D. appointed in 1926.

THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND

The Church of Scotland and the United Free Church have become one. The Union effected in October 1929 has already exerted a profound influence upon the life of the Church of Scotland in India. The Chaplaincy work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1814, when the Rev. Dr. Bryce landed in Calcutta, and organized a congregation of his Scottish fellow countrymen. The centenary of the churches in the three Presidency towns was celebrated Calcutta 1914, Bombay, 1919, Madras, 1921. Since 1903 there have been eighteen chaplains on the staff of whom nine belong to the Bengal Presidency, five to Bombay, and four to Madras. These minister both to the Scottish troops and to the civil population of the towns where they are stationed, but when there is a Scottish regiment the chaplain is attached to the regiment, instead of being posted to the station where the regiment happens to be placed and as a rule moves with the regiment. There are three Presidency senior Chaplains in charge of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras respectively. There are churches in the chief towns of the Presidencies, and churches have also been built in all considerable military stations, e.g., Chakrata, Lucknow, Ferozpur, Rawalpindee, Nalhot, Umballa and Jubbulpore. In addition to the regular establishment there are a number of acting Chaplains sent out by the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, and these are serving in such stations as Rawalpindee, Lahore, Cawnpore, Meerut, Mhow and Quetta. The Additional Clergy Societies in India contribute towards the cost of this additional establishment. In other places such as Shikot, Murree, Dalhousie and Darjeeling, regular services are provided by Scottish Missionaries. Simla has a minister of its own sent out from Scotland.

The Mission work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1830 when Alexander Duff, one of the greatest of modern missionaries, was

sent to Calcutta. He was the first to open schools where English was made the medium for instruction, and where religious teaching was given daily. Similar educational missions were soon afterwards started in Bombay and Madras. Educational work is still an important branch of the mission work of the Church, but the Bombay College was closed in 1919 and in 1907 the College in Calcutta was united with the College of the United Free Church of Scotland, to form the Scottish Churches College. In the Punjab Evangelistic work is being carried on from eight centres under seventeen missionaries. The baptized Christian community now numbers over 14,000. Work commenced in Darjeeling in 1870 is now carried on throughout the whole Eastern Himalayan district, and there is a Christian community there of over 3,000. In the five mission districts of Calcutta, the Eastern Himalayas, Madras, Poona, and the Punjab there were at the end of 1919 over 24,787 baptized Indian Christians. In connection with these missions the Women's Association of Foreign Missions does invaluable service in school, medical and sanatorium work, having in India 41 European missionaries, 163 teachers, over 50 schools, three hospitals and six dispensaries.

The Church of Scotland has also done much to provide education for European children in India. Its two Churches in Bombay have six representatives on the governing body of the Anglo-Scottish Education Society, and the two churches exercise pastoral supervision over the Bombay Scottish Orphanage. In Bangalore there is the St. Andrew's High School, and both in Bangalore and in Madras the local congregations support the school for poor children. The *Arya Samaj* Girls' Boarding and High School is under the care of the Kirk-Session of St. Andrew's Church, Simla. The now well-known St.

Andrew's Colonial Homes at Kalimpong, Bengal, though not directly part of the work of the Church of Scotland were initiated by and are being locally managed by missionaries of that Church. The homes exist for the benefit of the domiciled European Community, and are doing magnificent work. There are now twenty cottages, and about 600 children in residences. Further information may be found in "Report of the Scheme of the Church of Scotland Blackwood & Sons" "The Church of Scotland Year Book" and "The Handbook of the Church of Scotland in India and Ceylon."

Though the former Churches of the United Free Church now belong to the Church of Scotland they remain independent of the establishment recognised by Government. They have only three purely European congregations in India, two in Calcutta, and one in Bombay.

The Church carries on Mission work in seven different areas. They are Bengal (Calcutta, Kalka and Chinnai), the Central Provinces, with five stations Western India (Bombay, Poona and Allahabad), Hyderabad State (Jaina, Bethel and Parbhani), Madras (Madras City, Chingleput, Srirangapatnam and Coimbatore), the Central Provinces (Nagpur

Bhandara, Wardha, and Amravati), Rajputana, where the extensive work instituted by the United Presbyterian Church in 1860 is now carried on from eleven centres.

The work falls into three main divisions: evangelistic, medical, and educational. The Christian community has been organised in all the chief centres into congregations which form part of the Indian Presbyterian Church, and this Church is seeking to take an increasing share in the work of evangelism. There are nineteen Mission Hospitals, among which are four excellently equipped and staffed Women's Hospitals, in Madras, Nagpur, Ajmer, and Jaipur. From the days of Duff in Calcutta and Wilson in Bombay the Mission has given a prominent place to education. It has many schools in all parts of its field and it has also made a large contribution to the work of higher education through four Christian Colleges. The Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, is well known. The Madras Christian College, which owes so much to the work of Dr William Miller, is now under the direction of a Board representing several Missionary Societies. Other Colleges are Wilson College, Bombay and Hilslop College, Nagpur.

BAPTIST SOCIETIES

THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN—Formed in 1792, largely through the efforts of Dr Wm Carey, operates mainly in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab and Ceylon. The Baptist Zenana Mission and the Bible Translation Society have been united with this Society. The staff of the united Mission in India and Ceylon numbers 216 missionaries and about 1,078 Indian and Singhalese workers. Connected with the Society are 345 Indian and Singhalese Churches, 247 Primary Day Schools, 28 Middle and High Schools and 4 Theological Training Colleges. The Church membership at the close of 1925 stood at 20,764, and the Christian community at 57,858. The membership during the past ten years has increased by about 55 per cent, and the community by 80 per cent. In the same period. Amongst the non-caste people great progress has been made in recent years, and many of the Churches formed from amongst these peoples are self-supporting.

Special work amongst students is carried on in Calcutta, Dacca, Cuttack and Delhi, where hostels have been erected for the prosecution of this form of work.

EDUCATIONAL WORK—Ranges from Primary School to Colleges. Serampore College, the only College in India able to bestow a theological degree granted under Royal Charter by His Majesty in 1827, confirmed by the British Government in the Treaty of purchase of the settlement of Serampore in

1845, and placed in 1856 by the College Council at the disposal of the Baptist Missionary Society to become a part of its Missionary Educational operations, Arts and Theological. It was affiliated in 1857 to the newly formed Calcutta University reorganised in 1910 on the lines of its original foundation with the appointment of a qualified Theological Staff on an Inter-denominational basis for the granting of Theological Degrees to qualified students of all Churches.

As the only College in India granting a Theological Degree a large number of students are now resident in the College. In Arts, the College prepares for the Calcutta Arts Examinations. Principal Rev G H C Angus, M.A., B.D.

There is a vernacular institute also at Cuttack for the training of Indian preachers and Bible schools in several centres.

There are 9 or 10 purely English Baptist Churches connected with the Society, but English services are carried on in many of the stations. Medical work connected with the Society is carried on in 6 Hospitals, and 8 Dispensaries. Two large Printing Presses for both English and Vernacular work are conducted at Calcutta and Cuttack. The Secretary of the Mission is the Rev D Scott Wells, M.A., Elton Street, Calcutta.

The Headquarters of the Mission are at 19, Farnival Street, Holborn, London. The total expenditure of the Society for 1929 amounted to £128,060.

THE CANADIAN BAPTIST MISSION—Was commenced in 1873, and is located in the Telugu country to the north of Madras in the Kistna, Godavari, Visagapatnam and Ganjam Districts. There are 23 stations and 420 outstations with a staff of 109 missionaries including 8 qualified physicians, and 21,765 Indian workers with Gospel preaching in 1,356 villages. Organised Churches number 108 communicants 21,601 adherents 21,245 for the past year. Twenty-four Churches are entirely self-supporting in the educational department are 515 village day schools, with 17,300 children 13 boarding schools, 2 High schools a Normal Training school, a Bible Training School for Women a Theological Seminary providing in all for 1,000 pupils and an Industrial school. There are 6 Hospitals, two leper asylums and an Orphanage. The Mission publishes a Telugu newspaper Village Evangelist is the central feature of the Mission, and stress is laid upon the work amongst women and children. During the last decade membership has increased by 61 per cent., the Christian community by 40 per cent., and scholars by 75 per cent. Indian Secretary is the Rev A. Arthur Scott, Tuni, East Godavari.

AMERICAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION SOCIETY, organized in 1814 has Missions in Burma begun 1814, Assam 1836, Bengal and Orissa 1836, South India 1840. It owes its rise to the celebrated Adoniram Judson. Until 1910 the Society was known as the American Baptist Missionary Union. There are 33 main stations in Burma 13 in Assam 10 in Bengal Orissa 29 in South India, besides many outstations. All forms of missionary enterprise come within the scope of the Society.

The great work of the Mission continues to be evangelistic and the training of the native preachers and Bible-Women, and extends to many races and languages, the most important of which in Burma has been the practical transformation of the Karens whose language has been reduced to writing by the Mission. The work in Assam embraces 9 different languages and large efforts are made amongst the employees of the tea plantations. The Mission Press at Rangoon is the largest and finest in Burma.

Last year the field staff numbered 314 missionaries, 7,064 Native workers. There were 1,892 Churches of which 1,272 were self-supporting. Church members number 1,27,828. In the 2,107 Sunday Schools were enrolled 9,60,000 pupils. The Mission conducted 2,741 schools of all grades with 91,091 students enrolled. 14 Hospitals and 34 Dispensaries treated 6,364 in patients and 1,05,879 out-patients. Indian Christians contributed over Rs. 6,74,000 for this religious and benevolent work during the year.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST ASSAM MISSION was opened in 1836 and has 13 main stations staffed by about 45 missionaries. There are 726 Native workers, 384 organised churches 37,146 baptised members, 318 Schools of all grades including 1 High 2 Normal 2 Bible and 13 Mission schools. 8 Hospitals and 8 Dispensaries treated 326 in patients and 18,032 out-patients during the year. Mission work is carried on in 9 different languages.

Secretary Miss Marian Burnham Gauhati Assam.

AMERICAN BAPTIST BENGAL-ORISSA MISSION commenced in 1836. Area of operation Midnapore district of Lower Bengal, Balasore district of Orissa and Jamshedpur Mission staff 39 Indian workers 323. Two English Churches and 27 Vernacular Churches, Christian Community 5,000. Two Dispensaries Education at One Theological and two Boys' High Schools and two Girls High Schools and 118 Elementary Schools, pupils 3,600. One Industrial School for carpentering iron work and motor mechanics. The Vernacular Press of this mission printed the first literature in the Santal language.

Secretary Rev H I Frost Balasore Orissa.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST TELUGU MISSION—Was commenced in the year 1836, and covers large parts of Nellore, Guntur, Kistna and Kurnool Districts, parts of the Deccan and an important work in Madras and the surrounding vicinity. Its main work is evangelism but there are also Educational and Medical Institutions of Importance, Industrial Settlement work for the Brakalos is carried on at Kavali and vicinity. Industrial departments are maintained also in connection with the Mission. High Schools at Nellore, Ongole and Kurnool. Organized Telugu Churches number 277, with 94,410 baptized communicants. There are 102 missionaries, and 2,720 Indian workers. The Mission maintains a Theological Seminary at Rumupatnam for the training of Indian preachers. A Bible Training School for the training of Telugu women is located in Nellore. A total of 33,921 receive instruction in 1,270 primary schools, 16 secondary schools and 4 high schools. In Medical work 8 Hospitals and 12 Dispensaries report 4,803 in patients 95,108 out-patients, and 11,078 treatments during the year.

Secretary Rev F Kurtz, D.D., Madras, Deccan.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST MISSION—**Missionary-in-charge** Rev T C Kelly (on leave) Rev A E Smith (acting), Mission House Berajunge.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION—(Incorporated) Embracing the societies representing the Baptist Churches of the States of the Australian Commonwealth. The field of operations is in East Bregal. The staff numbers 42 Australian workers. There are 2,783 communicants and a Christian community of 4,986.

Secretary Field Council Rev A J Grace Palms E B.

THE STRICT BAPTIST MISSION—Has 15 European Missionaries, and 120 Indian workers in Madras, and Salem District. Communicants number 270, organised Churches 8, elementary schools 41, with 1,625 pupils.

Treasurer and Secretary Rev D Morling Namakkal, S India.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIETIES

THE IRISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH MISSION—Operates in Gujarat and Kathiawar with a staff of 35 Missionaries of whom 10 are clerical, 14 Educationalists 8 are Doctors and 3 Nurses. The Indian staff numbers 408, of whom 14 are Pastors, 93 Evangelists, 4 Colporteurs 40 Bible women, and 342 are Teachers. There are 12 Organised Churches a communicant roll of 1,925 and a Christian Community of 7,289. In Medical work there are 3 Hospitals and several Dispensaries with 1,494 in patients 13,769 new cases and a total attendance of 61,501. The Mission conducts 3 High Schools, 2 Anglo Vernacular Schools 1 Preparatory School at Parantij and 124 Vernacular schools affording tuition for 6,884 pupils also 1 crèche 4 Orphanages an Industrial School at Borwad a Teachers Training College for Women at Borwad a Divinity College at Ahmedabad and a Mission Press at Surat. The Mission has made a speciality of Farm Colonies of which there are about a score in connection with it most of them thriving.

The Jungle Tribes Mission with 6 Missionaries is a branch of the activities of the above working in the Panch Mahals and Rewa Kantha districts with Farm Colonies attached.

Secretary Rev James Broly, B.A., Parantij

THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA—The Shalok Mission of the above Church was opened at Shalok Punjab, in 1856. It is now carrying on work in ten districts in the Punjab and in one district of the North West Frontier Province. Its missionaries number 140 and its Indian workers 830. Its educational work comprises one Theological Seminary one College, five High Schools, one Industrial School eight Middle Schools, and 151 Primary Schools. The total enrolment in all schools in 1928 was 12,721. The Mission is also carrying on Medical work through five Hospitals and eight Dispensaries. The total membership of the Church which has been established is 43,070 and of the Christian community 80,808.

General Secretary Rev Robert Maxwell Gujranwala, Punjab

THE AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION operates in 3 main sections known as the Punjab North India and Western India Missions. The American Staff (including women) numbers 268 and the Indian Staff 1,352. There are 26 main stations and about 210 out-stations. Organized churches number 82, 25 of which are self-supporting. There are 11,985 communicants and a total baptized community of 82,000. Educational work as follows: 2 Men's Colleges and an interest in the Isabella Thoburn and the Kinnaird Colleges for women, students 1,820 Theological School 1, students 24, Training Schools for village workers 2, students about 180, High Schools 14, students about 2,100, Industrial Schools 4 Agricultural Demonstration Farms 3. Teachers Training Departments 7, The Miraj Medical School and an interest in the Ludhiana Medical School for women, students 170, Elementary Schools 230 Schools of all grades 241, pupils 12,478, Medical work Hospitals 6, Dispensaries 17 Sunday Schools

371 with 13,491 pupils. Contributions for Church and Evangelistic work on the part of the Indian Church Rs 51,423.

The Hospital at Miraj founded by Sir William Wankless and now under the care of S.W. Vail, is well known throughout the whole of S.W. India, under the Forman Christian College at Lahore under the principalship of Rev E. D. Lucas, D.D. is equally well known and valued in the Punjab. The Ewing Christian College (Dr C. H. R. P., Principal) has grown rapidly in numbers and influence.

Secretary of Council of A.P. Missions in India Rev H. C. Velte, M.A., D.D., Saharanpur

Secretary Punjab Mission Rev W. J. Weir, M.A., Lahore

Secretary North India Mission Rev W. L. Allison, M.A., Gwalior, C.I.

Secretary Western India Mission Rev H. K. Wright, M.A. Ahmednagar

THE NEW ZEALAND PRESBYTERIAN MISSION—Commenced as recently as 1910 at Jagadhri Punjab

Secretary Miss A. E. Henderson, Jagadhri, Dist. Amballa

THE UNITED CHURCH OF CANADA MISSION—Commenced in 1877 has 13 main stations in Indore, Gwalior, Indiam, Dhat Jora, Sitamarhi and Banwarra. The Mission staff numbers 88 Indian workers 290. This Mission works in conjunction with the Valva Church Council of the United Church of Northern India, which reports for this part of its territory Organized Churches 19 Unorganized Churches 14 Communicant 1,621 Baptized non communicants 4,564 Total Christian community 6,185.

Educational work comprises Elementary and Middle Schools, High Schools for boys and girls, College, Theological Seminary and Classes. Industrial teaching and work are done in the three Girls Boarding Schools, women's Industrial work in Mhow and Rutlam and in Banpuria Boys (vocational) School. Technical and practical training is given in Printing Weaving and Carpentry. The Medical work is large. There are three General Hospitals where both men and women are treated, and five Women's Hospitals and also a number of dispensaries in central and out-stations.

Secretary of Mission—Rev J. T. Taylor, D.D., Indore C.I.

Secretary of Church—Rev Johan Maish D.D. Indore

THE CANADIAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION Sothern Bhil Field

Secretary—Rev D. E. McDonald Jobat Central India

THE WELSH CALVINITIC METHODIST (PRESBYTERIAN) MISSION established in 1840 with a staff of 40 Missionaries 850 Indian workers, occupies stations in Awas in the Khassia and Jaintia Hills, the Lushai Hills and at Sylhet and Cachar. The Khassia language has been reduced to

writing, the Bible translated and many books published in that language by the Mission. A large amount of literature has also been produced in the Khasi language. Communicants number 29,850, the total Christian community 21,461, organised Churches 650, Elementary Schools number 626, Scholars 17,200. In addition to Industrial Schools and Training Institutions and 2 Theological Seminaries. Three Hospitals and 5 venal Dispensaries provide annually for more than 10,000 patients.

Secretary Rev F J Sandy Durling Aljal
THE ARCOY MISSION of the Reform Church in America organised in 1833 occupies most of the North and South Arcot and Chittoor districts in S India with a staff of 48 Missionaries and 780 Indian ministers and workers. Churches number 16, Communicants 6,414.

total Christian Community 24,266. Boarding Schools 16, scholars 1,182. Theological School 1, students 40. Voorhees College, Vellore, students 158. High Schools 3, Scholars 1,770. Training schools 2, students 120. Industrial schools 2. Agricultural Farm and School 1, total pupils 319. Elementary schools 237, Scholars 9,643. Two Hospitals and 5 Dispensaries with a staff of 57 provided for 2,252 in patients and 31,166 out-patients excluding the Union Medical College Hospitals and Dispensaries, Vellore.

The Union Mission Medical College for South India and a Union Mission Training School are located at Vellore, the head quarters of the Mission. The Union Mission Tuberculosis Sanatorium for S India is near Madanapalle. Arugavaram P O, Chittoor District.

Secretary Rev W H Farrar April 8 India.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIETIES

THE AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS—Has two large Missions, the American Marathi Mission and the Madras Mission. The Marathi Mission covers a considerable part of the Bombay Presidency, with centres at Bombay, Ahmednagar, Satara and Sholapur. It was commenced in 1813, the first American Mission in India. Its activities are large and varied. The staff at the beginning of 1925 consisted of 43 missionaries and 619 Indian workers operating in 8 Stations and 121 out-stations exclusive of Bombay City. Organised Churches number 68 with 7,539 communicants, and 6,145 adherents. There is a Lepet work at Sholapur. The Educational work embraces 14 training and secondary schools with 1,182 pupils and 121 primary schools, with 5,951 pupils, three-fifths of whom are non-Christians. Zensana work and Industrial work are vigorously carried on, the latter embracing carpentry and lace work. A school for the blind is conducted on both Educational and Industrial lines. 53,751 Patients were treated in the Hospitals and dispensaries of the Mission last year. This Mission was the first to translate the Christian scriptures into the Marathi tongue. At Sholapur, a settlement for Criminal Tribes is carried on under the supervision of Government. **Secretary** Rev William Hazen, M.A., Sholapur.

THE MADURA MISSION—In the south of the Presidency founded in 1834, has a staff of 61 missionaries and 992 Indian workers, operates in the Madura and Ramanad Districts and has a communicant roll of 11,746 and a total Christian community of 30,158 and 38 organized Churches most of which are entirely self-supporting and self-governing. These Churches are an integral part of the South India United Church. Schools number 339 with 17,568 pupils. In Madura there are a First Grade College, High and Training schools for girls and hospitals for men and women. At Pasumalai, three miles from Madura, a High School Training School, Theological Institution, Trade School and School of Agriculture. Five elementary Boarding Schools are found in as many out-stations. Industrial work is increasingly a part of the curricula of all schools above the lower grade. The **Secretary** is the Rev John J. Bannings, M.A. D.D., Pasumalai.

THE ARCOY MISSION commenced under the American Board was transferred to the Reform Church of America in 1851.

THE SCANDINAVIAN ALLIANCE MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA—Embraces two Branches, one in Bengal and the other in Khandesh. The mission staff in Khandesh is represented by fourteen missionaries and forty Indian workers. There are 164 communicants and 68 non-communicants and 409 under Christian instruction, 15 Elementary Schools provide for 393 pupils.

Secretaries Rev Paul Hingdahl, Amalner, East Khandesh, and Rev Dover, Baka, Dwar, Bengal.
THE SWEDISH ALLIANCE MISSION—Working among Hindu, Muslim and Mohammedans in West Khandesh has 30 missionaries and 71 Indian workers. There are 8 congregations with a total membership of 942, of whom 435 are communicants. There are 8 Elementary Schools, 2 Training Schools and 5 School Homes. The pupil in all schools are 380.

Secretary Rev Gustaf Westmo, Dhulla, West Khandesh.

FRENCH CHURCH OF FINLAND MISSION—Total Mission staff is represented by 6 Missionaries, 1 native Pastor, two Catechists, 7 Teachers. There are about 180 communicants and total community 400. There are four day schools, one evening school, one hospital, four dispensaries, and Weaving and Hand Craft Industries.

Secretary Miss E. Kronquist, Lachon, via Gangtok, Sikkim State.

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY—Commenced work in India in 1798 and occupies 3 centres in N India, 13 in S India and 7 in Travancore. The Mission engages in every form of Missionary activity.

The European staff numbers 135, Indian workers 2,380, Organised Churches 520, Communicants 21,824 and Christian Community 142,255. There are 1 Christian College, students 159, 2 Theological Institutions, students 70, 4 Training Institutions, pupils, 114, 12 high schools, pupils 4,849, 25 Boarding schools, scholars, 1,167 and 862 Elementary schools with 46,371 scholars. In medical work Hospitals number 6, Dispensaries 14, qualified doctors 9 Europeans, 61 Assistants and 8,880 in-patients and 198,757 out-patients for the year.

The main centre of the Mission in N India are at Calcutta and Murahidabad. L.M.S. work in the United Province is being closed but a Union Mission of the W.M.B., C.M.S. and I.M.S. is shortly to be opened in Benares City with the Rev J.C. Jackson of the I.M.S. as Superintendent. This Mission will concentrate especially on work amongst pilgrims and students. Special efforts are made amongst the Nama Sandras and the aboriginal tribes known as the Majhwars, Cherons and Pankas. The S. India district and Travancore

are divided into the Kanarese, Telugu, Tamil, and Malayalam fields with 19 stations and 800 outstations. At Nagercoil (Travancore) is the Scott Memorial College with 985 students, a Church and congregation said to be the largest in India, and a large Printing Press, the centre of the S. Travancore Tract Society.

Bengal Secretary: Rev. Vaughan Rees, Behrampur, Dist. Murahidabad. Benares Superintendent: Rev. J.C. Jackson, Benares U.P.

ALL-INDIA MISSIONS

THE CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE—Dates from the year 1893 under the name of the International Missionary Alliance, but a number of its missionaries were at work in Berar Province much earlier. Work is carried on in the Provinces of Berar, Khandesh, Gujarat. There is a staff of 66 missionaries and 135 Indian workers. The number of mission stations is 19, with additional out-stations. There is a Christian community of 3,003 adults. There are 4 Boarding Schools, 2 for boys and 2 for girls, 1 Training School for Indian workers, and 1 English congregation at Bhurawal. Executive Secretary: Rev. W. Meyer, Akola, Berar, C.P.

THE CHURCH OF THE BROTHERS (AMERICAN)—Opened work in 1895 and operates in Broach, Surat and Thana Districts, also in Baroda and Rajpura States. Its staff number 63 foreign workers, including missionaries, wives, and 235 Indian workers. The Baptised (nominally) membership stands at 3,944. Education is carried on in 7 Girls Boarding Schools, 7 Boarding Schools for Boys, and 107 Village Day Schools. Females under instruction number 594, males 2,672, total under instruction 3,466. There are 80 Sunday Schools having 176 teachers and a total enrolment of 3,408. There were 66,013 calls at mission dispensaries in 1929. The foreign medical staff consists of 4 doctors, 4 nurses, and 1 industrial work is carried on in eight of the Boarding Schools, and a vocational training school was opened at Ankleswar in June 1924. Evangelistic, Temperance and Publicity work receives due emphasis, the 'Prakash Patri', a Christian monthly of 400 copies, are published. Secretary: L.A. Bickenstaff, Bulsar, Surat District.

THE POONA AND INDIAN VILLAGE MISSION—Founded in 1893. Mission Stations:—Khod Shrivapur, Poona District; Nasarpur (Mhor Sak), Poona District; Lonand, M.B.M. Hyderabad District; Phaltan, Satara District; and Pandharpur, Sholapur District. The staff consists of 36 European and 49 Indian workers, with a community of about 55 Indian Christians and their families. The main work is evangelising in the villages, women's zenana work and primary education. Medical work is conducted at each station, with a hospital at Pandharpur. Headquarters: 44, Sassoon Road, Poona. Secretary: J.W. Stothard.

THE AMERICAN CHURCH OF GOD MISSION—Has three missionaries at Bagra, one at Khandapur, Bagra District, Bengal, and three at Udharia, Howrah District.

Presbyter Secretary:—Rev. H.W. Cover, M.A. Bagra, M.B.E.

Recording Secretary: Mrs. J.V. Mayer, Bagra, M.B.E.

THE INDIA CHRISTIAN MISSION—Founded in 1897 has 41 Organized Churches, 17 Missionaries, 43 stations and out-stations, 1,759 Communicants, 51 Primary schools and one Industrial School and Bible School in the Bellary District, also Stations Doddaballapur and Hoakote near Bangalore. S. India stations also in Nuvara Elyia, Malintha Uva Province and Polgahawella, Ceylon. Girls Orphanage at Nuvara Elyia, Industrial Homes for children of mixed parentage, Nuvara Elyia. Total Christian community 4,092. Monthly Magazines:—English: *Missionary Notes*, and Telugu: *I.C.M. Messenger*. Director: Rev. A.S. Payater, Nuvara Elyia, Ceylon.

THE CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE MISSION—Has its headquarters for Western India at Buldana, Berar, where it has a Boys' Boarding School with 76 boys. It also has fifty girls in school. This Mission also has three stations in Thana District, namely Kharid, Vashind and Murbad. At present there are nine missionaries and about 45 Indian preachers, also 29 Indian preachers and Bible women.

President of the Council: Rev. L.S. Iracy, Buldana, Berar.

The headquarters for Eastern India are at Kishorganj, Mymensingh District, with an orphanage and a force of 8 missionaries, also about 10 Indian preachers and Bible women. This makes a total at present of 12 missionaries and about 45 Indian workers for The Church of The Nazarene in India.

President of the Council: Rev. G.J. Franklin, Kishorganj, Mymensingh District.

THE HEPHERBAY FAITH MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION—Has five missionaries in India. They are Rev. and Mrs. S.V. Christensen, Adra; R.N. Rev. Kc. and Mrs. W.J. Brown, Raghunathpur, Munbhin District; and Miss J.C. Jensen who is also stationed at Raghunathpur, but is in the Sanatorium at Itki at present.

THE THIRUVAL MISSION—Has 4 missionaries with headquarters at Darjeeling, and Tibet as its objective. Secretary: Miss J. Ferguson, Darjeeling.

THE INDIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF TIRUVELLY (DORNAXAL MISSION)—Opened in 1904

operates in the Warangal District of the Nizam's Dominions as well as among the hill tribes called Paltars in the British and Travancore Hills. It is the missionary effort of the Tamil Christians of Tinnevely. There are now nearly 5,403 Telugu Christians in 122 villages and 360 Paltar Christians in the hills. *Secretary* Rev S. A. Moses, Palamcottah.

THE MISSION TO LEPERS—Founded in 1874 is an inter-denominational and international Society for the establishment and maintenance of Homes and Institutions for Lepers and of their untainted children working in 16 countries but largely in India, China, Korea and Japan. Its work in India is carried on through co-operation with 30 Missionary Societies. In India alone the Mission now has 37 Asylums of its own with upwards of 5,500 inmates and is aiding or has some connection with work for lepers at 24 other places in India. Altogether in India over 7,000 lepers are being helped.

The Mission also provides for the segregation of the healthy children of lepers from their diseased parents. More than 760 children are thus being saved from becoming lepers.

An important feature of the work of the Mission is the measure of successful medical treatment whereby early cases both adults and children are now benefiting.

Most of the Mission's income is received from voluntary contributions. Some funds are raised in India, but the bulk of the money expended by the Mission in India is received from Britain although the provincial Government give regular maintenance grants.

There is an Indian Auxiliary of the Mission to Lepers of which H. E. Lady Sykes, who represents the Bombay Presidency, is a Vice President.

Hon. Treasurer Henry F. Lewis, Esq., 12, Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta.

The General Secretary of the Mission is Mr. W. H. P. Anderson, 33 Hicricetta St. Covent Garden, London, W.C. The Secretary for India is Mr. A. Donald Miller, Furlong, Bihar.

THE REGIONS BEYOND MISSIONARY UNION—An inter-denominational Society commenced work at Mohiabad Bihar in 1900, and now occupies 8 stations and 10 out-stations in the Champaran and Saran Districts with a staff of 18 European and 1 Indian Missionaries and 40 other Indian workers. The Mission maintains 1 Hospital, 1 Girls' Orphanage, 1 Boys' Orphanage and Boarding School with Carpenter industrial department, 1 M. T. School with 200 pupils. Communicants number 80. *Secretary* Rev. Alex. L. Banks, Siwan District Saran.

THE NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF INDIA—Established 1905 started, financed and managed by Indian Christians, has a staff of 27 Missionaries and 88 helpers and Volunteers. Operates in Montgomery District (the Punjab), Sirsa and Kala, (U.P.) Hahnaghat Mysore Singh District (Bengal), Jharsagudih (B & O), Murwahi (C.P.) Nawtanwa (near Nepal), North Kanara, Mirajgaon and Karmala Talukas (Bombay), Parlat Taluk (Nizam's Dominions)

and Tirapattur Taluk (N. Arcot). Thirty-four Elementary Schools and 1 High School with hostel one printing press three Dispensaries and one Hospital. Annual expenditure Rs. 80,000. Celebrates its Silver Jubilee on Christmas day 1930. Organizes *The National Missionary Intelligence* (a monthly journal in English sold at Rs. 1 per year post free). *Qaid* (a monthly journal in Persian Urdu) at Rs. 2 & 80. *Deepak* (a monthly journal in Tamil and Kanarese) at 8 Annas per year, post free.

Address N. M. S. Office, Vepery Madras.

General Secretary Bal Bahadur A. C. Mukerji B.A. *Associate Secretary* Thos. David, B.A., B.D.

THE SEVENTH DAY ADVENTIST MISSION—The Seventh-day Adventist commenced mission work in India in 1898 and now employ a staff of six hundred workers, European and Indian including one hundred ordained and licensed ministers. Evangelistic and educational work is conducted in sixteen vernaculars, besides work for English speaking peoples in the large cities. For administrative purposes, the work is organized into five Union Missions located as follows—

Bombay Union Mission of S. D. A.
(A. W. Cormack Superintendent)
Office Address Post Box 15 Poona.

Burma Union Mission of S. D. A.,
(J. Phillips, Superintendent) *Office Address* 30 Voyle Road, Rangoon Cantonment, Burma.

North-east India Union Mission of S. D. A.
(G. G. Lowry Superintendent) *Office Address* Hino, P. O. Ranchi.

North west India Union Mission of S. D. A.
(A. H. Williams, Superintendent) *Office Address* 17, Abbott Road Lucknow.

South India Union Mission of S. D. A.
(H. Christensen, Superintendent) *Office Address* 10 Cuttingham Road Bangalore.

The general headquarters for India and Burma is located at Salisbury Park, Poona. A. W. Cormack President, C. L. Torres, Secretary & Treasurer. *Office Address* Post Box 15 Poona. On the same estate is an up-to-date publishing house devoted entirely to the printing of evangelical and associated literature (*Address* Oriental Watchman Publishing Association, Post Box No. 35, Poona). A large number of day and boarding vernacular and Anglo Vernacular schools are conducted in different parts of the country, and at Vincent Hill School Mysore. European education is provided, a regular high school course, with more advanced work for commercial and other special students being available. In all the denominational boarding schools increasing emphasis is being laid on vocational work the students being required to share in the domestic work of the institutions, and in many cases to engage in some trades or other work. Twelve physicians, one maternity worker, (C. M. E.) and a number of qualified nurses are employed, regular medical work being conducted at twenty

stations. The baptised membership (adult) is about 3 000 organized into 77 churches and in addition a substantial community of enquirers is receiving systematic instruction. 261 Sabbath Schools are conducted with an enrolled membership of about 7 000.

The Bombay address is 1/29 Kamal Mansions, Colaba, Pastor P C Polcy being in charge of the work in that city.

THE AMERICAN MENNONITE MISSION—Established 1890, works in the C. Provinces. Mission staff numbers 82, Indian workers 80, Church members 1 800, 2 Industrial Training Institutions, 1 High School, 1 Vernacular Middle School and 1 Anglo-Vernacular Middle School. 1 Men's Home, 2 Homes for untainted children of lepers, 1 Bible School, 2 Orphanages, 1 Widows' Home, 1 Lepers' Asylum, Elementary Schools, 11 Dispensaries, 6 Lepers' Clinics.

Secretary Rev J N Kaufman, Dhantari, C P.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCE—MENNONITE MISSION—Started in 1901 in the C. Provinces. Mission staff numbers 27, Indian Medical Orphan Zenana, Evangelistic and Educational work carried on. **Secretary** Rev P W Penner, Jaunpur, C P.

THE KUKUL AND CENTRAL INDIA HILL MISSION—Established 1890 by the C P and Berar, has a mission staff of 19 Indian workers, 16 Churches, 8, Communicants 277, Christian community 510, 2 Boarding schools with 73 boarders and 2 Elementary schools. **Secretary** Rev Carl Wyder, Ellichpur, Berar, C P.

THE CEYLON AND INDIA GENERAL MISSION—Established 1892 occupies stations in India in Mysore State in the Coimbatore and Anantapur Districts and also stations in Pandura (Ceylon). Mission Staff 31 Indian workers, 133 Churches, 14 Communicants 801 and Christian Community 2 706. Orphanages 4, Elementary Schools 48, Pupils 1,536.

Secretary—A Scott, Richards Town, Bangalore.

THE BOYS' CHRISTIAN HOME MISSION—Owes its existence to a period of famine, was commenced in 1899. Mission staff 17, Indian workers 125. There are elementary schools with three orphanages, two boys and one girl, and a Widows' Home, where industrial training is given. There are four main stations—At Dhond, in the Poona District and at Bahurich, Orai and Benares in United Provinces. At Benares there is an Industrial Training Institution with about one hundred students learning the Motor Electrical and Carpentry trades. There are also 34 out-stations. **Director** Rev John E Norton, Ahmednagar, Poona District. **Secretary** W K Norton, Benares, U P.

Ladies' Societies.

ZENANA BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION—This is an inter-denominational society, with headquarters, 33, Surrey Street, London, working among women and girls in six stations in the Bombay Presidency, 10 in United Provinces, and 3 in the Punjab. There are 75 European

Missionary ladies on the staff and 37 Assistant Missionaries, 214 Indian teachers and nurses and 49 Bible women. During 1927 there were 4 618 in patients in the five hospitals supported by the Society (Nasik, Benares, Jaunpur, Lucknow and Patna), but the Victoria Hospital, Benares, was closed. There were 28,941 out patients, 81,082 attendances at the Dispensaries. In their 33 schools were 3,022 pupils, and there is a University Department at Lahore. The evangelistic side of the work is largely done by house to house visitations and teaching of women in Zenanas. 1 207 women were regularly taught and 1 324 houses were visited. The 17 Bible women visited 439 villages, the number of houses was 847, major operations 712, minor operations 714, total expenditure £ 60 427 9 8.

Hon. Treasurer The Lord Meston of Dunottar.

Secretaries Rev Dr Carter, Rev E S Carr, M A (Hon.), and Miss E Harriman.

WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE, WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED THE PUNJAB MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN—In 1894 the North India School of Medicine for Christian Women was opened in Ludhiana in order to give a Medical Education under Christian influences to Indian Women. Doctor Edith Brown, M.A., M.D. was its founder and Principal. The School was inter-denominational, and trained students for various Missionary Societies.

Clinical work was at first given at the Charlotto Hospital which belonged to the Lutheran Zenana and Medical Mission. The Memorial Hospital was opened in 1900 and has now 200 beds. In 1913 non-Christian Students were also admitted for training and the name was modified to its present title given above.

In 36 years 202 Medical Students have qualified as doctors, besides 120 as Compounders, 142 as Nurses and 170 as Dais and Midwives.

At present 252 are in training—109 as Medical Students, 10 as Compounders, 50 as Nurses and 80 as Nurse Dais.

New Laboratories have been built for Clinical Pathology for Physiology and for Chemistry and Physics. New quarters for Sisters and Nurses and this year also new quarters for the Assistant Staff. The new Dispensary for out patients has now become very popular.

THE MISSIONARY SETTLEMENT FOR UNPROMISING WOMEN was founded in Bombay in 1890. Its work is religious, social and international. The Settlement supplies a hostel for University students of all nationalities and a few Indian professional women. Classes for educated girls are provided and teaching is also given in pupils' homes. The Settlement staff take part in many of the organized activities for women's work in the city. The Social Service Training Class under Miss Tara Thakur B.A., is now held at the Settlement. The course lasting a year includes both theoretical and practical work.

Acting Warden—Miss P. S. Harley, B.A. (Oxon), Reynolds Road, B. Culla Boudway.

THE RAMABAI MUKTI MISSION (affiliated with the Christian and Missionary Alliance Mission in

1925) the well known work of the late Pandita Rambhai shelters about 600 deserted wives, widows and orphans, educating and fitting them to earn their living. The Mission is worked on Indian lines and carried on by Indian and European workers. Evangelistic work is carried on in the surrounding villages of Kodgion Poona District.

Miss M. Lima Hardie, Corresponding Secretary

Disciple Societies

The India Mission Disciples of Christ, under the United Christian Missionary Society, Indianapolis, Indiana U.S.A., began work in India in 1882. It works in the Central Provinces and South United Provinces. There are 68 missionaries, including missionaries wives and 270 Indian workers. There are 18 organized churches with the membership of 2,375. There is a Christian community of 4,700. There are 5 hospitals and 10 dispensaries in which 1,652 in patients, and 45,261 out-patients were treated last year, with a total of 117,698 treatments. There is an orphanage for children under 8 years of age, with the older orphans provided for in the boarding schools and hostels. A boarding school for girls and one for boys, with 2 hostels for boys and one for girls show 632 inmates. There is one Leprosy Asylum with 120 inmates. A Tuberculosis Sanatorium admitted 99 patients during the year. An Industrial School is conducted at Damoh in connection with which a 400 acre farm is used for practical work. In the Training Home for women at Kulpahar, needlework, gardening, etc., are taught in connection with which a large business is done each year. The Mission Press at Jabulpore printed about 3,000,000 pages of Christian Literature. 1 Normal, 2 Industrial Schools, 2 High Schools also 5 Middle Schools and 15 Primary Schools, with about 2,100 under instruction.

The Australian Branch has 2 Mission Stations in the Poona District. The Great Britain and Ireland Branch in Mirzapur District of U.P. and Palamu District in Orissa. These two have no organized connection with the India Mission Disciples of Christ.

Secretary and Treasurer W. B. Alexander, Jabulpore, C.P.

Undenominational Missions

THE CENTRAL ASIAN MISSION. Objective: Salvation of Central Asia, from Afghanistan to Tibet (including N.E. portion of Panjab District), North Kashmir, etc. Protestant Evangelical, inter denominational. Headquarters in India, Madras N.W.P. in London 52 Lincoln's Inn Fields. Branch Stations, Bandipur, N. Kashmir, Shigar, Baltistan and pioneering in Bhok Valley and in Chinese-Turkistan. Ten European missionaries on field. Founded and managed chiefly by officers who have served in Frontier parts.

THE FRIENDS SERVICE COUNCIL.—The Friends Service Council works in 7 stations of the Hoshangabad Division of the Central Provinces and in 2 in the Bhopal State. There are 5 Monthly Meetings and one Yearly Meeting, the church being organized on the same principle as the Society of Friends in England. There

are 9 Missionaries and 2 retired missionaries, 1 Boarding School for girls and 1 Hostel for boys where some industrial training is given. One Anglo-Vernacular Middle School and 3 Primary Schools. One Hospital with dispensary and 1 village dispensary, a self supporting weaving community at Itarsi and a Farm Colony at Makoriya Hoshangabad District and at Lali in Beoni Malwa, Tahsil, Hoshangabad District.

There are 127 full Members and 1,862 Christian adherents.

Secretary.—T. R. Addison Itarsi Hoshangabad District.

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS MISSION.—With Missionaries is working in Bundelkhand with Hospital for Women and Children at Chhatrapur. Secretary Miss E. E. Baird, Nowgong C. I.

THE OLD CHURCH HEBREW MISSION was established in 1868, in Calcutta, and is said to be the only Hebrew Christian Agency in India. Secretary The Chaplain, 11, Mission Row, Calcutta.

THE OPEN BROTHERHOOD.—Occupy 46 stations in the U. Provinces, Bengal, S. Maharashtra, Goaveri, Delta, Kanarose, Tinnevely, Malabar Coast, Colmbatore and Kigiri Districts. They hold an annual Conference at Bangalore.

Lutheran Societies.

THE INDIA MISSION OF THE UNITED LUTHERAN CHURCH IN AMERICA.—Commonly known as the United Lutheran Church Mission. Now working in close co-ordination with the recently organized Andhra Evangelical Lutheran Church. The Mission and Church together carry on work in East Godavari, West Godavari, Guntur, Nellore and Kurnool Districts. Foreign staff on the field in 1930: 68, Indian staff of all grades, 2,578, Baptized membership, 146,122, schools 1,025 pupils 35,174. There are a First Grade College, three High Schools for boys one High School for girls two Normal Training Schools for Masters and one for Mistresses a Theological Seminary, an Agricultural School, five Hospitals, a School for the Blind a Tuberculosis Sanatorium, and a Printing Press.

President of the U. L. C. Mission.—Rev G. A. Ropley, Tarupad, Nellore District.

President of Andhra Evangelical Lutheran Church.—Rev E. M. Dunkelberger, D.D., Rajahmundry, East Godavari District.

THE EVANGELICAL NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF SWEDEN, SWEDEN.—A Church of Sweden Society, founded in 1856 occupies the Districts of Sango Betal, and Chhindwara in the Central Provinces.

There are about 2,450 Church members constituted into an indigenous Church called the Evangelical Lutheran Church of the Central Provinces. The European and Indian Staff numbers 81 and 176 respectively. One Theological Seminary for training of Pastors and Catechists, and one Training School for training Women Workers. 25 Primary and Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools with 1,173 Children. 12 Sunday School with 675 Christians and 1,145 non-Christian Children, 9 Dispensaries with 26,036

patients during 1929 8 Workshops, one of them with an aided Carpentry School. One Female Industrial School. One Widows Home with 48 Women. 9 Orphanages with 158 boys and 236 girls. One Boarding School for Christian Girls on the Middle School Standard. Three Farms where the S O Modern Village Uplift is attempted.

Secretary —Rev G A Bjork, B D Chhindwara, C P

THE BASEL EVANGELICAL MISSION—With its headquarters at Mangalore South Kanara, was founded in 1834 and has taken over again the whole field occupied before the War, with the exception of North Kanara and the Nilgiris. The Kanarese Evangelical Mission, which for the time being maintained part of the field of the Basel Mission has retired from the field and dissolved. The Mission has at the beginning of 1930, 80 chief stations and 85 outstations, with a total missionary staff of 53 Europeans and 912 Indian workers. The membership of the churches is 22,374. Educational work embraces 128 schools, among which, a Theological Seminary, a Second Grade College and 7 High Schools. The total number of scholars is 18,347. Medical work is done at Betgeri, Gadag, 8 Mahabata and two Women and children's Hospitals are maintained at Udipi South Kanara, and Calicut, Malabar. The Mission maintains a Home Industrial Department for women's work and a large publishing department with a Book Shop and a Printing Press with about 150 workers at Mangalore. S Kanara and is doing work in English and in a number of Indian languages. Chairman and Secretary, Rev A Mueh, residing at Mangalore, South Kanara.

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION was founded in 1874. Operated till 1915 in the Madras, Tanjore, Trichinopoly and Ramnad Districts. Since 1915 the Mission having taken full charge of the former Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission field working also in the Madras, Chingleput, Coimbatore, Salem, S Arcot Districts with diaspore congregations in Rangoon, Penang, Kuala-Lumpur and Colombo.

L. E. L. M. (Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission) re-entered into the work, in 1927. Hence the Church of Sweden Mission now works in the Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Madras and Ramnad Districts with the diaspore congregations at Colombo. The L. E. L. M. works in the Madras, Chingleput, South Arcot and Tanjore Districts with the diaspore congregations at Rangoon, Penang and Kuala-Lumpur.

The Church (Tamil Evangelical Lutheran Church) was constituted on 14th January 1918 and is working in connection with the two Missions.

CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION European staff, 35. Schools, 132. Teaching staff, 233. Pupils Boys, 4,883, Girls 1,223.

President —Rev J Sandegren M. A., B. D., Gurukul, Kilpanak, Madras.

LEIPZIG EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION, European staff, 11. Schools, 10. Teaching Staff 95. Pupils, Boys 1,217, Girls, 669.

President Rev Provost Th Mayner Majavaram

INSTITUTIONS COMMON TO BOTH MISSIONS, Schools 2, Teaching Staff, 29, Pupils, Boys, 72, Girls 329.

TAMIL EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN CHURCH Organised churches, 47. Ordained Indian Ministers 24. Other Indian workers 102. Baptised membership 27,247. Baptised membership Schools 274. Teaching staff, 465. Pupils, 10,970 (boys 8,760, girls 2,210).

President The Rt. Rev Bishop D Berell Trichinopoly

MISSOURI EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN INDIA MISSION (MISLIM)—Is located in North Arcot (Ambur, Vaniyambadi) Salem (Krishnagiri) Tanjore (Tanjore Nagarpatam) Madras (Madras Vellagulam), Tinnevely (Valluor Vadakkulam) Districts, in Mysore (Kolar Gold Fields) in Travancore (Nagercoil, Travancore, Alleppey). There are 88 Missionaries (2 of these on furlough in America) 1 lady doctor (American) 1 male doctor (Indian) 1 nurse, 1 deaconess-nurse 1 American teacher in charge of a School home for the children of the missionaries of this mission only and 1 lady educationist. Besides one training institute for teacher-catechists there are 2 complete high schools, and among 90 other schools there are 6 complete vernacular middle schools. In addition to evangelistic and educational work the Mission runs an up-to-date Dispensary and Lying-In Hospital with 16 beds in Ambur. Statistics November 1929. Souls 11,336. Baptised members 6,076. catechumens 5,160. 8 Indian pastors 7 evangelists 45 catechists 180 teachers belonging to the Mission 57 outside teachers 8 boarding schools.

Secretary —Rev R W Goema, Nagercoil Travancore

THE DANISH MISSIONARY SOCIETY—Established 1863 in South Arcot, working there and in North Arcot on the Shervaroy Hills and in Madras has a total staff of 337 Indian and 55 European workers, Communicants 1,954, Christian community 5,001, 1 High School, 3 Boarding Schools, 2 Industrial Schools, 1 Orphanage 2 Hostels and 97 Elementary Schools 1 Theological Seminary and 2 Hospitals. total scholars 4,852.

President Rev C Bindlev, B. A., B. D., Tirukkoilur

Treasurer Rev K. Helberg, B. A., B. D., Madras

THE SAKAL MISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHURCHES (formerly known as the India Home Mission to the Santals)—Founded in 1867, works in the Santal Parganas, Goalpara (Assam), Malda and Dinajpur. Work is principally among the Santals. The mission staff numbers 27, Indian workers 480, communicants 4,000, Christian community 13,000, organised churches 36, boarding schools 4, pupils 506, elementary schools 60, pupils 1,035, industrial schools 2, Orphanage 1, children 20. Secretary Rev P O Boddington, Dumka, Santal Parganas.

MISSIONS AND HUNNY TRADING ACT—In May 1918, the following notice regarding Missions was published in the "Gazette of India"—"The following missions or religious associations

are declared companies under Act 2 (the Enemy Trading Act) of 1916.—The Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Hermannsburg Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Schleswig-Holstein Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Gosner Evangelical Lutheran Mission of the United Provinces and Behar and Orissa, the German Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Ranchi, Dhar and Orissa. The Governor General in Council notifies that the powers conferred under Section 7 of the said Act shall extend to the property, movable and immovable, of those missions or religious associations.

In June 1919 the Government of India stated—“Effect is already being given to the suggestion that enemy missions in India should be taken over by British societies. The properties and undertakings of hostile missions have been vested in the Provisional Custodian of Enemy Property with a view to their transfer to boards of trustees composed partly of non-official members nominated by the National Missionary Council of India with the approval of the Government of India and partly of Government officials, and those Boards of Trustees will in due course transfer the undertakings and properties to a missionary society to be selected by them with the approval of the Governor-General in Council.”

Methodist Societies

The Methodist Episcopal Church is the organization in the United States of America which grew out of the Wesleyan revival in England and her American colonies during the latter part of the eighteenth century. This Church began its work in India in 1866, at first continuing its activities to what is now the United Provinces. From that centre it spread into the outposts of its work were found in Baluchistan, Burma, Malaya, Netherlands Indies and the Philippine Islands. In 1920 a rearrangement of the mission field of the Church separated India, Burma and Baluchistan into what is now known as the Southern Asia division. Within this present field the Church now has a total baptized Christian community of over half a million of whom approximately 20,000 were baptized the year ending 1926.

The avowed task of the Church has been the uplift of the depressed classes and its work has been largely among that class. As a matter of fact, however, it has large numbers who came from the Mohammedans and the caste Hindus, and among such its influence is extending.

The educational work of the Church is extensive. It having in this area a total of 1,801 schools of all grades including three colleges, twenty-two high schools and numerous normal training and theological institutions. The registered attendants in these schools number 42,529.

Special effort is made for the instruction and development of the young people of the Church here now being 488 chapters of the Kpenzth League with 20,335 enrolled members, and 5,245 organized Sunday Schools with an enrolment 159,520.

The publishing interests of the Church are represented in two presses at Madras and Lucknow, the former doing work in four vernaculars

and the latter in six. The periodicals issued cover the interests of both the evangelistic and the educational field, the Indian Witness, the Junior Methodist and Methodist Education being in English, while the Kankak Billad, the Raqqat-Nurvan, the Bal Hit Karak, and other periodicals for women and children are issued in several of the vernaculars.

The governing body of the Church is the General Conference held quadrennially in America in which the ten conferences now existing in India are represented by twenty-eight delegates. The polity of the Church in India looks forward to complete independence under the general governing body, there at present being but about three hundred and fifty American men and women as compared to 480 ordained and 3,162 unordained Indian and Burmese workers. At present the area is divided into seventy-two districts each in charge of a superintendent and among whom are many Indians. The work is supervised by four Bishops, elected by the General Conference, and resident as follows: Bishop Frank W. Warner, Bangalore; Bishop John W. Robinson, Delhi; Bishop Frederick B. Fisher, Calcutta, and Bishop Breston T. Badley, Bombay.

THE AMERICAN WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSION, Sanjan, Thana District Headquarters Stations with missionaries, Danda, Maroli, etc. Aargo, Thana District Vapi (Daman Road Station), Surat District Pardi 8, Surat District. Eight missionaries on field. Two on furlough. One under appointment. Four main stations. Two boarding schools. One industrial school. One Bible school. Six village schools. Superintendent C. B. Harvey, Sanjan, Thana District.

THE REFORMED EPISCOPAL CHURCH OF AMERICA at Laturpur and Lucknow, U. P. has 2 missionaries, 4 Outstations, 1 Hospital, 2 Orphanages and a membership of nearly 100.

The Methodist Protestant Mission began work in India in 1919, has a staff of seven missionaries, and one under appointment. The work is confined to Dhulia Taluka, with one main station Dhulia. There two boarding schools, district evangelistic work and medical work. Secretary Miss Mildred Mikken, Dhulia, West Khandesh.

THE WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY commenced work in India in 1817 (Layton in 1816). The Mission in India, apart from Ceylon, is organized into 7 District Synods with 2 Provincial Synods. There is a large English work connected with the Society, 20 ministers giving their whole time to Military work and English churches.

The districts occupied include 68 main stations in Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Bombay, Punjab, Central Provinces, Hyderabad (Nizam's Dominions), United Provinces and Burma. The Burma Synod has recently been attached to the Ceylon Provincial Synod for purposes of administration. Its statistics are no longer included in this statement. The European staff numbers 102 with 75 Indian Ministers and 791 Indian workers, Communicants 18,518 and total Christian community 101,248. There are 7 large numbers of organized Churches many of which are self supporting.

Educational work comprises 8 Christian Colleges students, 2,033. 5 Theological Institutions, students, 329, 7 High Schools, pupils,

3,427, 14 Industrial schools pupils 400 923 Elementary schools with 26,189 scholars In Medical work there are 3 hospitals 12 dispensaries, 1,127 in patients and 65,481 out-patients

The Women's Auxiliary carry on an extensive work in the places occupied by the W M M. B. There are 98 women workers from abroad of whom 16 are qualified doctors. The Indian women workers number 382 There are 109 girls day schools with 13,377 pupils and 23 boarding schools with 1,979 boarders There are several philanthropic institutions for the

rescue and training of women The Women's Auxiliary manage 12 hospitals and 9 dispensaries which had 3,041 in-patients and 87,533 out-patients. The cost of the work to the Women's Auxiliary in 1926 was nearly £ 25,000

THE FREE METHODIST MISSION of North America—Established at Yoomtal, 1893, operates in Berar with a staff of 12 Missionaries and 48 Indian workers Organised churches 4 1 Theological school and 13 Elementary schools, 2 Anglo-Vernacular schools 4 Dispensaries and 6 Clinics Secretary Persie M Phelps Yoomtal Berar

THE SALVATION ARMY

The work of the Salvation Army in India and Ceylon was commenced in 1882 by the late Commissioner Booth Tucker and was for many years under his control with Headquarters in India For some time now the areas occupied have been divided for administrative purposes into 5 Territories each under a Territorial Commander and two smaller Commands

Northern Territory with Headquarters at Lahore

Western Territory with Headquarters at Bombay

Madras and Telugu Territory with Headquarters at Madras

Southern Territory, with Headquarters at Trivandrum in Travancore State

Ceylon Territory, with Headquarters at Colombo

Eastern Command with Headquarters at Calcutta

Burma Command with Headquarters at Rangoon

The Commanders are directly responsible to the International Headquarters in London

Northern Territory—The area in this Territory is the Salvation Army work in the Punjab Delhi and United Provinces The Territory is controlled from Lahore

Evangelistic work especially among the depressed classes is extensively carried on both in the Punjab and the U P

A number of Settlements for the reformation of Criminal Tribes are under the control of the Salvation Army in the United Provinces (where this important reformatory work was commenced), and also in the Punjab, Great progress has been made A special Settlement has also been opened in the Andamans during the last few years

A land colony 2,000 acres in extent is in existence in the Multan District, where a population of 1,800 has been settled The land will ultimately become the property of the holders

Medical work is carried on in two Hospitals, one of which is in the Punjab and the other in the United Provinces, and also in a number of Dispensaries

Other institutions include Day and Boarding Schools, Weaving Schools, Agricultural and Fruit Farms a Home for Stranded Europeans and for British Military Soldiers

Village centres at which the S A

Works 1,657

Officers and Employees 688

Social Institutions 21

Territorial Headquarters 82 Ferozpur Road, Lahore, Punjab

Territorial Commander Lt Commissioner M Muthiah

Chief Secretary—Lt Colonel N I Madren Western India—The West in India Territory comprises the Bombay Gujrat Panth Malabar and the Maratha country

Besides the distinctly evangelistic operations, there are established a large General Hospital—Thomas Buxey Memorial—several Dispensaries at which during the year about 22,000 patients are treated 204 Day and Boarding Schools a Home for Juvenile Criminals, an Industrial and Home for Women conditionally Released Prisoners Home Weaving Schools a Factory for Weaving Warping and Reeling Machines, and a Land Colony having a population of some hundreds of Salvationists

Corps 277, Outposts, 424 Societies 538 Officers and Cadets 665 of whom 593 are Indian employees and teachers 106 Social Institutions, 16

Territorial Headquarters S A, Morland, Road Byculla Bombay

Territorial Commander Lieut Commissioner Ewins

MADRAS AND TELUGU TERRITORY—This Territory comprises the city of Madras and work situated in the Nellore Guntur Bistana and West Godavari Districts of the Northern Circle of the Madras Presidency also Bangalore

There are the following agencies at work—286 Corps and Outposts, viz, places in which work is systematically done

121 Village Primary Schools 3 Settlements for Criminal Tribes with a total population of 3,209 1 Reformatory School for children of Criminal Tribes 1 Rescue Home 2 Institutions for the training of Officers and one Boarding School for Boys and 1 for Girls

1 Leprosy Colony at Rapadla (newly taken over by us) Present number of lepers in the Colony is 105

1 Trade Department where cloth, leather goods, furniture, carpets, silk lace etc, the products of Industrial Institutions, are disposed of

Territorial Headquarters The Salvation Army, Broadway, Madras

Territorial Commander Colonel Collidge

General Secretary Major H H Rawson

The South Indian Territory of the Salvation Army embraces the Native States of Travancore Cochin, and the Tinnevely District of British India, operating in more than 100 centres chiefly among the depressed classes

The Territory presents a great opportunity there being many unoccupied localities, particularly in Central and Northern Travancore from which repeated appeals have been received for workers, which we are not able to meet yet.

Throughout the Territory there are upwards of 800 well-conducted Day Schools, in which nearly 7 000 boys and girls daily receive regular instructions. Besides there are three Boarding Schools two at Nagercoil and one at Trivandrum mothering a total number of one hundred and twenty children.

A number of additional Village Halls and Officers Quarters have been erected during the past year. The complete Scheme for Divisional Headquarters and Central Hall at Vailloor (British Division) was recently opened, and is one of the finest Properties in the Territory, being on the main road, mid way between Nagercoil and Thanevely.

Jail Meetings are conducted in the Central Prison Trivandrum, and prove a great blessing to the convicts who are greatly influenced by The Army's work.

The Medical Department continues to maintain its reputation for the beneficial work in the alleviation of pain and suffering, notwithstanding there was a considerable loss in the early part of the year from the cholera epidemic.

The two schemes under consideration for work among the lepers, one in Cochin and the other in North Travancore are pending the final sanction of the London Authorities.

Industrial Departments, though the market for certain branches of the work are not at all encouraging, are maintaining their position and influence.

Territorial Headquarters The Salvation Army, Kuravannam, Trivandrum.

Territorial Commander Colonel (Mrs) A. Trounse.

Chief Secretary Lt Colonel Yesudasen.

Laws and the Administration of Justice.

The indigenous law of India is personal and divisible with reference to the two great classes of the population, Hindu and Mahomedan. Both systems claim a divine origin and are inextricably interwoven with religion, and each exists in combination with a law based on custom. At first the tendency of the English was to make their law public and territorial and on the establishment of the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1773 and the advent of English lawyers as judges, they proceeded to apply it to Europeans and Indians alike. This error was rectified by the Declaratory Act of 1780, by which Parliament declared that as against a Hindu the Hindu law and usage and as against a Mahomedan the laws and customs of Islam should be applied. The rules of the Shastras and the Koran have been in some cases altered and relaxed. Instances can be found in the Bengal Sati Regulation Act of 1829, the Indian Slavery Act, 1843, the Caste Disabilities Removal Act of 1850, the Hindu Widows Remarriage Act, 1856, and other Acts and Codes. To quote the Imperial Gazetteer, "A certain number of the older English statutes and the English common law are to a limited extent still in force in the Presidency Towns as applicable to Europeans, while much of the old Hindu and Mahomedan law is everywhere personal to their native fellow subjects, but apart from these, and from the customary law, which is as far as possible recognised by the Courts, the law of British India is the creation of statutory enactments made for it either at Westminster or by the authorities in India to whom the necessary law giving functions have from time to time been delegated.

Codification.

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unweildy, entangled and confusing." The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed,

of which Lord Macaulay was the moving spirit, to prepare a penal code. Twenty-two years elapsed before it became law during which period it underwent revision from his successors in the Law Membership, and especially by Sir Barris Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860 was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of British India is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the code." The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The Code of Civil Procedure was remodelled in 1906 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes are now in force.

Statute Law Revision

In October, 1921, a committee was appointed under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. A. P. Muddiman, I.C.S., to deal with the question of statute law revision. The functions of the Committee are to prepare for the consideration of Government such measures of consolidation and clarification, as may be necessary to secure the highest attainable standard of formal perfection in the statute law of India. In several branches of the law consolidation has long been overdue, and it is suggested that the preparation of a Bill consolidating the existing law relating to merchant shipping, with such amendments therein as are recommended or rendered desirable by the amendment of the English statutes since 1894 on the same subject should form the first duty undertaken by the Committee. Under the conditions prevailing

from the establishment of the reformed Constitution, increasing importance will attach hereafter to the periodical examination and revision of the Statute Book and the Government of India hope that the Committee will take its place as a permanent feature of the legislative machinery of the country.

European British Subjects

Whilst the substantive criminal law is the same for all classes, certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects. Until 1872 European British subjects could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. It was then enacted that European British subjects should be liable to be tried for any offences by magistrates of the highest class, who were also justices of the peace, and by judges of the Sessions Courts, but it was necessary in both cases that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European British subject. In 1883 the Government of India announced that they had decided 'to settle the question of jurisdiction over European subjects in such a way as to remove from the code at once and completely every judicial disqualification which is based merely on race distinctions. This decision, embodied in the Ilbert Bill, aroused a storm of indignation which is still remembered. The controversy ended in a compromise which is thus summarised by Sir John Strachey ('India'). The controversy ended with the virtual, though not avowed, abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government Act III of 1884 by which the law previously in force was amended, cannot be said to have diminished the privileges of European British subjects charged with offences, and it left their position as exceptional as before. The general disqualification of native judges and magistrates remains, but if a native of India be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge, his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects are the same as those of an Englishman holding the same office. This provision however is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought for trial before the district magistrate or sessions judge has the right, however trivial be the charge to claim to be tried by a jury of which not less than half the number shall be Europeans or Americans. Whilst this change was made in the powers of district magistrates, the law in regard to other magistrates remained unaltered. Since 1886 no distinctions of race have been recognised in the civil courts throughout India.

After a discussion on this subject in the Legislative Assembly in September 1921, the following motion was adopted:—'That in order to remove all racial distinctions between Indians and Europeans in the matter of their trial and punishment for offences, a committee be appointed to consider what amendments should be made in the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, which differentiate between Indians and European British subjects and American and Europeans who are not British subjects in criminal trials and proceedings and to report on the best methods of giving effect to their proposals.' As a result of the

recommendations of the Racial Distinctions Committee the law on the subject was further modified, and by the Criminal Law Amendment Act XII of 1925 in place of the old Chapter XXXIII (55448-466) the new Chapter XXXIII (55448-446) with certain supplementary provisions was substituted. This has in some measure reduced the differences between the trials of Europeans and of Indians under the Code.

High Courts

The highest legal tribunals in India are the High Courts of Judicature. These were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for the United Provinces and the Punjab superseding the old supreme and Sudder Courts. More recently High Courts have been constituted for Patna and Rangoon as well. The Judges are appointed by the Crown, they hold office during the pleasure of the Sovereign, at least one-third of their number are barristers, one-third are recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for the appointment of Indian lawyers. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits in India.

For other parts of India High Courts have been formed under other names. The chief difference being that they derive their authority from the Government of India, not from Parliament. In Burma there is a Chief Court, with three or more judges, in the other provinces the chief appellate authority is an officer called the Judicial Commissioner. In Sind the Judicial Commissioner is termed Judge of the Sudder Court and has two colleagues.

The High Courts are the Courts of appeal from the superior courts in the districts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final, except in cases in which an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council and is heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. The High Courts exercise supervision over all the subordinate courts. Returns are regularly sent to them at short intervals and the High Courts are able, by examining the returns by sending for proceedings, and by calling for explanations, as well as from the cases that come before them in appeal, to keep themselves to some extent acquainted with the manner in which the courts generally are discharging their duties.

Lower Courts

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal courts styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every province, outside the Princi- pal towns, is divided into sessions divisions consisting of one or more districts, and every sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with assistance if need be. These stationary sessions courts take the place of the *Kanghis* *Assises*, and are competent to try all accused persons duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but sentences of death are subject to confirmation by the highest court of criminal appeal in the province. Magistrates' courts are of three classes with descending powers. Provision

is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates. In the Presidency towns Presidency magistrates deal with magisterial cases and benches of Justices of the Peace or honorary magistrates dispose of the less important cases.

Trials before courts of session are either with assessors or juries. Assessors assist, but do not bind the judge by their opinions, on juries the opinion of the majority prevails if accepted by the presiding Judge. The Indian law allows considerable latitude of appeal. The prerogative of mercy is exercised by the Governor-General-in-Council and the Local Government concerned without prejudice to the superior power of the Crown.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district. As District Judge he presides in its principal civil court of original jurisdiction, his functions as Sessions Judge have been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Munsifs, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of India. The civil courts, below the grade of District Judge, are almost invariably presided over by Indians. There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs. 500. In the Presidency Towns, where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Cause Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs. 2,000. As in insolvency Courts the chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns. In the mutual similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Insolvency Act of 1905.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers unaided by juries.

Legal Practitioners

Legal practitioners in India are divided into Barristers-at-Law, Advocates of the High Court, Vakils and Attorneys (Solicitors) of High Courts, and Pleaders, Mukhtars and revenue agents. Barristers and Advocates are admitted by each High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts, and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the chartered High Courts. Vakils are persons duly qualified who are admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel prevails only on the original side of certain of the High Courts. Pleaders practise in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts.

Organisation of the Bar

At Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there is a Bar Committee presided over, *ex-officio*, by the Advocate-General. This body is elected by

the barristers practising in each High Court, and its functions are to watch the interests of the Bar and to regulate its etiquette. At Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpore, and Rangoon a similar Bar Committee exists, but the electorate is extended to include the vakils or native pleaders, and the president is either the senior practising member of the Bar or the Government Advocate. In the larger Districts and Sessions Courts, an organisation representing the Bar is usually to be found, and in the subordinate Courts, including the Revenue Courts similar machinery is generally in use. Pending an opportunity of detailed inquiries in India these general descriptions must suffice. The recommendations of the Indian Bar Committee of 1923 relating to the constitution of Bar Councils for the several High Courts in India have been recently adopted by the Indian Bar Courts Act, XXXVIII of 1926.

Composition of the Bar

A considerable change is occurring in the composition of the Indian Bar. The following extract from an interesting article in the *Times* (May 25, 1914) indicates the character and incidence of this development. During the last forty years, a striking change has taken place in the professional class. The bulk of practice has largely passed from British to Indian hands, while, at the same time, the profession has grown to an enormous extent. One typical illustration may be quoted. Attached to the Bombay High Court in 1871 there were 38 solicitors, of whom 10 were Indian and 28 English, and 24 advocates, of whom 7 were Indian and 17 English. In 1911, attached to the same High Court, there were 150 solicitors of whom more than 130 were Indian and the remainder English, and 250 advocates, of whom 10 only were English and the remainder Indian.

Law Officers.

The Government of India has its own law colleague in the Legal Member of Council. All Government measures are drafted in this department. Outside the Council the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Advocate-General of Bengal, who is appointed by the Crown, is the leader of the local Bar, and is always nominated a member of the Provincial Legislative Council. In Calcutta he is assisted by the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor. There are Advocates-General and Government Solicitors for Bombay and Madras and in Bombay there is attached to the Secretariat a Legal Remembrancer and an Assistant Legal Remembrancer, drawn from the Judicial Branch of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of Bengal consults the Bengal Advocate-General, the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor, and has besides a Legal Remembrancer (a Civil Servant) and a Deputy Legal Remembrancer (a practising barrister). The United Provinces are equipped with a civilian Legal Remembrancer and professional lawyers as Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate. The Punjab has a Legal Remembrancer, Government Advocate and a

Junior Government Advocate and Burma a Government Advocate, besides a Secretary to the Local Legislative Council.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Courts of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of the Court.

Law Reports

The Indian Law Reports are now published in seven series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna, Lahore and Rangoon under the authority of the Governor-General in Council. They contain cases determined by the High Court and by the Judicial Committee on appeal from the particular High Court. These appeals raise questions of very great importance, and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales show their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume, and have also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1893. The other Provinces and States have series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

Legislative Power

The supreme power of Parliament to legislate, for the whole of India cannot be questioned in practice, however, this power is little used, there being a majority of officials on the Imperial Legislative Council—a majority deliberately reserved in the India Councils Act of 1909—the Secretary of State is able to impose his will on the Government of India and to secure the passage of any measure he may frame, regardless of the opinion of the Indian authorities. Legislative Councils have been established both for the whole of India and for the principal provinces. Their constitution and functions are fully described in detailing the powers of the Imperial and Provincial Councils (*q.v.*). To meet emergencies the Governor-General is vested with the power of issuing ordinances, having the same force as Acts of the Legislature but they can remain in force for only six months. The power is very little used. The Governor-General-in-Council is also empowered to make regulations, having all the cogency of Acts, for the more backward parts of the country the object being to bar the operation of the general law and permit the application of certain enactments only.

Bengal Judicial Department

Rankin The Hon ble Sir George Claus Kt KC Bar
at-Law
Ghouse The Hon ble Mr Justice Charu Chunder
Kt Bar-at Law
Duckland The Hon ble Mr Justice Philip Lindsay Kt
Bar-at-Law
Suhrawardy The Hon ble Mr Justice Zahhadur Rahim
Zahid Kt, Bar at-Law
Cumming The Hon ble Mr Justice Arthur Herbert, Kt,
ICS
Pearson The Hon ble Mr Justice Herbert Grayhurst
Bar at Law
Mukharji The Hon ble Mr Justice Manmatha Nath,
MA BL
Costello The Hon ble Mr Justice Leonard Wilfred
James MA LL D Bar at Law
Graham The Hon ble Mr Justice John Fuller ICS
Lort Williams, The Hon Mr Justice John, KC Bar
at-Law
Mallik The Hon Mr Justice Satyendra Chandra ICS
lack The Hon ble Mr Justice Robert Ernest ICS
Mitter The Hon ble Mr Justice Dwarkanath MA,
DL
Ghose The Hon ble Mr Justice Sarat Kumar MA
ICS
Pancbridge, The Hon ble Mr Justice Hugh Rahere
Bar-at-Law
Guba The Hon ble Mr Justice Surendra Nath Rai
Bahadur
Sircar N N, Bar-at Law
Roy A K Bar-at-Law
Baan, A K Bar-at-Law
Hodson S S
Nelson, J W, ICS

Chief Justice

Puisane Judge

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Additional Judgeship

Advocate General

Standing Counsel

Government Counsel

Government Solicitor

Superintendent and Remembrancer of

Legal Affairs and Judicial Secretary

to Government (Officiating)

Deputy Superintendent and Remem-

brancer of Legal Affairs

Senior Government Reader (Offg

Judge High Court)

(Officiating)

Khundkar, N A, Bar-at Law

Guba, Rai Bahadur Surendra Nath

Basak, Dr Sanku Chandra

Sadhu, Rai Bahadur Tarak Nath, O I M

Sen, Binod Chandra

Mitra, Sarat Kumar

Bemtry, Maurice

Ghatak, N. M. B., Bar-at-Law

Roy Surendra Nath Bar-at Law

Mitra, Satish Chandra

Ganguli Manmatha Nath

Falsett, F

Ghose, J. M., Bar-at Law

Mitra, Kanai Lal

Banarji Sachindra Nath

De, Jatindra Nath

Sen Gupta Subodh Chandra

D. Abrew, P. A

Moses, O., Bar-at-Law

Sharpe, W. McC., L. O. S.

Counsell, Frank Bertram

Hadr-ud-din Ahmad B. A.

Young, J. J.

Young, J. J.

Mitter, Durga Das B. A.

Basu Sudhanu Bhuvan

Kinney Alexander

Morgan C. Carey

Suria O. R.

Falkner George McDonald Bar-at Law

Banerjee K. K. Shelly Bar-at Law

Public Prosecutor in the Courts of the

Presidency Magistrates in Calcutta

Junior Public Prosecutor, Calcutta

Editor of Law Reports

Registrar (Original Side)

Master and Official Referee

Assistant Referee

Registrar in Insolvency

Deputy Registrar

Assistant Registrar

Assistant Registrar and Chief Clerk in

Insolvency

Asst. Registrar

Do

Do

Do

Secretary to the Chief Justice and

Head Clerk Decree Department

Clerk of the Crown for Criminal Ses-

sions

Registrar and Taxing Officer Appel-

late Jurisdiction

Deputy Registrar

Assistant Registrar Appellate Side

English Office (Granted leave for

3 months from the 9th November

1930)

(Officiating)

Assistant Registrar (Paper Book and

Account Departments)

(Officiating)

Senior Bench Clerk and Ex-officio

Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side.

Administrator General and Official

Trustee (On leave for sixteen

months from 1st May 1930)

Administrator General and Official

Trustee (Officiating)

Deputy Administrator-General and

Official Trustee (Officiating)

Official Assignee

Official Receiver

Bombay Judicial Department

Beaumont, The Hon'ble Sir John W. F., K. C.

Mirza, Ali Akbar Khan, The Hon'ble Mr Justice, Bar-

at Law

Blackwell, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Cecil Patrick, Bar

at Law

Patkar, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Sitaram Sundarrao,

B. A., LL. B.

Baker, The Hon'ble Mr Justice W. T. W., B. A. (Oxon)

I. C. S.

Rangnekar, The Hon'ble Mr Sajbha Shankar, B. A.,

LL. B., Bar-at-Law

Murphy, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Stephen James,

I. C. S.

Broomfield, The Hon'ble Mr Justice R. S., B. A., Bar

at-Law, I. C. S.

Wadia, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Bomanji Jamshedji

Barce, The Hon'ble Mr Justice K. W., B. A., Bar-at-

Law, I. C. S.

Kanga, Ch. Jamshedji Behramji, Kt., M. A., LL. B.

Wanavati, D. D., B. A., Bar-at-Law, I. C. S.

Chief Justice

Puisne Judge

Do

Do

Do

Do

Do

Do

Do

Do

Do

(Officiating Additional)

Advocate General

Remembrancer of Legal Affairs

Rajadhyaksha G S, M A, Bar at Law, ICS

Dhyanandhar J R, LL B
Kirke Smith, A

Walker G L,
Vakil J H Bar-at Law
Kemp K MacI, Bar-at Law

Itlo, J B A LL B
Mallabari, P B Bar-at-Law Khan Bahadur

Shingne The Hon ble Mr Justice Padmanabh Bhaskar
LL B
Lobo, C M LL B

Mitchell, H C D

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Law
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Edulji Jahangir Davar LL B

Griffith Edwin
Kundanmal Alunni Bhoywadi LL B, Bar-at Law
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Taney, K

Vakil H A, Bar-at Law

Chahal, A F J LL B

Adhyas, C L, Bar-at Law

Tahir AH Fatehi, LL B.

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Majumdar, J H
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Bundealbhoy Hajetbhoy ONE

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Sen K C B A ICS
Dhirujlal Lalibhai Mehta B A, LL B

Adhikari M K B A

Deputy Secretary to Government
Legal Department Also Secretary
to the Legislative Council, Bombay
(In addition) (On leave)

Do (Officiating)
Government Solicitor and Public
Prosecutor (On leave)

Do (Officiating)
Clerk of the Crown
Reporter to the High Court
(On leave)

Do (Officiating)
Official Assignee, Insolvent Debtors
Court
Government Pleader, Bombay

Government Pleader and Public Pro
secutor, Karachi

Administrator-General and Official
Trustee in addition to his duties as
Registrar of Companies
Prothonotary and Senior Master

Master and Registrar in Equity and
Commissioner for taking Accounts
and Local Investigator

Master and Assistant Prothonotary
(On leave)

Taxing Master
Insolvency Registrar
Assistant Taxing Master

First Assistant Master Officiating
Master and Assistant Prothonotary

Second Assistant Master Officiating
1st Assistant Master

Third Assistant Master (On depu
tation)

Associate Officiating 2nd Assistant
Master

Associate Officiating 3rd Assistant
Master

Do

Associate

Do

Officiating Associate

Sheriff

Deputy Sheriff

Registrar, High Court Appellate Side

Deputy Registrar and Sealer, Appel
late Side, and Secretary to Rule
Committee

Assistant Registrar and Superintend
ent, High Court Press

COURT OF THE JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER OF SIND

Wild, A C B A, ICS
Aston, Arthur Henry Southcoote, M A, Bar-at Law

Rupchand Bijaram
Havelwala, Muhammed Hussain Abdul Ali, Bar-at-
Law
Milne, R B, M A, ICS

Judicial Commissioner of Sind
Additional Judicial Commissioner of
Sind (On leave)

Do do

Officiating do

Officiating do

COURT RECEIVER AND LIQUIDATOR AND ASSISTANTS

Wadia, H H, M A, Bar at-Law
Chinoy A F J, LL B
Mankar, M N, M A, Attorney-at-Law

Court Receiver and Liquidator
First Assistant to do
Second Assistant to do

Madras Judicial Department

Beasley, The Hon ble Mr Justice H O C Bar-at Law	Chief Justice
Ramesam The Hon ble Sir V Kt	Judge (On leave)
Venkatasubba Rao, The Hon ble Mr Justice M, B A, B L	Do
Wallace The Hon ble Mr Justice E H ICS	Do
Waller The Hon ble Mr Justice D G, ICS	Do
Madhavan Nair The Hon ble Mr Justice C Bar-at Law	Do
Krishna Pandala The Hon ble Mr Justice, Bar-at-Law	Do
Jackson The Hon ble Mr Justice G H B ICS	Do
Kelly, The Hon ble Mr Justice, H D C	Do
Ananthakrishna Ayyar, The Hon ble Mr Justice C V Rao Bahadur	Do
Cargenven The Hon ble Mr Justice A J ICS	Do
Cornish Hon ble Mr Justice H D	Do (On leave)
Sunjeram Chetti, The Hon ble Mr Justice N Diwan Bahadur	Do
Lakshmana Rao The Hon ble Mr Justice K P Rangaswami Aiyangar S	Do
Krishnaswami Ayyar A Diwan Bahadur	Administrator General
Thomas Arthur	Advocate General
Naidu Venkataramana Rao, P	Government Solicitor
Deves L H	Government Pleader
Muthaya Menon, J P Bar-at Law	Public Prosecutor (On leave)
	Public Prosecutor and Crown Prosecutor
	Editor Indian Law Reports Madras Series
Aing r E. N Bar-at Law	Law Reporter
Ramachandra Ayyar K	Do
Rajagopala Acharyar, N	Do
Sankaranarayan, B C, M A, LL B Bar-at-Law	Secretary, Rule Committee
Sesha Aycengar K V	Judge
Walsh, The Hon ble Mr Justice E P	Do
Bashyam Ayyangar The Hon ble Mr Justice V	Registrar (On leave)
Fraser I M	Officiating Registrar, High Court
White G S	Officiating Master High Court
Kandaswami Mudalliver P	Acting Deputy Registrar Appellate Side
Andisundrachari, S, M A, B L	First Assistant Registrar Original Side
Batamuril Aiyar E	Commissioner and Clerk of the Crown
Venkataramana Ayyar, V	Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side
Kuppuswami Aiyar, K	Second Assistant Registrar, Original Side
Appa Rao D	Official Referee
Abdul Hakim C	Sheriff

Assam Judicial Department

Bau, M B, ICS	Secretary to Government Legislative Department and Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council
	Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, Administrator-General & Official Trustee, Assam
Edgely, Norman George Armstrong ICS	District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar
Ayyar N M, ICS	Additional District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar
Hass, Hon Chandra	District and Sessions Judge, Assam Valley Districts
Kay, Shish Chandra	Additional District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar,
Ghosh, K B	Do

Bihar and Orissa Judicial Department.

Terrell, The Hon ble Sir Courtney, Kt
 Jwala Prasad, The Hon ble Sir, Kt Rai Bahadur
 Adam, The Hon ble Sir Leonard Christian Kt ICS
 Rees, The Hon ble Mr Justice Robert Lindsay ICS
 Wort, The Hon ble Mr Justice Alfred William Ewart
 Bar-at-Law

Bahay, The Hon ble Mr Justice Kulwant
 Macpherson, The Hon ble Mr Justice Thomas Stewart,
 C.J.R. ICS, Bar at-Law

Kail Ash, The Hon ble Mr Justice Salyid Bar at Law
 James, The Hon ble Mr Justice John Francis William
 ICS

Scroope, The Hon ble Mr Justice Arthur Piers ICS
 Dwyer, The Hon ble Mr Justice Shankar Lalaji ICS
 Saunders J.A., ICS

Saudagar Singh
 Nareh Chandra Rai M.A.B.L.
 Muhammad Ibrahim

Salyid Sultan Ahmad, Sir Kt, Bar at Law
 Agarwala C.M., Bar at-Law
 Shiveshwar Dasal, Advocate

Chief Justice
 Puisne Judge

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Mehta H D, B A Bar-at-Law

Scin L Hoke B A, B L
Me, U A-F M

Kirkham George Patrick B Sc, B L
Bradley J B G B A, L C S
Hman, U Po
Thon U Ba (a)
Chau, U San
Kyan L Hone B L
Daw Me Me Khin B L

Registrar Original Side, High Court
Bangoon (Officiating)
First Deputy Registrar
Second Deputy Registrar, Appellate
Side
Third Deputy Registrar
Deputy Registrar General Department
Assistant Registrar Appellate Side
Assistant Registrar Original Side
Fourth Deputy Registrar, Mandalay
Do
Assistant Registrar

Central Provinces Judicial Department

Indlay Sir Charles S Kt M A, LL B, ICS
Macnair, Robert H H Bar-at-Law, ICS
Jackson, E J B A (Oxon), Bar at-Law, ICS, JP
Ghulam Mohiuddin, Khan Bahadur, M A, LL B Bar
at-Law
Subbendar, Ganpat Lakshman Bar-at-Law
Staples, F H, M A (Oxon), Bar-at-Law, ICS, JP

Pollock R E, B A (Cantab) ICS, JP
Gokhale Ganesh Hari B A, LL B
Bose Vivin, Bar at-Law

Degashio Behari B A, B L
Borwankar, Keshoo Raghunath, B A, LL B

Judicial Commissioner (On leave)
Officiating Judicial Commissioner
Additional Judicial Commissioner
Additional Judicial Commissioner

Additional Judicial Commissioner
Officiating Additional Judicial Com
missioner
Legal Remembrancer
Assistant Legal Remembrancer
Government Advocate and ex officio
Standing Council
Registrar
Deputy Registrar

N-W Frontier Province Judicial Department.

Fraser J H R C I N, O B K
Saudat Din Khan, K B B A, LL B
Abdool Ghisni Khan, M B A

Judicial Commissioner
Additional Judicial Commissioner
Registrar

Punjab Judicial Department

Shadi Lal The Hon ble Sir Rai Bahadur, Bar-at-Law,
Kt.

Bryedway, The Hon ble Sir Alan Brice, Bar-at-Law,
Kt.

Harrison, The Hon ble Mr Justice Michael Harman,
ICS

Morde, The Hon ble Justice Sir Cecil (King's Counsel)
Kt

Addison, The Hon ble Mr Justice James, ICS.

Tek Chand, The Hon ble Mr Justice Bakshai,

Coldstream, The Hon ble Mr Justice John, ICS.

Jai Lal, The Hon ble Mr Justice Rai Bahadur

Dalip Singh, The Hon ble Mr Justice Kunwar, Bar-at-
Law

Agha Haidar, The Hon ble Mr Justice Syed, Bar-at
Law

Skemp, The Hon ble Mr Justice F W., ICS

Bhike, The Hon ble Mr Justice Mahadeva Vishnu
(Cantab) ICS

Abdul Qadir, The Hon ble Justice Sir Sheikh, Kt

Tapp The Hon ble Mr Justice J K M.

Currie, The Hon ble Mr Justice M M L., ICS

Gordon Walker, The Hon ble Mr Justice A L., ICS

Blacker, H A C, ICS

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Chief Justice.

Judge

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Do (On leave)

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Additional Judge

Additional Judge and President, 2nd

Sikh Gurdwaras Tribunal.

Additional Judge

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Additional Judge and President, 1st

Sikh Gurdwaras Tribunal.

Acting Judge.

Officiating Registrar up to 31st Decem

ber 1900 in addition to his own

duties as District Judge, Lahore

Registrar

Deputy Registrar

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Webb Kenneth Cameron
Ranjit Rai, Lala
Salo, Stephen Leonard, I O S, Bar-at Law
Nood Charles Humphrey Cardon B.A., Bar-at-Law
Ramlal Diwan B.A. (Oxon), Bar-at Law
Abdur Rashid, Mian, M.A. Bar-at Law

Assistant Registrar
Assistant Deputy Registrar
Legal Remembrancer and Secretary
Legislative Department
Government Advocate and Administrator-General Official Trustee, Punjab
Assistant Legal Remembrancer, Conveyancing
Assistant Legal Remembrancer, Punjab (Legislative)

United Provinces Judicial Department

Wears The Hon'ble Sir Edward Grimwood Kt
Bar-at Law
Suleman The Hon'ble Sir Shah Muhammad Kt
Bar-at Law M.A. LL.D.
Dahl, The Hon'ble Justice Sir Barjor Jamshedji Kt
J.P. I O S Bar-at-Law
Mukharji The Hon'ble Mr Justice Lal Gopal B.A.,
LL.B. Raj Bahadur
Boya, The Hon'ble Mr Justice G.P., Bar-at-Law
Banarji The Hon'ble Mr Justice Latif Mohan M.A.
LL.B. Raj Bahadur
Kendall The Hon'ble Mr Justice Charles Henry
Bayley J.P. (I O S)
Young The Hon'ble Mr Justice John Douglas Bar-
at-Law
King The Hon'ble Mr Justice Carlton Moss, C.I.E.,
J.P. I O S
Sen The Hon'ble Mr Justice Surendra Nath M.A.
LL.D.
Nahmat Ullah The Hon'ble Mr Justice Chaudri
Rennet Hon'ble Mr Justice Edward, B.A., LL.B. Bar
at Law J.P. I O S
Joshi, Dr. Lachmi Dat B.Sc. LL.B. Bar-at Law
Mills, Stanley Edward Fervie
Raynor Frank Ernest
Uma Shankar Bajpal M.A., LL.B.
Wall Ullah Dr. M. M.A. LL.D. Bar-at Law
Norton, E. I.
Mocha, Phil Chand
Shankar Saran, M.A. (Oxon) Bar-at-Law
Mukharji Benoy Kumar
Mukhtar Ahmad, B.A., LL.B.
Dersange H.C. Bar-at-Law

Chief Justice

Puisne Judge

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Additional Puisne Judge

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Registrar

Deputy Registrar

Assistant Registrar

Government Advocate

Assistant Government Advocate

Legal Remembrancer to Govt

Deputy Ditto

Government Pleader

Law Reporter

Assistant Law Reporter

Administrator-General and Official Trustee

CHIEF COURT OF OUDH—LUCKNOW

Wazir Hasan The Hon'ble Justice Safiyd B.A. LL.B.
Muhammad Raza, The Hon'ble Justice Khan Bahadur
Safiyd, B.A. LL.B.
Briyastava, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Bhaikwar Nath,
B.A., LL.B., O.R.E.
Fullan The Hon'ble Mr Justice Ayrton Popplewell,
M.A., I.O.S.
Nanavati, The Hon'ble Mr Justice Erach Mansookshah,
B.A., I.O.S.
Mannath Nath Upadhyas Pandit
Nageshar Prasad Raj Bahib B.A.
Thomas George Hector
Ghose Hamentro Kumar Bar-at Law
Bishambhar Nath Srivastava, Babu, B.A., LL.B.

Chief Judge
Judge

Do

Do

Do

Registrar

Deputy Registrar

Government Advocate (On leave)

Asst. Government Advocate

Law Reporter

NUMBER AND VALUE OF CIVIL SUITS INSTITUTED

Administrations	Number of Suits Instituted										Total Number of Suits Instituted	Value of Suits	Total Value of Suits
	Value not exceeding Rs 10					Value above Rs 10							
	Rs 10	Rs 50	Rs 100	Rs 500	Rs 1,000	Rs 500	Rs 1,000	Rs 5,000	Rs 10,000	Rs 50,000			
1. Bengal	108,181	28,487	129,968	133,168	15,539	17,065	2,802	910	18,915,376	601,628	18,915,376	15,915,376	
2. Bihar and Orissa	94,582	68,124	31,289	40,288	4,073	4,712	1,058	189	5,603,812	180,272	5,603,812	5,603,812	
3. United Provinces	9,155	71,693	64,440	94,118	12,845	10,508	2,228	420	17,25,84,014	284,701	17,25,84,014	17,25,84,014	
4. Punjab	10,787	57,416	67,309	92,476	10,230	9,400	1,502	131	9,97,02,575	245,251	9,97,02,575	9,97,02,575	
5. Delhi	411	2,807	2,305	3,510	678	675	248	1	80,88,344	7,054	80,88,344	80,88,344	
6. North West Frontier Province	2,071	4,925	4,028	5,907	1,131	910	369		80,88,138	19,056	80,88,138	80,88,138	
7. Burma	1,584	14,324	13,768	27,564	5,312	3,894	864	1,037	2,76,66,752	18,287	2,76,66,752	2,76,66,752	
8. Central Provinces and Berar	6,043	41,406	34,398	55,600	8,867	6,080	1,130		5,69,85,800	1,42,274	5,69,85,800	5,69,85,800	
9. Assam	8,234	16,998	10,545	11,926	1,309	665	70	104	1,02,24,146	44,808	1,02,24,146	1,02,24,146	
10. Almor Merwara	933	2,211	1,926	1,998	204	106	8	10	10,07,265	7,307	10,07,265	10,07,265	
11. Coorg	158	1,170	664	627	46	18	2	30	2,95,082	2,708	2,95,082	2,95,082	
12. Madras	65,446	208,504	81,048	124,177	15,895	12,307	1,974	763	11,08,71,487	504,100	11,08,71,487	11,08,71,487	
13. Bombay	10,177	62,183	47,709	79,976	14,245	9,399	1,410	92	7,53,01,240	(a) 228,226	7,53,01,240	7,53,01,240	
14. British Baluchistan	405	1,853	900	968	116	94	68		10,18,162	4,654	10,18,162	10,18,162	
TOTALS, 1928	255,191	830,343	480,340	677,267	97,800	70,307	13,217	681	70,09,48,759	2,431,376	70,09,48,759	70,09,48,759	
1927	238,452	811,731	458,360	639,470	98,715	67,539	12,052	7,216	72,40,41,516	(c) 249,185	72,40,41,516	72,40,41,516	
1926	246,508	791,116	430,349	603,587	90,602	64,441	12,766	7,582	82,16,09,507	(c) 246,638	82,16,09,507	82,16,09,507	
1925	289,480	849,294	471,970	644,580	102,711	66,737	12,777	7,701	71,39,35,498	(c) 241,256	71,39,35,498	71,39,35,498	
1924	243,796	791,991	423,613	563,777	84,618	60,301	13,245	7,374	63,66,43,587	(c) 218,256	63,66,43,587	63,66,43,587	
1923	232,538	77,769	415,058	541,405	80,846	57,055	11,786	6,551	67,78,24,777	(c) 212,108	67,78,24,777	67,78,24,777	
1922	236,196	789,914	433,905	587,888	86,270	62,487	12,865	5,983	70,39,34,504	(c) 184,376	70,39,34,504	70,39,34,504	
1921	212,498	752,504	424,410	552,240	82,543	60,271	12,621	7,093	68,40,21,154	(c) 104,484	68,40,21,154	68,40,21,154	
1920	245,361	861,041	473,351	584,130	82,914	66,091	13,291	8,582	72,19,45,468	(c) 214,601	72,19,45,468	72,19,45,468	
1919	253,766	864,173	460,928	559,481	78,074	52,773	11,589	7,085	70,02,15,969	(c) 232,702	70,02,15,969	70,02,15,969	
TOTALS ..													

* Details not given of 6 Madras suits in 1919 and 21,308 in 1921, and of 6,437 Bombay suits in 1921, 7,104 in 1922, 6,574 in 1923, 6,014 in 1924, 5,638 in 1925, 4,509 in 1926 and 4,581 in 1927, (a) Excludes 4,047 suits of 'superior Courts', (c) Excludes 2 suits instituted in the court of one Hon'y. Munsif

(b) Excludes 43 cases transferred to Settlement Courts.

THE INDIAN POLICE.

Origins—Cornwallis was the first Indian administrator to take the burden of policing the country off the zamindars and to place it on Government. He ordered the District Judges of Bengal in 1793 to open a Thana (Police Station) for every 400 square miles of their jurisdiction, and to appoint stipendiary thanadars (Police Station Officers) and subordinates.

In Madras in 1816 Sir Thomas Munro took superintendence of police out of the hands of the sedentary judges and placed it in the hands of the peripatetic Collector, who had the indigenous village police system already under his control in this way the Revenue Department controlled the police of the districts and still to some extent does so especially in Bombay Presidency.

In Khandaah from 1826-36 Outram of Mutiny fame showed how a whole time military commandant could turn incorrigible marauders into excellent police and Sir George Clerk Governor of Bombay in 1848, applied the lesson by appointing full time European Superintendents of Police in many Districts.

Madras had a torture scandal in 1853 which showed that 3 Collectors had no time for real police superintendence. In 1859 the principle of full time European superintendence was introduced in a Madras Act of that year and the control of the Collector was removed.

The Mutiny led to general police overhaul and retrenchment and the Madras Act was mainly followed in India Act V of 1861. An Act for the Regulation of Police, which still governs police working everywhere in India except Madras and Bombay, which has its own Police Act (IV of 1890).

Working—Strictly speaking there is no Indian Police. With the doubtful exceptions of the Delhi Imperial Area Police, and the advisory staff of the Intelligence Bureau attached to the Home Department, the Government of India has not a single police officer directly under its control. The police provided for by the 1861 Act is a provincialised police administered by the Local Government concerned subject only "to the general control of the Governor General."

Within the Local Government area the police are enrolled and organised in District forces, at the head of each of which is a District Superintendent of Police with powers of enlistment and dismissal of constabulary, and Police Station Officers may also be dismissed by the D S P.

The D S P is subject to dual control. The force he commands is placed at the disposal of the District Magistrate for the enforcement of law and the maintenance of order in the District. But the departmental working and efficiency of the force is governed by a departmental hierarchy of Deputy Inspector General of Police, Inspector-General of Police, and Home Department. Generally speaking, the D S P has to correspond with his District Magistrate on judicial and magisterial topics, and with his departmental chiefs on internal working of his force.

The C I D—The Curzon Police Commission of 1902-3 modernised police working by providing for the direct enlistment and training of Educated Indians as Police Station Officers and by creating specialised police agencies under each Local Government for the investigation of specialist and professional crime. These agencies are known as Criminal Investigation Departments and work under a Deputy Inspector General. They collate information about crime, edit the Crime Gazette, take over from the District Police crimes with ramifications into several jurisdictions and they control the working of such scientific police developments as the Finger Print Identification Bureau.

Headquarters and Armed Police—At the chief town of each District the D S P has his office and also his Headquarters Police lines and parade ground. This is the main centre for accumulation and distribution to the Police Stations and Outposts of the District of clothing, arms, ammunition, and accoutrements. Here are the Stores and the Armoury. Here also constabulary recruits enlisted by the D S P are taught drill, deportment and duties and are turned out to fill vacancies. The Headquarters lines also contain the two hundred or so armed police who mount guard on Treasuries in the District, and also provide prisoner and treasure escort. Actually they form a small and mobile local army equipped with muskets (single loading) and bayonets. The most highly trained section of them go through a musketry course and are armed with 303 service rifles. At most head quarters but by no means all there is also a reserve of mounted and armed police.

Thanas and Thanadars—Almost through out India the popular terms for Police Station and Police Station Officer are Thana and Thanadar. It is at the Police Station that the public are most in touch with the police and the police with the public. Whether it be in a large city or in a mofussil hamlet the Thana is the place where people come with their troubles and their grievances against their neighbours or against a person or persons unknown. In dealing with such callers the Thanadar, who like police of all ranks is supposed to be always on duty, is chiefly guided by the Fourteenth Chapter of the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Second Schedule at the end of that Code. This schedule shows nearly all penal offences and states whether or not they are cognisable by the police. The fourteenth Chapter lays down that a cognisable complaint must then and there be recorded, visited and investigated. A non cognisable complaint is merely noted in a separate book and the complainant is told to go to court.

Police Prosecutors—The complaint in a cognisable case not only has its complaint recorded and investigated without payment of fee. If the thanadar succeeds in establishing a *prima facie* case against the accused the prosecution in court is conducted free of charge by a police prosecutor, who is generally a junior pleader, engaged by Government to conduct police cases in the lower courts. Cases committed

to the Sessions are conducted by the Public Prosecutor or one of his Assistants, and the reports of these officers and the comments of the Judge are a means for the D S P to know whether his thanadars are doing their work properly.

Out Posts—When the Police Commission of 1860 devised the plan of police that still holds the field they laid down two criteria of the numbers required. One was one policeman per square mile, the other was one per thousand of population. In towns it is w.-ll enough to have the available police concentrated at the police station. But in the mofussil the thana is very often fifty miles distant from portions of its jurisdiction. It is in such cases profitable to detach a portion of the police station strength under a head constable to man an outpost where complaints can be received and investigation begun without the injured party having to undertake a long journey to the distant thana. The secret of good mofussil police working in normal times is dispersion. A single policeman however junior represents the rule of law and is an agent of Government.

The Chain of Promotion—Ordinarily the constable may aspire to become a jamadar or with ability and luck a Police Station Officer or even Inspector. The directly recruited matriculate who comes in through the Police Training School as a Thanadar may ordinarily become an Inspector or a Deputy Superintendent, or exceptionally a Superintendent. The direct Deputy, an office reserved for Indians, has a good chance of becoming Superintendent, and perhaps Deputy-Inspector General. The direct Assistant Superintendent, whether from England or from India, is sure of a Superintendency and has chances of D I G after 25 years service. The period of service for all ranks for full pension is thirty years and if an officer dies in the process of earning full pension his pension dies with him and all his dependents get his provident fund.

Presidency Police—In the Presidency Towns there is unified police control for the Police Commissioner is responsible for both law and order and for departmental training and efficiency.

The Commissioner of Police of a Presidency Town is not the subordinate of the Provincial Inspector-General of Police and he deals direct with Government, just as the Presidency Magistrates deal directly with the High Court. The Criminal Procedure Code of India is superseded in the Presidency Towns by special police Acts which prescribe police procedure in criminal cases in Presidency Towns is some what rough and ready not only from this cause but also because Presidency Magistrates can give upto six months or Rs 200 fine summarily i.e., without formal record of proceedings, and if only whipping or fine up to Rs 200 is inflicted there need be not even any statement of reasons for the conviction.

Round Figures—The process of reorganization and retrenchment goes on ceaselessly annual administration reports for the ten major provinces and four minor administrations appeared tardily, and there are no unified statistics for the police of India and Burma. The following figures are therefore merely to be regarded as approximations, giving a general idea of the numbers of police and the volume of work put through yearly.—There are about 80 000 Military Police chiefly in Burma, Assam and Bengal and these cost about one and a third crores. The maintenance of them is a departure from the principles laid down by the 1860 Commission and the 1861 Act.

Provincial Police including Burma total about 200 000 and cost ten and a half crores or an average of about one crore per major Province.

There are about 10 000 Thanads or Police Stations which annually investigate from five to six thousand murders, four thousand dacoities, twenty five thousand cattle thefts, one hundred and seventy ordinary thefts and as many burglaries. They place on trial every year about three quarters of a million persons, of whom about half a million or more are convicted. The jail population of India, which is over a hundred thousand consists of many habituals who on release proceed to prey on the public until such time as the police again secure their conviction and incarceration.

Statement (1), Military Police " for 1913
Assam Rifles

Commandants	Asstt Comd	Sub and Jam	Hav and Nalka	Sepoys	Total	Cost Rs.
5	15	77	380	3,420	3,420	1,753,117
1	3	16	70	713	843	415,923
		Bihar and Orissa	50	412	472	219,578
12	35	Burma Military Police	115	11	13,452	7,032,261

North West Frontier Constabulary

Commandant	Dist Off	Asstt. D O	Sub and Jam	Hav and Nalka	Sepoys	Total	Cost Rs.
1	7	6	130	429	4,530	5,075	134,824

Province	Inspector Generals and Deputy Inspectors Generals	Superintendents	Assistant Superintendents of Police	Deputy Superintendents of Police	Inspectors	Sub Inspectors	Sergeants	Head Constables	Constables	Total	and Total Cost	Proportion of Police	
												to area	to population
Assam	1	14	17	0	40	206	1	421	3,534	4,325	Rs 23,06,465	1 to 12.3	1 to 1,772.6
Bengal (excluding Calcutta)	7	46	62	28	278	1,831	50	2,634	19,711	24,800	1,43,14,897	1 to 2.9	1 to 1,853.8
Bihar	5	29	28	28	182	1,139	17	1,348	11,446	14,422	80,82,102	1 to 5.8	1 to 2,372
Bombay (excluding Big Bombay)	6	42	80	83	143	788	57	4,839	17,427	23,337	1,26,80,810	1 to 5.09	1 to 776
Burma (excluding Rangoon)	6	39	30	64	223	1,863	74	1,474	9,708	17,435	1,15,65,914	1 to 17.21	1 to 954
C P	4	26	10	13	131	738	25	1,739	8,331	11,043	59,08,849	1 to 9.2	1 to 1,259
Madras	6	34	36	44	304	1,411	11	8,101	22,617	27,737	1,50,57,220	1 to 5.1	1 to 1,626
N W F	1	8	7	1	31	172	1	625	4,909	5,817	29,57,252	1 to 2.8	1 to 799
Punjab	5	36	36	46	130	802	29	2,863	17,237	21,243	99,41,481	1 to 4.0	1 to 1,058
U P	0	58	51	71	243	2,073	40	2,611	23,617	33,775	1,48,73,800	1 to 3.1	1 to 1,348
	47	331	307	338	1,716	11,171	385	21,838	143,616	170,733	9,82,38,860	1 to 6.86	1 to 1,331

STATISTICS OF POLICE WORK.

The undesirability of attaching undue importance to statistical results as a test of the merits of police work was a point upon which considerable stress was laid by the Indian Police Commission who referred to the evils likely to result from the prevalence among subordinate officers of an impression that the advancement of an officer would depend upon his being able to show a high ratio of convictions both to cases and by persons arrested, and a low ratio of crime. The objection applies more particularly to the use of statistics for small areas, but they cannot properly be used as a basis of comparison even for larger areas without taking

into account the differences in the conditions under which the police work, and, it may be added, they can at the best indicate only very imperfectly the degree of success with which the police carry out that important branch of their duties, which consists in the prevention of crime. These considerations have been emphasized in recent orders of the Government of India. Subject to these observations, the figures below may be given as some indication of the volume of work falling upon the police, and of the wide differences between the conditions and the statistical results in different provinces. They are statistics of cognizable crime —

Administrations.	Number pending from previous year	Number reported in the year	Number of persons tried	Number convicted	Number acquitted or discharged	Number in custody pending trial or investigation or on bail at end of year	
Bengal	5,740	241,560	202,443	189,163	13,280	9,022	
Bihar and Orissa	3,116	44,710	27,598	18,379	9,219	4,480	
United Provinces	7,231	140,785	92,769	81,562	11,207	18,552	
Punjab	8,784	57,448	57,072	35,376	21,675	21,078	
North West Frontier Province	1,640	6,630	8,564	4,507	3,857	1,538	
Burma	6,722	77,878	73,670	47,129	26,546	4,946	
Central Provinces and Berar	2,853	89,901	21,241	13,281	5,248	2,712	
Assam	1,404	11,784	9,847	6,453	3,394	1,766	
Ajmer-Merwara	880	6,006	3,460	3,161	299	2,407	
Coorg	141	598	616	377	134	195	
Madras	15,616	171,652	160,781	144,779	16,002	5,250	
Bombay	8,629	182,616	131,348	111,208	20,145	11,155	
Baluchistan	08	3,637	3,374	3,078	296	81	
Delhi	211	4,412	5,278	3,312	1,966	129	
TOTAL, 1928	63,079	941,955	797,866	661,755	133,268	68,238	
TOTALS	1927	57,630	886,675	788,856	602,956	132,312	68,550
	1926	57,412	818,777	711,493	583,84	126,215	61,607
	1925	56,554	877,780	712,697	578,906	176,423	56,336
	1924	54,997	897,747	703,553	670,729	139,112	51,490
	1923	56,314	848,664	649,101	521,861	124,821	50,604
	1922	59,772	857,234	651,486	522,002	127,025	48,484
	1921	56,762	848,948	611,154	484,401	124,328	48,410
1920	61,193	851,087	628,874	505,108	119,406	48,875	
1919	57,002	950,706	670,542	543,758	124,211	44,246	

GENERAL POLICE OFFENCES

054972

Administrations	Offences against the Peace and Public Tranquillity			Murder		Other crimes against the Peace		Dacoity		Cattle Theft.		Ordinary Theft		House-traps and Housebreaking with Intent to commit Offence.	
	Reported	Conviction Obtained	Reported	Conviction Obtained	Reported	Conviction Obtained	Reported	Conviction Obtained	Reported	Conviction Obtained	Reported	Conviction Obtained	Reported	Conviction Obtained	
Bengal	2,546	787	691	55	7,438	1,607	806	112	1,103	518	24,048	4,932	82,285	2,247	
Town and Suburb	136	60	25	2	708	212	1	1	1	14	5,923	1,484	1,018	411	
Calcutta															
Madras	1,544	492	328	63	4,143	887	256	83	1,016	324	14,484	2,886	18,081	1,430	
Madras and Orissa	2,130	719	860	257	8,538	2,688	749	169	7,549	1,449	26,422	4,501	42,945	4,358	
United Provinces	2,413	762	733	354	9,810	2,995	164	71	3,621	1,139	8,847	2,680	19,588	2,876	
Punjab	528	6	28	8	9,272	2,795	139	11	1,113	113	636	905	108	108	
Delhi	201	63	496	255	2,062	871	42	12	146	36	948	267	2,320	805	
West Frontier Provinces.															
Burma	1,108	654	1,060	238	18,451	4,320	610	189	7,748	1,912	13,780	5,129	10,985	8,731	
Yunnan	39	25	22	4	640	230	10	2	10	2	2,110	708	532	153	
Central Provinces and Berar	732	351	272	123	8,291	1,405	38	13	1,082	400	18,727	2,633	10,442	1,491	
Assam	810	231	97	6	1,964	415	42	9	340	131	5,120	989	6,448	643	
Coorg	2	1	6		30				19		130	30	80	13	
Madras	1,923	671	1,048	899	6,686	1,670	291	85	4,148	1,459	18,862	4,572	10,906	2,003	
Madras	1,330	413	568	2	8,684	1,623	188	37	2,785	1,065	10,824	2,951	10,042	2,161	
Bombay	89	48	38	8	921		1	1			4,157	1,666	1,644	299	
Bombay Town and Island.	8	8	6	2	77	29	1		2						
Malabar	27	12	19	4	171	48	10	1	72	28	1,185	284	179	87	
Malabar													5-6	88	
TOTAL, 1923	15,070	5,884	6,431	1,898	61,769	19,348	3,235	718	27,655	8,498	137,089	36,759	165,900	22,347	
1927	14,996	5,676	6,257	1,785	62,012	18,508	3,006	776	25,458	7,942	134,032	38,044	168,748	22,429	
1926	14,757	5,048	6,237	1,759	58,986	17,283	2,410	716	23,452	7,889	125,355	37,250	169,411	21,786	
1925	15,115	5,207	5,989	1,623	57,791	16,813	2,267	814	24,981	7,539	150,408	39,177	180,125	21,920	
1924	15,372	5,217	6,824	1,623	56,597	15,630	2,067	814	22,549	6,923	149,195	38,564	190,578	21,809	
1923	14,774	4,913	5,803	1,536	64,115	14,523	4,093	877	21,876	6,483	144,539	37,734	192,111	20,405	
1922	15,051	5,862	6,952	1,519	58,315	14,845	3,855	877	21,876	7,078	181,845	39,745	204,529	21,042	
1921	18,957	6,114	6,043	1,642	60,694	14,322	5,071	963	27,896	8,150	215,041	41,204	231,776	23,546	
1920	11,023	4,875	5,734	1,371	51,938	14,320	4,001	790	27,896	8,028	212,948	48,992	209,532	23,117	
1919	11,618	4,670	5,644	1,487	49,868	14,321	6,224	1,234	31,681	10,453	233,515	59,084	257,118	25,981	
TOTALS															

JAILS

Jail administration in India is regulated generally by the Prisons Act of 1894, and by rules issued under it by the Government of India and the local governments. The punishments authorised by the Indian Penal Code for convicted offenders include transportation, penal servitude, rigorous imprisonment (which may include short periods of solitary confinement), and simple imprisonment. Accommodation has also to be provided in the jails for civil and under-trial prisoners.

The origin of all jail improvements in India in recent years was the Jail Commission of 1889. The report of the Commission, which consisted of only two members, both officials serving under the Government of India, is extremely long, and reviews the whole question of jail organization and administration in the minutest detail. In most matters the Commission's recommendations have been accepted and adopted by Local Governments, but in various matters, mainly of a minor character, their proposals have either been rejected as inapplicable to local conditions, abandoned as unworkable after careful experiment or accepted in principle but postponed for the present as impossible.

The most important of all the recommendations of the Commission, the one that might in fact be described as the corner stone of their report is that there should be in each Presidency three classes of jails: in the first place, large central jails for convicts sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment; secondly, district jails at the head quarters of districts; and, thirdly, subsidiary jails and lock-ups for under-trial prisoners and convicts sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. The jail department in each province is under the control of an Inspector-General, who is generally an officer of the Indian Medical Service with jail experience, and the Superintendents of certain jails are usually recruited from the same service. The district jail is under the charge of the civil surgeon, and is frequently inspected by the district magistrate. The staff under the Superintendent includes, in large central jails, a Deputy Superintendent to supervise the jail manufactures, and in all central and district jails one or more subordinate medical officers. The executive staff consists of jailors and warders, and convict petty officers are employed in all central and district jails, the prospect of promotion to one of these posts being a strong inducement to good behaviour. A *Prison Note* issued by the Bombay Government in October, 1915, says:— "The cadre and emoluments of all ranks from Warder to Superintendent have been repeatedly revised and altered in recent years. But the Department is not at all attractive in its lower grades. The two weak spots in the jail administration at the moment are the insufficiency of Central Prisons and the difficulty of obtaining good and sufficient warders."

The Jails Committee.—Since the introduction of the reformed constitution the maintenance of the Indian Prisons falls within the sphere of provincial Governments and is subject

to all India legislation. The obvious advisability of proceeding along certain general lines of uniform application led lately to the appointment of a Jails Committee, which conducted the first comprehensive survey of Indian prison administration which had been made for thirty years. Stress was laid by the Committee upon the necessity of improving and increasing existing jail accommodation, of recruiting a better class of warders, of providing education for prisoners and of developing prison industries so as to meet the needs of the consuming Departments of Government. Other important recommendations included the separation of civil from criminal offenders, the adoption of the English system of release on license in the case of adolescents, and the creation of children's courts. The Committee found that the reformatory side of the Indian system needed particular attention. They recommended the segregation of habituals from ordinary prisoners, the provision of separate accommodation for prisoners under trial, the institution of the star-class system and the abolition of certain practices which are liable to harden or degrade the prison population.

Employment of Prisoners.—The work on which convicts are employed is mostly carried on within the jail walls, but extramural employment on a large scale is sometimes allowed as, for example, when a large number of convicts were employed in excavating the Victoria Canal in the Punjab. Within the walls prisoners are employed on all services and repairs, and in workshops. The main principle laid down with regard to jail manufactures is that the work must be penal and industrial. The industries are on a large scale, multifarious employment being condemned, while care is taken that the jail shall not compete with local traders. As far as possible industries are adapted to the requirements of the consuming public departments, and printing, tent-making, and the manufacture of clothing are among the commonest employments. Schooling is confined to juveniles, the experiment of teaching adults has been tried, but literary instruction is unsuitable for the class of persons who fill an Indian jail.

The conduct of convicts in jail is generally good, and the number of desperate characters among them is small. Failure to perform the allotted task is by far the most common offence. In a large majority of cases the punishment inflicted is one of those classed as "minor." Among the "major" punishments fetters take the first place. Corporal punishment is inflicted in relatively few cases, and the number is steadily falling. Punishments were revised as the result of the Commission of 1889. Two notable punishments then abolished were shaving the heads of female prisoners and the stocks. The latter, which was apparently much practised in Bombay, was described by the Commission as inflicting exquisite torture. Punishments are now scheduled and graded into major and minor. The most difficult of all jail problems is the internal maintenance of order among the prisoners, for which purpose paid

warders and convict warders are employed. With this is bound up the question of a special class of well behaved prisoners which was tried from 1905 onwards in the Thana Jail.

Juvenile Prisoners.—As regards "youthful offenders"—i.e. those below the age of 15—the law provides alternatives to imprisonment, and it is strictly enjoined that boys shall not be sent to jail when they can be dealt with otherwise. The alternatives are detention in a reformatory school for a period of from three to seven years, but not beyond the age of 18, discharge after admonition, delivery to the parent or guardian on the latter executing a bond to be responsible for the good behaviour of the culprit, and whipping by way of school discipline.

The question of the treatment of "young adult" prisoners has in recent years received much attention. Under the Prisons Act, prisoners below the age of 18 must be kept separate from older prisoners, but the recognition of the principle that an ordinary jail is not a fitting place for adolescents (other than youthful habituals) who are over 15 and therefore ineligible for admission to the reformatory school, has led Local Governments to consider schemes for going beyond this by treating young adults on the lines followed at Borstal, and considerable progress has been made in this direction. In 1905, a special class for selected juveniles and young adults was established at the Dharwar jail in Bombay, in 1908—a special juvenile jail was opened at Alipore in Bengal, in 1909 the Melkita jail in Burma and the Tanjore jail in Madras were set aside for adolescents, and a new jail for juvenile and "juvenile adult" convicts was opened at Bareilly in the United Provinces, and in 1910 it was decided to concentrate adolescents in the Punjab at the Lahore District jail, which is now worked on Borstal lines. Other measures had previously been taken in some cases, a special reformatory system for juvenile adults had, for example, been in force in two central jails in the Punjab since the early years of the decade and Borstal enclosures had been established in some jails in Bengal. But the public is slow to appreciate that it has a duty towards prisoners, and but little progress has been made in the formation of *Prisoners' Aid Societies* except in Bombay and Calcutta, though even in those cities much remains to be done.

Reformatory Schools.—These schools have been administered since 1899 by the Education department, and the authorities are directed to improve the industrial education of the inmates, to help the boys to obtain employment on leaving school, and as far as possible to keep a watch on their careers.

Transportation.—Transportation is an old punishment of the British Indian criminal law, and a number of places were formerly appointed for the reception of Indian transported convicts. The only penal settlement at the present time is Port Blair in the Andaman Islands.

Commission of Enquiry, 1912.—A committee was appointed to investigate the whole system of prison administration in India with special reference to recent legislation and experience in Western countries. Its report, published in 1921, was summarised in the

Indian Year Book, 1922 (pages 670-671). A number of reforms were advocated but, owing to financial stringency, it has not yet been possible to introduce some of the more important of them.

Fines and Short Sentences.—Those sections of the Indian Penal Code, under which imprisonment must be awarded when a conviction occurs, should be amended so as to give discretion to the court. Sentences of imprisonment for less than twenty-eight days should be prohibited.

The Indeterminate Sentence.—The sentence of every long term prisoner should be brought under revision as soon as the prisoner has served half the sentence in the case of the non habitual, and two-thirds of the sentence in the case of the habitual, remission earned being counted in each case. The revision should be carried out by a Revision Board composed of the Inspector General of Prisons, the Sessions Judge and a non official. In all cases, the release of a prisoner on parole should be made subject to conditions, breach of which would render him liable to be remanded to undergo the full original sentence. The duty of seeing that a prisoner fulfils the conditions on which he was released should not be imposed upon the police or upon the village headman, but special officers to be termed parole officers, should be appointed for the purpose. These parole officers should possess a good standard of education, though not necessarily a university degree, and should both protect and advise the released prisoner and report breaches of the conditions of release.

Transportation and the Andamans.—If any fresh attempt at colonisation is made, it should be in an entirely new locality. A fresh attempt at colonisation in the Middle Andaman is not recommended. The retention of the settlement at Port Blair on the present lines is not recommended. The entire abandonment of the Andamans as a place of deportation is not recommended. Deportation to the Andamans should cease, except in regard to specially dangerous prisoners and any others whose removal from Indian jails is considered by the Government to be in the public interests. The existing restrictions as to age and physical condition of prisoners sentenced to transportation to the Andamans should, unless special medical grounds exist in any particular case, cease to apply. The Indian Penal Code should be amended by the substitution of rigorous imprisonment for transportation. In provinces where the available prison accommodation will not permit of the immediate cessation of deportation of all but selected prisoners, the Star class should be the first, and the habitual the last to be detained in Indian jails. No female should in future be deported to the Andamans, and those now there should be brought back to India and distributed among the Provinces to which they belong. In those Provinces where the jails are insufficient to detain prisoners now deported additional accommodation should be provided as soon as possible.

Criminal Tribes.—The first essential of success in dealing with the criminal tribes is the provision of a reasonable degree of economic

Jail Population

comfort for the people. It is therefore of paramount importance to locate settlements where sufficient work at remunerative rates is available. Large numbers of fresh settlers should never be sent to a settlement without first as-

certaining whether there is work for them. Commitment to settlements should, as far as possible, be by gangs not by individuals. It is desirable to utilise both Government and private agency for the control of settlements.

The variations of the jail population in British India during the five years ending 1928 are shown in the following table.—

	1928	1927	1926	1925	1924
Jail population of all classes on 1st January	138,424	132,253	129,753	128,314	126,478
Admissions during the year	585,208	582,243	552,097	536,219	535,428
Aggregate	723,630	714,496	684,850	664,533	662,906
Discharged during the year from all causes	581,532	578,055	552,624	534,779	534,455
Jail population on 31st December	140,119	138,431	142,226	129,754	128,401
Convict population on 1st January	116,161	113,301	111,895	110,810	109,280
Admissions during the year	167,013	169,836	162,772	158,139	158,466
Aggregate	283,174	283,137	274,167	268,449	267,696
Released during the year	100,875	102,623	107,568	108,997	105,219
Transported beyond seas	566	1,301	783	616	571
Casualties, &c.	2,497	2,469	2,286	2,089	2,340
Convict population on 31st December	118,799	116,161	118,274	111,895	110,899

More than one half of the total number of convicts received in jails during 1928 came from the classes engaged in agriculture and cattle tending, about 184,000 out of 167,000 are returned as literate.

The percentage of previously convicted prisoners was 20 as against 19 in 1927 while the number of youthful offenders fell from 259 to 282. The following table shows the nature and length of sentences of convicts admitted to jails in 1926 to 1928.—

Nature and Length of Sentence	1923	1927	1926
Not exceeding one month	29,758	31,122	30,637
Above one month and not exceeding six months	68,271	67,356	64,147
" six months " one year	24,603	26,420	24,971
" one year " five years	27,280	23,714	25,912
" five years " ten "	3,783	3,980	3,790
Exceeding ten years	46	485	524
Transportation beyond seas—			
(a) for life	1,735	1,565	1,685
(b) for a term	42	80	86
Sentenced to death	1,158	1,112	1,057

The total daily average population for 1928 was 116,511, the total offences dealt with by criminal courts was 850, and by Superintendents 182,406. The corresponding figures for 1927 were 114,879, 871 and 181,462, respectively.

The total number of corporal punishments showed a decrease, viz., from 243 to 236. The total number of cases in which penal diet (with and without cellular confinement) was prescribed was 5,196 as compared with 6,668 in the preceding year.

Total expenditure increased from Rs 1,79,90,944 to Rs 1,81,80,045 while total cash earnings decreased from Rs 23,60,169 to Rs 22,87,704 there was consequently an increase of Rs. 8,39,132 in the net cost to Government.

The death rate decreased from 12.82 per mille in 1927 to 12.03 in 1928. The admissions to hospital were lower, and the daily average number of sick fell from 20.82 to 20.82.

The Laws of 1930

BY

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ACTS

1 The Provident Funds (Amendment) Act 1929—The Provident Funds Act, 1921, provides for withdrawals from the fund for the payment of premia on policies of life insurance. The present Act extends the principle by legalising withdrawals from a provident fund for the payment of subscriptions or premia to a family pension fund. The Act further deletes from the definition of compulsory deposit "contribution and Provident Fund" words which have recently been interpreted to mean that contributions in a contributory provident fund should bear some relation to the subscribers' subscriptions apart from that of being an addition to them. The Act also provides for the extension of its provisions by the Governor General in Council to the provident funds of public institutions whose activities are closely connected with those of Government.

2 The Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930—The obligations undertaken by the Government of India in ratifying the Geneva Dangerous Drugs Convention of 1925 are two-fold: first in regard to the regulation of international traffic in all the drugs covered by the convention (s 9) and secondly in regard to the regulation of the manufacture of and internal traffic in certain specified drugs such as cocaine and morphine. In addition to centralising and vesting in the Governor General in Council the control of certain operations relating to dangerous drugs the Act renders uniform and in some cases increases the penalties for certain offences relating to dangerous drugs. Section 2 of the Act defines cocaine, hemp, opium, etc. Section 4 prohibits certain operations:—(a) the cultivation of coca plant the manufacture of prepared opium and the import into or export from British India of prepared opium. A proviso allows the Government the cultivation of any coca plant or the gathering of any portion thereof. Sections 5 and 6 vest the control of the Governor General in Council over the production and supply of opium and the manufacture of manufactured drugs. Under sections 8 and 9 the Local Governments are given control over traffic in dangerous drugs where the persons promoting the traffic are in British India but the traffic itself lies entirely outside it. Sections 10-21 deal with penalties for the breach of the provisions of the Act. Sections 22-35 are concerned with procedure, e.g., power to issue warrants, power of entry, search, seizure and arrest without warrant, etc.

3 The Indian Sale of Goods Act, 1930—Before the passing of the present Act the law relating to the sale of goods or moveables was contained in Chapter VII of the Indian Contract Act 1872 which is now repealed. The law relating to the sale of goods appertains mainly to mercantile transactions. During the last

half century conditions in this country have undergone material changes. Methods of business have largely altered and new relations have arisen between man and man. As a result the Indian Courts found that a law enacted more than fifty years ago was entirely inadequate to enable them to deal with these new relations or give effect to new principles. The present Act was therefore passed. It is mainly based on the English Sale of Goods Act, 1893.

Section 2 defines the important terms employed in the Act. e.g. *goods* means every kind of moveable property other than actionable claims and money and includes stock and shares, growing crops, grass, etc., *future goods* means goods to be manufactured or produced or acquired by the seller after the making of the contract of sale. It includes *bono mal se* goods in process of manufacture which formed the subject of decision in 22 Bom L Rep 345, 25 Bom L Rep 537, 27 Bom L Rep 1168. A contract of sale of goods is a contract whereby the seller transfers or agrees to transfer the property in goods to the buyer for a price (s 4(1)). Such a contract is either a sale or an agreement to sell. In the former case the property in the goods is transferred from the seller to the buyer in the latter case the transfer takes place at a future time or subject to some condition (s 4(3)). A contract of sale can be made by mere offer and acceptance; neither payment nor delivery is necessary for the purpose (s 5(1)). Section 12 defines a *condition* and a *warranty*; a condition is a stipulation essential to the main purpose of the contract the breach of which gives rise to a right to treat the contract as repudiated; a warranty is a stipulation collateral to the main purpose of the contract, the breach of which gives rise to a claim for damages but not to a right to reject the goods and treat the contract as repudiated. Once a buyer has accepted the goods under a contract of sale, he cannot reject them. If there be a breach of condition disclosed for instance on subsequent inspection of the goods he can treat the breach as a breach of warranty only and not as a breach of condition (s 13(2)). In a contract of sale there is an implied condition on the part of the seller as to title (s 14(a)). In a contract for the sale of goods by description there is an implied condition that the goods must correspond with the description, if the sale is by sample as well as by description, it is not sufficient that the bulk of the goods corresponds with the sample if the goods do not also correspond with the description (s 15). There is no implied warranty or condition as to the quality or fitness for any particular purpose of goods supplied under a contract of sale except in the following cases—(1) where the buyer makes known to the seller the particular purpose for which the goods are required except in the case of a contract for the sale of a specified article, under its patent or trade name, (2) where goods

are bought by description from a seller who deals in goods of that description except in the case where a buyer has examined the goods (3) where by the usage of trade such as implied warranty or condition is annexed (s 16) In the case of a contract for sale by sample there is an implied condition (e) that the bulk shall correspond with the sample in quality (f) that the buyer shall have a reasonable opportunity of comparing the bulk with the sample, (g) that the goods shall be free from any defect rendering them unmerchantable which would not be apparent on reasonable examination of the sample (s. 17) Section 18 embodies the principle that the question whether a contract for the sale of goods does or does not pass the property in the goods from the seller to the buyer must in all cases be determined by the intention of the parties to the contract Sections 20 to 24 contain the rules by which that intention may be ascertained, but the operation of these rules will be displaced by any terms of the contract defining the intention or by any attendant circumstances including the conduct of the parties, rendering it ascertainable Sections 27 to 30 relate to sales by ostensible owners. Where goods are sold by a person who is not the owner thereof and who does not sell them under the authority or with the consent of the owner the buyer acquires no better title to the goods than the seller had unless the owner of the goods is by his conduct precluded from denying the seller's authority to sell A mercantile agent in possession of goods with the consent of the owner can, when acting in the ordinary course of business make a valid sale of such goods (s. 27) Where a seller continues in possession of the goods sold by him and makes another sale of these goods to a person receiving the same in good faith and without notice of the previous sale, the second sale will have the same effect as if the seller were authorised by the owner of the goods to make it [s 30 (1)] Sections 31 to 44 relate to the delivery of goods and the payment of price Where the seller agrees to deliver the goods sold at his own risk at a place other than that where they are when sold, the buyer must nevertheless unless otherwise agreed take any risk of deterioration in the goods necessarily incident to the course of transit (s. 40) Where goods are delivered to the buyer and he refuses to accept them having the right to do so he is not bound to return them to the seller, but it is sufficient if he intimates to the seller that he refuses to accept them (s. 43) Sections 45 to 54 deal with the provisions regarding an unpaid seller's rights against the goods or (1) where the property in the goods has passed to the buyer (a) a lien on the goods for price while he is in possession of them, (b) a right of stoppage in transit in case of the insolvency of the buyer (c) a limited right of re-sale (2) Where the property in the goods has not passed to the buyer, the unpaid seller may withhold delivery of the goods Sections 55 to 61 provide remedies for breach of contract. Section 60 deals with anticipatory breach. When either party to a contract of sale repudiates the contract before the date of delivery, the other may treat the contract as rescinded and sue for damages for the breach

4. *The Indian Contract (Amendment) Act, 1930.*—Section 173 of the principal Act

is amended by this Act to make it consistent with ss 27 and 29 of the Indian Sale of Goods Act, 1930 and settles what used to be a moot point of law A mercantile agent in possession of goods with the consent of the owner whether under a valid or a voidable contract, can when acting in the ordinary course of business, make a valid pledge of such goods, provided the pawnee acts in good faith (s 178)

5. *The Transfer of Property (Amendment) Act, 1930.*—The formal amendment contained in this Act are designed to carry out the intentions of Explanation I contained in section 4 of the Transfer of Property (Amendment) Act, 1929

6. *The Prisons (Amendment) Act, 1930.*—Section 27 (3) of the Prisons Act 1894, provided that male prisoners under the age of 18 should be separated altogether from the other prisoners, and that those of them who had arrived at the age of puberty should be separated from those who had not The effect of this provision was the creation of four distinct groups under the age of 18 as applied both to undetained and to convicted prisoners It was found impracticable in practice to effect the segregation of so many groups of prisoners in each jail The Act remedies this by substituting the word *twenty-one* for the word *eighteen* in section 27 (2) of the Prisons Act.

7. *The Indian Patents and Designs (Amendment) Act, 1930.*—The Indian Patents and Designs Act 1911 came into effect in 1912 Since then experience has revealed a number of directions in which amendments were required The amendments made by the present Act are drawn from the British Act of 1907 and the British Patents and Designs Act of 1919 The following are some of the provisions of the Act Section 9 (1) of the original Act allowed a period of three months within which a notice of opposition could be entered The present Act extends the period to four months (s 5) By amending section 14 the period of future and existing patents is extended from 14 to 16 years Provision is made for the protection of licensor and other parties adversely affected by the change In view of the enlargement of the original period of patents the terms for which extensions could be granted are reduced [s 10 (c)] A new provision is added which enables a patentee to add to his original patent improvements having the same terms as the original patent without incurring the expense involved in taking out separate patents (s 11) Under the principal Act Government had the right to use any invention either without payment or on such terms as they considered reasonable The present Act maintains this position where the patentees are Government servants and the patent is related to their official work, but gives patentees in other cases the right of reference to a Court of law for the settlement of the terms that are to be applicable when Government use their patent A new provision is introduced for the assignment of inventions relating to instruments, or munitions of war to Government and for the maintenance of secrecy where necessary in respect of inventions and patents so assigned (s 15) A design once registered can be cancelled under circumstances detailed in section 61 A (s 34)

8. **The Repealing and (Amendment) Act 1930.**—This Act makes some necessary amendments of a formal nature in certain enactments, and repeals certain spent or useless matter in the statute-book.

9. **The Cantonments (House-Accommodation) (Amendment) Act, 1930.**—The Cantonments Act, 1930, was intended to continue the powers possessed by the military authorities to appropriate where the need arose such houses in cantonments as were originally intended and were suitable for occupation by military officers or messes and to safeguard the rights of house-owners and to secure for them fair rents and equitable conditions of tenancy when their houses were appropriated. The working of the Act during the past six years showed that some of its provisions were obscure, and others were defective. The present Act removes these obscurities and defects. Section 6 of the principal Act is amended so as to afford a clearer definition of the circumstances under which houses may be appropriated (s 3). The reference to a Committee of Arbitration on the questions of the purchase value of a house its rental value or the amount of repairs is done away with and new provisions are introduced for a direct reference to the civil Courts in these matters (s 7). The time allowed for the reference on the question of rent and repairs is extended to 40 days and the new sub-section (3) of section 16 gives the owner an opportunity to set forth his case of the question of repairs before the civil Court. If the owner fails to carry out repairs the Military Engineer services may carry them out and recover the costs from out of the rents (s 17).

10. **The Insolvency Law (Amendment) Act, 1930.**—The Act removes certain defects in the Presidency Towns Insolvency Act, 1909 and the Provincial Insolvency Act, 1920. A new provision is introduced in the Presidency Towns Insolvency Act, which empowers the Chief Justices of the High Courts to appoint one or more deputy official assignees (ss 3 & 4 and 5).

A new section is added after section 18 of the Presidency Towns Insolvency Act, which gives power to the Judge of a High Court sitting in insolvency to stay or annul insolvency proceedings pending under the Provincial Insolvency Act in any Court subject to its superintendence in respect of the same debtor. It also empowers him to give necessary directions for the administration of the debtor's estate in the High Court (s 3). The *terminus a quo* for the calculation of the period of two years referred to in section 53 of the Provincial Insolvency Act, is the date of the presentation of the insolvency petition (s 6).

11. **The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act, 1930.**—The Act makes some amendments in Schedule II to the Indian Tariff Act, 1894. The duty on bark for tanning and living plants is abolished. Poultry farming appliances, including incubators, pans for boiling sugar cane juice, sugar centrifuges and pug mills are put on the list of articles which are free of duty.

Substances which may be declared by notification to be of a like nature or use to

saccharine are made liable to a specific duty of Rs 5 per pound. Domestic refrigerators without regard to their mode of operation are liable to duty of 15 per cent *ad valorem*. Bangles beads and false pearls are subject to a duty of 30 per cent *ad valorem*.

12. **The Steel Industry (Protection) Act, 1930.**—Round and square steel bars and rods of sizes 7/16 inch and above are liable to a protective duty of Rs 26 or 37 per ton according as they are of British manufacture or not. Items Nos 61 and 150 in the second Schedule to the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, are so amended that spikes and tie-bars are made subject to a protective duty of Rs 26 or 37 per ton according as they are of British manufacture or not.

13. **The Inland Steam Vessels (Amendment) Act, 1930.**—The control exercised by Government over inland steam vessels carrying on goods and passenger service in this country does not extend to fixing the rates at which they can levy charges on the public. Virtually in the position of monopolists, the inland steam organisations enjoy unfettered freedom in this matter. In Bengal and Assam where they supply very considerable facilities for transport their charges are considered to be unduly high. The present Act invests the Governor-General in Council with authority to fix maximum and minimum fares and freights after such inquiry as he considers necessary. The Governor-General in Council, however, cannot impose minimum rates of fares and freights unless he is satisfied that a rate war is in progress between competing steamer companies. Another provision in the Act empowers the Local Government to make rules providing for the appointment, constitution, procedure and functions of Advisory Committees to advise the owners, agents and charterers of inland vessels on questions affecting the interests of passengers and shippers of goods (s 54B).

14. **The Indian Railway (Amendment) Act, 1930.**—The Act gives effect to the statutory obligations incurred, by the ratification (by the Government of India) of the Washington and the Geneva Conventions in their application to railways in British India.

The employment of a railway servant is said to be essentially intermittent when it has been declared to be so by the authority empowered in this behalf on the ground that it involves very long periods of inaction during which the railway servant is on duty but is not called upon to display either physical activity or sustained attention. A railway servant must not be employed for more than sixty hours a week on the average in any month. A railway servant whose employment is essentially intermittent cannot be employed for more than eighty-four hours in any week. Temporary exemptions of railway servants from the above provisions may be made (1) in cases of emergency involving serious interference with the ordinary working of the railway and (2) in cases of exceptional pressure of work. Overtime is paid only in the latter class of cases (s 71 (c)). A railway servant must be granted each week a rest of full twenty-four hours, temporary exemptions from the grant of periods of rest may be made in cases of emergencies and

exceptional pressure noted above compensatory periods of rest for the periods foregone must be granted (s 71D). The Governor-General in Council may appoint persons to be Supervisors of Railway Labour to inspect railways in order to determine if the provisions of this Act are duly observed (s 76D). A person employing a railway servant in contravention of any of the provisions of the Act, is liable to a fine upto five hundred rupees (s 71 H).

15. The Indian Finance Act, 1930.—Sections 3 and 5 of the Act continue for a further period of one year the rates of salt duty and postage prescribed by the Indian Finance Act, 1929, section 8 provides for the credit to revenue, till the 31st March, 1931 of interest on securities forming part of the Paper Currency Reserve. Section 4 makes the following alterations in customs tariff: Increase of import duty on silver plate silver thread and wire etc. from 30 per cent to 38 per cent *ad valorem*; levy of an import hour of four annas an ounce on silver bullion and coin with a full drawback in the case of re-exports; increase of the import duty on all kinds of sugar and sugar candy but not molasses by Rs 1-8-0 per cwt. In the case of sugar below 8 Dutch Standard and sugar candy the levy of a composite duty of 35 per cent *ad valorem* plus Rs 1-8 per cwt. increase in the import duty on cotton piece goods from 11 per cent to 15 per cent *ad valorem*; reduction in the import duty on kerosine from 2½ annas to 2½ annas a gallon coupled with the increase in the excise duty from 1 anna to 1½ annas a gallon; reduction in the export duty on rice from 8 annas to 2½ annas a maund. The rates of income-tax and super tax prescribed by the Indian Finance Act, 1929 are continued for another year with the increase of a pice in the rupee in rates of (1) income-tax on income of Rs 15 000 and upwards; and (2) super-tax with the exception of companies super tax.

16. The Transfer of Property (Amendment) Supplementary Act, 1930.—The Act introduces a new section after section 7 of the Transfer of Property (Amendment) Supplementary Act of 1929 and makes in consequential amendments in the first Schedule of the Civil Procedure Code.

17. The Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Act, 1930.—This controversial measure imposes a (1) protective duty on cotton piece goods of all classes, of 15 per cent *ad valorem* on goods of British manufacture and of 20 per cent *ad valorem* on goods not of British manufacture (2) a protective minimum specific duty of 3½ annas a pound on plain grey goods. These duties are to remain in force till the 31st March, 1933.

18. The Silver (Excise Duty) Act, 1930.—The Indian Finance Act, 1930, has imposed a custom duty of four annas per ounce on silver bullion and coin. It is anticipated that the effect of this will be that the internal price of silver will be raised which will give a corresponding bounty to local producers of silver on so much of their output as is sold in India. The present Act imposes a countervailing excise duty on silver produced in India. The rate of duty is four annas on each ounce of silver

issued out of any silver works. Power is reserved to the Governor-General in Council to exempt any silver produced in India and exported out of India.

19. The Indian Companies (Amendment) Act, 1930.—Section 144 of the Indian Companies Act, 1913 deals with the appointment and qualification of auditors. Under sub sections (1) and (2) of this section the Local Government is the statutory authority for the grant of certificates to persons entitling them to act as auditors of public companies and to make rules providing for the grant of such certificates. The present Act transfers the power to grant certificates and to make rules from the Local Government to the Governor-General in Council. The Act further provides for the appointment of an Indian Accountancy Board consisting of persons representing the interests principally affected or having special knowledge of accountancy in India to advise the Governor-General in Council on all matters concerning the grant of auditors certificates and to assist him in maintaining the standards of qualification and conduct required of auditors. The Act also provides for the appointment of local accountancy boards at important centres for the purpose of advising the Indian Accountancy Board and the Governor General in Council on any matters that may be referred to them (s 2).

The proviso to sub section (1) of section 144 of the principal Act empowers the Governor-General in Council to declare that the members of specified institutions or associations shall be entitled to be appointed and to act as auditors of companies throughout British India. All such declarations made before the commencement of this Act are to be taken as cancelled on the expiry of one year from the commencement of this Act. The Governor General in Council may extend this period by a year (s 3).

20. The Destructive Insects and Pests (Amendment) Act, 1930.—The amendment of the Destructive Insects and Pests Act of 1914 by the present Act will enable steps to be taken to prevent the introduction through the medium of air transport of the Mediterranean fruit fly and other pests which have not so far been found in India. In clause (b) of section 2 of the principal Act for the words or land the words *land or air* are substituted.

21. The Indian Income-Tax (Amendment) Act, 1930.—This Act renders illegal certain practices, which are adopted by persons desirous of evading the payment of income-tax and super tax and gives the taxing authorities the necessary powers to check such evasion. A new clause is added by which the words *firm partner* and *partnership* have the same meanings respectively as in the Indian Contract Act, 1872. The Income-tax Officer may treat a registered firm as an unregistered firm if it fails to make a return of its income or to produce accounts or other documents called for by the Income tax officer (s 3). The Income tax officer may treat as separate assesses the individuals, comprising any association carrying on business of which one member is in control, if he is satisfied that such an association has been formed or is being used for the purpose of evading or reducing the liability to tax of any

member thereof. The income tax officer may treat the members of a company as separate assessors if he is satisfied (1) that the company is under the control of not more than five members (2) that its profits and gains are allowed to accumulate without being distributed to its members (3) that such accumulation or failure to distribute is for the purpose of preventing the imposition of tax upon any of the members in respect of their shares (s 4)

Penalties are imposed for concealment of income and improper distribution of the profits of a firm (s 6)

The power of the Income-tax Officer to assess individual members of certain firms, associations and companies, can be exercised only with the approval of the Assistant Commissioner. An appeal will be against the orders of the Income-tax Officer to the Commissioner of Income-tax. The Commissioner must refer such appeal, with a statement of his opinion thereon, to a Board of Referees for decision. The decision of this Board is not subject to appeal to any income tax authority (s 7). A new proviso is added to section 34 of the principal Act which permits the production by public servants before a Court all documents or information relating to the registration of firms (s 10)

22 The Indian Income-tax (Second Amendment) Act, 1930—The Act brings together a number of minor amendments relating mostly to points of machinery and administration and does not affect the incidence of taxation except by granting relief in two cases of hardship neither of which is of practical importance (see ss 2 and 10)

23 The Indian Income-tax (Third Amendment) Act, 1930—This Act inserts a new clause in sub-section (2) of section 10 of the Indian Income-tax Act, 1922 and provides that any sum paid by an employer to an employee as bonus or commission for services rendered must be treated as a business expense and deducted from the employer's income in assessing it to income-tax

24 The Indian Lac Cess Act, 1930—The present Act replaces the Indian Lac Cess Act 1921. It continues the lac cess for the creation of a fund for the improvement and development of the cultivation, manufacture and marketing of Indian Lac. The Act empowers the Governor General in Council to constitute the Indian Lac Cess Committee to administer the lac cess funds and take over the control of the Lac Research Institute. The Committee has power to make rules, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council in certain matters

25 The Negotiable Instruments (Amendment) Act, 1930—A new section is added to the principal Act which affords protection to bankers against forged or unauthorised endorsements on demand drafts drawn by one branch of a bank upon another branch of the same bank. A bank is discharged by payment in due course of a draft drawn by one branch of a bank on another for a sum of money payable to order on demand and endorsed by or on behalf of the payee (s 85A)

26 The Indian Forest (Amendment) Act, 1930—This Act regulates the import and transport of the root *Fukh* in the Punjab and North West Frontier Province. In sub-clause (a) of clause (4) of section 2 of the Indian Forest Act 1927 after the word *or* the word *Fukh* is inserted

27 The Indian Telegraph (Amendment) Act, 1930—Section 4 (1) of the principal Act permits the establishment maintenance and working of wireless telegraphs in British India by non Government persons either under license or in the case of ships only by rule. There was no provision in the Act under which aircraft could be permitted to work by rule and they were therefore required to obtain separate licenses. The present Act permits the establishment maintenance and working of wireless telegraphs on aircraft within or above British India or Indian Territorial Waters by rule

28 The Bombay Civil Courts (Amendment) Act, 1930—Section 24 of the principal Act which limits the jurisdiction of a subordinate judge of the second class to original suits of value not exceeding Rs 5 000 is amended by section 3 of the Bombay Civil Courts and the Small Courts (Amendment) Act, 1930 empowering the local Government to increase this limit to Rs 7 500 in special cases. The present Act provides for appeals direct to the High Court from the decisions of subordinate judges of the second class in cases where the value exceeds Rs 5 000

29 The Banaras Hindu University (Amendment) Act, 1930—The Act provides for the constitution of a Standing Finance Committee to strengthen the financial administration of the University. The following amendments are made in the principal Act: (1) the number of Pro-Chancellors is increased from one to two (2) the number of members of the Syndicate is increased from seventeen to twenty (3) an examination in the Hindu religion for all Hindu students and (4) a statutory pension or provident fund scheme for the staff of the University

30 The Hindu Gains of Learning Act, 1930—Under the Hindu Law gains made personally and without the aid of joint funds by a member of a joint family who was maintained at the expense of the joint family and received no more than ordinary education are the self acquired property of such member, and not joint family property. On the other hand if the income earned by such a member has been obtained by the practice of a profession or occupation requiring special training (i.e. gains or learning) and such training was imparted at the expense of the joint family property the income so obtained becomes the joint property of the family. The present Act modifies the existing law by putting the gains of learning on the same footing as those of ordinary education i.e. making them self acquisition

31 The Ajmer-Merwara Court-fees (Amendment) Act, 1930—Under section 7 clause (ii) of the Court fees Act, 1870, the amount of fee payable in suits for maintenance was computed according to the value of the subject matter of the suit which was deemed to be ten times the amount claimed to be payable

for one year. The present Act gives facilities to widows claiming relief in this respect by reducing the value of the subject-matter of the suit from ten times the amount claimed for one year to the amount claimed for one year only. This Act applies to Ajmer-Merwara only.

22 The Mussalman Wakf Validating Act, 1930.—This Act gives retrospective effect to the Mussalman Wakf Validating Act, 1913, without disturbing any right, title, obligation or liability acquired, accrued or incurred before its commencement. It overrules a series of cases which held that the provisions of the Act were not retrospective.

Ordinances

To meet the emergency created by the Civil Disobedience Movement, the Governor General promulgated under the powers vested in him by s. 72 of the Government of India Act nine ordinances. These ordinances are timed to expire in six months from their date of promulgation.

1 The Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Ordinance, 1930.—In March 1930 that part of the Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Act which granted to the executive certain exceptional powers of arrest and detention was repealed. Sometime thereafter there was an armed attack by certain persons, on the Railway and Police Armouries at Chittagong accompanied by murderous outrages. In order to forestall further outbreaks of this nature the Viceroy promulgated this ordinance on April 19, 1930, renewing temporarily the aforesaid repealed powers. Those powers include powers of Local Government to deal with certain suspects (s. 2) power to arrest without warrant (s. 4) power of photographing taking finger prints, and securing specimens of handwriting and signature of persons who are dealt with in s. 2 (s. 7), and extensive powers of search (s. 8).

2 The Indian Press Ordinance, 1930.—The Indian Press Act, 1910, was repealed in 1922. This ordinance, promulgated on April 27, 1930, revives the powers of the above Act with certain amendments. Under it security can be demanded from keepers of printing presses (s. 3) and the security can be declared forfeited in certain cases (s. 4). In that event it is competent to declare further security or to declare printing presses and publications forfeited (s. 6). Very wide powers to issue search warrants are given (s. 7). There is also the power to detain packages containing certain publications when imported into British India (s. 13) or to prohibit transmission by post of certain newspapers (s. 14) or to detain articles being transmitted by post (s. 15). Orders passed under the ordinance can be revised by a special bench of High Court/Judges not less than three in number (s. 17). Section 23 gives the power to declare printing presses forfeited if used before deposit is made.

3 The Lahore Conspiracy Case Ordinance, 1930.—On July 11, 1929, the enquiry in the proceedings known as the Lahore Conspiracy case commenced before a Magistrate. Two of the accused had resorted to hunger strike before the commencement of the inquiry. Some of the other accused followed

mult shortly afterwards with the result that by July 28, 1929, the case had to be adjourned owing to some of the accused being unfit to attend the Court. The case had to be successively adjourned on the same ground until September 24. There was another adjournment of the case for the same reason for one month early in 1930.

To meet this state of affairs the present Ordinance was promulgated on May 1, 1930. It had the effect of instructing the trial of this case to a tribunal to be constituted by the Chief Justice of the High Court of Judicature at Lahore and consisting of three Judges of the High Court (s. 4). The tribunal was invested with special powers to dispose with the attendance of any accused for such period as it thought fit and to proceed with the trial in his absence in certain cases e.g. where the accused rendered himself incapable of appearing before the tribunal or resisted his production before it (s. 9). The judgment of the tribunal was final (s. 11).

4. The Sholapur Martial Law Ordinance, 1930.—During the outbreaks of disorder that took place in Sholapur city in the early part of May 1930 the military, at the request of the civil authorities undertook, on May 12 the duty of restoring law and order. The Government of Bombay endorsed this action and moved the Government of India for the promulgation of an ordinance to regulate the administration of martial law. This ordinance, promulgated on May 15, 1930, and declared in Sholapur at 8.30 p.m. on May 15, 1930, empowered the military authorities to make regulation for administering martial law in Sholapur and provided for other matters concerned therewith. It validated the action taken by the military from May 12 to May 13. The effect of the ordinance is considered at length by full bench of the Bombay High Court in *Emperor v. Channappa* (32 Bom L. R. 1613).

5. The Prevention of Intimidation Ordinance, 1930.—From the beginning of the Civil Disobedience Movement the programme of the All India Congress Committee was to use the methods of picketing for the purpose of preventing the sale of foreign goods or liquor. The present ordinance promulgated on May 30, 1930, was directed against the pursuit of this object by means amounting to molestation of individuals. Molestation is defined in s. 3 [In interpreting this definition the Bombay High Court has held in *Emperor v. Sakinabai Lubman* (32 Bom L. R. 1506) that peaceful picketing does not amount to molestation]. Provision was also made by the ordinance to safeguard public servants against the attempt to deprive them by means of boycott of the ordinary requirements of daily life (ss. 7 and 8).

6 The Unlawful Intimidation Ordinance, 1930.—This Ordinance, promulgated on May 30, 1930, was directed against the declared intention of the All India Congress Committee to inaugurate a no-tax campaign by non-payment of specified taxes in certain provinces. The ordinance invested the local Governments, as necessity arose, with powers to deal with persons who instigated others to withhold the payment of certain lawfully due, i.e., land revenue,

tax rates, cess and rent of agricultural land. Section 2 empowers Local Governments to declare notified areas and notified liabilities for the purposes of the ordinance. Unlawful legislation to the non-payment of notified liability is punishable with imprisonment which may extend to six months or with fine or with both (s 3).

7 The Unauthorized News-sheets and News-papers Ordinance, 1930—After the issue of the Indian Press Ordinance 1930, attempts were made to defeat its provisions by the issue of bulletins and news sheets produced by cyclo style and other simple processes. The present Ordinance was promulgated on July 2 1930 to check the output of these bulletins and news-sheets. It gave power to a police officer to forfeit copies of such news sheets and of news papers which had not complied with the provisions of the Press Ordinance (s 4) and also to forfeit the machines other than declared presses on which they were produced (s 5).

8 The Martial Law Ordinance 1930—On the night of the 7-8th of August 1930 numerous armed gangs of Adivis collected in tribal territory on the western and south western sides of the Peshawar district and crossed the border and penetrated into the district. They took shelter in the thickly wooded belt of gardens and orchards which surround Peshawar City and cantonment and made several attempts in arms to enter the city and cantonment by night. The Local authorities, civil and military represented the insufficiency of their powers under the ordinary law to deal with this menace, and asked for the proclamation of martial law in the Peshawar district. This Ordinance, which

brought martial law into force in the Peshawar district, was promulgated on August 15 1930. It empowered the General Officer Commanding Northern Command to make regulations for administering martial law in the area under martial law and to delegate his powers in this and all other respects. Offences under the ordinance were made triable by the ordinary criminal Courts (s 8). The Courts are however deprived of the power to impose sentence of whipping (s 10). The ordinance also provided for the constitution of special Courts if necessity for these arose (s 17). Any sentence of death passed by the special tribunal is appealable (s 25). An appeal also lies from sentences of transportation or for a term exceeding two years passed by special Magistrates (s 30). Provision is also made for the constitution of summary Courts (ss 32-35) and military Courts (s 37).

9 The Unlawful Association Ordinance, 1930—To check the activities of the various organisations through which effect was given to the programme of the Civil Disobedience Movement, these organisations were declared unlawful associations under s 15 of the Indian Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1908. The provisions of this Act, however, did not enable the authorities to take possession of the buildings and other property used for the purposes of these associations declared unlawful. The present ordinance, promulgated on October 10, 1930 empowered the Local Governments to take measures for the occupation of immovable property and for the forfeiture in certain conditions of moveable property used for the purposes of any association declared to be unlawful under the Criminal Law Amendment Act.

India and the League of Nations.

India is a founder Member of the League of Nations and enjoys in it equal rights with other Member-States, a position which she mainly owes to the goodwill shown towards her advancement and aspirations by Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions of the British Empire. The League of Nations was established under the terms of the Peace Treaty which was signed in Paris in 1918 after the conclusion of the Great War. Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions in 1917 passed a resolution which set India upon the road that led to the high international platform on which she stepped. India's representation at Imperial Conferences started in 1917. In that year His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner Lord (then Sir James) Weston and the late Lord (then Sir F.P.) Sinha, were appointed to assist the Secretary of State for India who was India's principle representative. A resolution passed by the Imperial Conference in 1907, specially confined the conference to His Majesty's Government and the Governments of the Self-Governing Dominions beyond the Seas.

Prior to 1917 there were (annual) Conferences as they were then called in 1887 1897 1902 and 1907, and the first Imperial Conference was held in 1911 in pursuance of the resolution of 1907 just mentioned. The Secretary of State for India attended the formal opening meeting of the Conference in 1897 but in 1897 and 1902 he neither attended nor was represented. In 1907 a nominee of the Secretary of State was permitted to attend the meetings not as a member of the conference, nor as the representative of India but on behalf of the India Office and with a view to the representation of Indian interest. In 1911 the Secretary of State was present at a meeting, but India herself had no recognised place in the conference. Sir Robert Borden, Premier of Canada at the 1917 conference at which Indian representatives for the first time attended moved the following resolution which was unanimously adopted—
The Imperial War Conference desires to place on record its view that the resolution of the Imperial Conference of April 26th 1907 should be modified to permit of India being fully

represented at all future Imperial Conferences and that necessary steps should be taken to secure the assent of the various Governments in order that the next Imperial Conference may be summoned and constituted accordingly. The object of this resolution was to enable India to be represented at future sittings with the same right of speech and vote as was accorded to representatives of the other participating Governments. The Secretary of State for India in a statement in reply to a question in the House of Commons on 23rd May, 1917 said that its acceptance marked an immense advance in the position of India with the Empire and admitted the Government of India to full partnership in the councils of the Empire with the Self-Governing Dominions.

India was represented at the Imperial War Conference of 1918 at the Imperial Conferences held in London in 1921, 1923 and 1926, and at the Imperial Economic Conference held in London in 1930. The report of the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee of the Imperial Conference, which was adopted by the Conference of 1926 stated the position of Great Britain and the Dominions to be autonomous communities equal in status in no way subordinate to one another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. India is not yet a Self-Governing Dominion to the extent indicated in this formula. The first stage in the direction of establishing Responsible Government in India was prescribed by the Government of India Act, 1919 but the Governor-General of India does not yet (to quote again from the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee) hold in all essential respects the same position in relation to the administration of public affairs in India as is held by His Majesty the King Emperor in Great Britain. And there are certain other respects in which India's constitutional position in the Empire is not the same as that of the Self-Governing Dominions. India for example is not entitled to accredit a Minister Plenipotentiary to the Heads of Foreign States.

The position enjoyed by India in the Empire governed the position which she entered when as one of the States of the Empire she joined in the Paris Peace Negotiations in 1918. India's membership of the League of Nations places her in a unique position among all non self-governing States, Dominions or Colonies throughout the world. She is an original member of the League by virtue of para. 1 of article I of the Covenant by which the League was established. She is the only original member which is not self-governing and in virtue of the restriction under para. 11 of article 1 of the admission of members other than original members, she will, so long as the present constitution of the League endures, remain the only member which is not self-governing.

On questions coming before the League, India has exactly the same rights as any other

Member State. The Secretary of State for India in His Majesty's Government is ultimately responsible for the appointment of Indian delegates and for their instruction but in practice, he and the Government of India act jointly in consultation and agreement with one another. Partly as a result of her membership of the League and partly owing to resolution No. IX adopted by the Imperial War Conference in 1917 recommending *inter alia* recognition of the right of the Dominions and of India to an adequate voice in British foreign policy and foreign relations India has been given the same representation as the Dominions at all international conferences at which the British Empire is represented by a combined Empire Delegation.

As regards commercial agreements with foreign countries India has not the power which the Dominions have to enter into direct negotiations. Since she has no separate diplomatic representation abroad she utilises the Foreign Office machinery but subject to the reservations to the Fiscal Autonomy Convention—under which the Secretary of State refrains from interference in Indian fiscal measures or policy when the Government of India and the Indian Legislature are in agreement—the Government of India could, if they wished, advise the negotiation of separate commercial treaties to suit India's special requirements and such treaties could be concluded signed and ratified in respect of India alone. Ordinarily commercial treaties between the United Kingdom and foreign countries contain a clause enabling other parts of the British Empire including India to adhere to them at their option. The formula adopted is as follows—Stipulations of the present treaty shall not be applicable to India or to any of His Britannic Majesty's Self-Governing Dominions, Colonies or Possessions or Protectorates unless notice is given by His Britannic Majesty's representative at the desire of His Britannic Majesty that the said stipulation shall apply to any such territory.

It will be observed that the situation created by India's stepping from the Imperial Conference into the Paris Peace Conference and League of Nations in the manner in which she did was in certain respects highly anomalous and one impossible to harmonise with her constitutional position as defined in the Government of India Act. Nevertheless as the Secretary of State, in a Memorandum presented to the Indian Statutory Commission by the India Office in 1929, showed, it has been the deliberate object of the Secretary of State to make India's new status a reality for practical purposes within widest possible limits. It was not legally possible for the Secretary of State to relinquish his constitutional power of control nor, consistently with responsibility to Parliament could he delegate it. But it has been his constant endeavour to restrict its exercise to a minimum to keep even its existence as far as possible in the background, and to allow to the Indian Government the

reatest possible freedom of action under the influence of their Legislature and of public opinion.

There are available many illustrations of these principles being followed in practice. India is given scope to pursue in the League of Nations an independent line of action within very wide limits even though as has occurred in some instances it brings her into conflict with His Majesty's Government. In the event of such conflict within those limits the Secretary of State acts if he acts at all, as head of the Government of India rather than as a member of His Majesty's Government. He does not use his power to impose on the Indian Delegation an artificial solidarity with British Delegates, but rather with the consent of his colleagues of His Majesty's Government he stands aside and allows representatives of India the same freedom as Dominion Delegates would enjoy in controversy with the Delegates of Great Britain. India has participated in all the Assemblies of the League in the annual session of the International Labour Conference and in numerous Conferences on special subjects held under the auspices of the League as well as in some important non-League international conferences including the Washington Conference on Naval Armaments in 1921, the Geneva Economic Conference in 1922 and the International Naval Conference held in London in 1930. India is also represented on several permanent League bodies, e.g. the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, the Advisory Committee on Opium and Drugs, the Economic Committee, the Health Committee and the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation.

The personnel of the Indian Delegates has from the outset largely been Indian in race though owing to the constitutional organization of the Indian administration it has frequently been necessary for her to be represented by

Englishmen. This has especially been the case when specialized experts were required. The Indian character of the personnel has as rapidly as possible been increased and in 1929 the Indian Delegation to the annual Assembly of the League was for the first time led by an Indian (The Hon. ble Sir Mohammed Habibullah, Member for Education, Health and Lands in the Executive Council of His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor General).

The Secretary of State in his Memorandum to the Statutory Commission Party wrote—India's membership of the League has had the effect of stimulating her national self-consciousness and has laid the foundations of an informed public interest in international affairs.

India's representatives have not confined themselves merely to the role of spectators, but have played a prominent part in many of the meetings which they have attended. She has fully justified her position as a separate Member of the League by her co-operation in the economic and social spheres which form so large a part of its activities. But in certain questions where special Indian interests are involved the Indian Delegation can and does take an independent line, and may even find itself in opposition to other parts of the Empire.

But sometimes on non-political questions the British and Indian Delegations have remained in opposite camps. On such questions when special Indian interests are at stake India's right of independent action extends to speaking and voting against the views advanced on behalf of His Majesty's Government. Lord Reading in a note at the end of his Viceroyalty stated his conclusion that the system of consultation between the Secretary of State and the Government of India had worked satisfactorily and that the Government of India without any deflection of its problematical rights, already in practice obtained all the advantages which it might claim.

Labour in India.

During previous years very little authentic information was available regarding Labour in India, and the sections dealing with this question in *The Indian Year Book* were more or less confined to a description of the main Acts in Labour Legislation in India and to such information as could be gleaned from the official Reports of the administration of these Acts and from the Reports published of Enquiries conducted by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay. With the appointment of a Royal

Commission on Labour in India all Provincial Governments and Railways, and many of the larger labour-employing organisations and Associations of such organisations have made enquiries into labour conditions in their respective territories and jurisdictions and have compiled fairly comprehensive Memoranda for submission to the Royal Commission. Many of these Memoranda have been published, and contain a fund of the most valuable information possible. No one could, of course, be made of

such information as the Governments and others submitting these Memoranda desire to keep confidential. But where descriptions are given of existing conditions which must be known to large bodies of persons in the respective localities concerned and which could easily be obtained by any person enquiring into them, use

has been made of them and every endeavour has been made to make this section as complete as possible by the presentation of essential facts. The Editors of *The Indian Year Book* gratefully acknowledge the sources which have been made use of in the compilation of this note.

GROWTH OF THE LABOUR PROBLEM

India is and has always been a pre-eminent and predominantly agricultural country and 72.98 per cent. of her people are dependent on the soil for their livelihood. Except in a comparatively few cases there is no settled and permanent labour force in most industrial centres in India. The vast majority of industries draw the labour they require from the village—labour which seldom breaks its contact with village life and periodically returns to renew its associations with it. This fact cannot be too strongly emphasised. If it is lost sight of it would be most difficult to understand how large bodies of comparatively low paid men and women can afford to participate in strikes involving complete stoppage of work and loss in wages for periods of half a year. Such strikes would be impossible if Indian industrial labour did not have agriculture to fall back upon as a subsidiary occupation during periods of prolonged industrial disputes.

The emergence of Indian industrial labour as such may be considered to be associated with the year 1880. Its growth and development since that date may be divided for purposes of broad generalisation into four periods: (1) from 1880 to 1915, (2) from 1916 to 1921, (3) from 1922 to 1927, and (4) from 1928 to the present day. The first period marks the growth of factory development with a slow but steady decline in cottage industries. The total number of cotton mills in India rose from 53 to 264 and the number of persons employed from 40,000 to 230,000. The total number of jute mills rose from 22 to 66 and the number of persons employed from 27,000 to 216,000. There was a vast expansion in railways and many new industries were established. Labour was immobile (migrants in agricultural pursuits were extremely low commodities) were comparatively cheap, and industrialists were able to get all the labour they wanted by tapping the adjacent villages at any rates of wages they liked to offer so long as they were higher than those which could be earned by work in the fields. Both the men and the women employed were considered to be a part of the plant of the factory, child labour was exploited, and little thought was given to the human element behind the worker. Hours of work were excessive, no amenities were provided because the only thing that the worker was expected to do was to work, eat and sleep. The provision of housing was a necessary evil which had to be provided where factories were situated away from towns. The Factories Act was modelled more on the lines of providing against loss of life due to accident rather than from the grinding work which a factory worker was expected to do. The humanitarian employer was considered to be a pest who would ruin industry and all that industrialists thought of was the greatest return which could be obtained from the capital invested.

The second period emerged soon after the outbreak of war. Large contingents of Indian troops were sent overseas, and had to be supplied with adequate clothing and the munitions of war. Imports of manufactured articles into India were restricted owing to the bulk of the available British tonnage in ships having been commandeered for transport of men and materials to the various seats of war. Heavy demands were made by the belligerent countries for raw products. India secured the opportunity which also had been looking for for generations. Her credit expanded, her industries thrived and the returns on capital invested in every branch of trade and industry became phenomenal. Prices soared high. Owing to the influx of large bodies of persons to the towns, housing became hopelessly inadequate and rents rose to such an extent as to call for legislative restrictions. But nobody thought of those who were mainly responsible for the creation of the added wealth of India. Labour was still considered to be that inarticulate part of the plant of the factory which it had always been. The end of the War brought visions of an Utopia. Big commercial and industrial enterprises were floated. Agriculturists were securing high prices for their produce. Labour was in great demand not only in agriculture but also in commerce and industry. The successes which labour met with during the war in demands for increases in rates of wages impelled them to demand further increases with each increase in the cost of living. Where demands were not granted strikes were threatened. The Influenza epidemic of 1918 which swept away large masses of the population of the country created a big gap in the available supply of labour and almost all the strikes of the period for increases in wages were successful owing partly to the necessity for speeding up production and partly to the shortage in the available supply of labour.

The gradual demobilisation of the Armies of the War and the closing up of the various Munitions Works disbanded millions of men and women who rapidly spent the savings secured during the War. The pre-war industries in the belligerent countries could not be reorganised at once. The spectre of unemployment loomed large. Credit fell. With the fall in credit the demand for manufactured articles declined and prices began to show a marked downward tendency. The year 1922 may be considered as the beginning of this period of reaction and depression and the beginning of the third period in the history of Indian industrial labour. Labour all over the world demanded an improvement in the conditions of life and work. The creation of an International Organisation to deal with all questions connected with labour from an Inter-

national point of view and the commitment of India as one of the signatories to the Treaty of Versailles to the ratification and acceptance, as far as possible, of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference have made it obligatory for her to fall into line with the other industrial countries of the world in ameliorating the conditions of labour. The beginning of this period therefore saw a radical revision of the existing Factory Law by an Amending Act passed early in 1922. The existing Indian Mines Act was replaced by another Act of 1922 during which year a Workmen's Compensation Act was also passed for the first time. A Trade Union Act was passed in 1926.

The depression in trade and industry which set in in 1922 has continued ever since and it has never been so acute as it is to-day. Various attempts have been made by all classes of industrialists to reduce (1) wages of labour in order to reduce costs of production. Co-ordinated action taken by the Ahmedabad Mill owners Association to reduce the wages of operatives in the Ahmedabad cotton mills by 20 per cent with effect from the 1st April 1923 was successful to the extent of an eventual cut of 15.625 per cent being agreed to after a general strike lasting more than two months. A similar attempt made by the Bombay Mill owners Association in 1925 to reduce wages by 11½ per cent was, however, frustrated by a strike lasting for nearly three months which was eventually settled on the removal of the Excise Duty of 3½ per cent on cotton manufactures in India by a Special Ordinance issued by the Governor-General in Council. Similar attempts made in individual concerns in the Districts succeeded mainly for want of effective combination among the workers. No other organised attempts were made to effect reductions in wages. There were several reasons for this. The most important reason was that after the period of the decline in prices had set in after 1920 real wages in comparison with the standard of life of the year 1914, began to improve and labour was determined not to let go the advantage gained in the struggles immediately following the end of the War. This period was one in which a considerable number of Acts in connection with labour were placed on the Statute Book. In addition to these the Government of India had asked Provincial Governments to consider proposals for legislation with regard to prompter payment of wages. The enquiries held in 1926-27 into the question of Deductions from Wages or Payments in respect of fines indicated legislation on the lines of the Truck Acts. It was becoming obvious to the Industrial Employer that Government were most anxious to do all they could to improve labour conditions in India. The employers, as a whole, therefore, did not desire to precipitate matters by insisting on reduction in wages. It was imperative however that something should be done, and done quickly to reduce costs of production. The only way to do this without reducing wages was to ask the worker to do more work during the existing hours of employment so as to enable the employer to dispense with a number of workers and thus to reduce his Wages Bill.

The fourth period beginning with the year 1928 therefore saw the advent of Rationalisation as efficient methods of working. Employers particularly those in Bombay city or prepared to ask workers to mind more machines in return for a compensatory increase in wages. Some advanced firms controlling cotton mill agencies actually introduced various efficiency measures in their mills. The introduction of these measures necessitated reductions in the numbers employed. The beginning of this period coincided with the entry of the Communists into the Trade Union movement in India.

When the so-called Labour Group of the Indian National Congress failed to obtain acceptance of their ideas by the Congress, they formed in January 1927 a **Workers and Peasants Party** one of whose objects was to promote the organisation of trade unions and to wrest them from their alien control. Communist emissaries were sent out to India by the Third International to further war against imperialism, the destruction of capital and the creed of revolution. The Workers and Peasants Party started a paper called the *Krant* (Revolution) in May 1927 which however had to cease publication at the end of the year owing to financial difficulties. The members of the Party took an active part in the strike of the operatives in the cotton mills in the Sassoon group early in 1928 but their attempts to bring about a general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay failed owing to the opposition of the Bombay Textile Labour Union which had been formed by Mr N. M. Joshi in January 1928. When another great group of mills in Bombay under the agency of Messrs. Currimbhoy Khabin and Sons sought to introduce efficient methods of work the Communists saw their opportunity. All the operatives of the Currimbhoy group were brought out on the 16th April 1928 and the Communists, with the help of the turbulent elements in the industry brought about a complete stoppage of work by picketing intimidation and stone throwing in all other mills in Bombay (except two mills at Colaba) by the 26th April. Owing to internal dissensions in another Union of cotton mill workers called the *Girni Kamgar Mahamandal* they secured the support of Mr A. A. Alwa, its President and formed a new Union called the **Bombay Girni Kamgar Union** on the executive of which several prominent Communists were appointed. The Communists revived the publication of their paper the *Krant* and they were successful, by holding almost daily meetings at which revolutionary speeches were delivered and by the publication of hand bills in capturing the imagination of the workers and keeping the strike going for a period of nearly six months. They also took an active part in the prolonged strikes of the same year in the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur and in the workshops of the Bengal Nagpur Railway at Kharagpur. They actively associated themselves with the strike on the South Indian Railway and they secured an entry into several Unions connected with Municipalities, Port Trusts and other Public Utility Services. After the calling off of the General Strike in the Bombay Mills on the 6th October 1928 they endeavoured to paralyse the cotton

mill industry in Bombay by calling several lightning strikes in individual mills on the flimsiest of pretexts even though the terms of the settlement of that strike required that all disputes between the employers and employed on the interpretation of the terms of agreement should be referred to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee which had been appointed by the Government of Bombay to express opinions on the matters in contention.

Bombay has seen few riots and disturbances of the type which broke out in the City on the 3rd February 1929 and which resulted in the death of 149 persons and the destruction of property. The *Strike Enquiry Committee* appointed by the Government of Bombay found that the origin of the riots was the series of inflammatory speeches delivered by certain leaders of the Girmil Kamgar Union during the General Mill Strike of 1928 and again during the Bombay Oil Strike which lasted from the 7th December 1928 till after the date of the riots.

In 1929 the Girmil Kamgar Union succeeded in calling another General Strike in the Bombay Mills on questions connected with dismissals which they interpreted as a direct attack by the Millowners to undermine the Union. The strike although not so complete in character as the strike of 1928 nevertheless lasted from 26th April to 18th September 1929 and was called off only when the Court of Enquiry appointed by the Government of Bombay under the Trade Disputes Act had reported in unequivocal terms that the whole blame for this strike lay with the Bombay Girmil Kamgar Union. But the Communist group was able to capture the Indian Trade Union Congress at the 11th Session held in Karypur and to force the moderate elements, consisting of Messrs Diwan Chaman Lal, N. M. Joshi, B. Shiva Rao, V. V. Giri, B. R. Bakhale etc. to secede from the Congress on that body passing resolutions boycotting the Royal Commission on Labour in India and the International Labour Conference, by appointing the Workmen's Welfare League a Communist organisation in England as their Agents for Great Britain, and the declaration of independence and the establishment of a Socialist Republican Government of the Working Classes in India.

It is of importance to lay stress on the problems connected with the Communist masses in India. It is true to a great extent that the basic factors underlying the several big strikes which have occurred during the period commencing with the year 1928 were partly economic in character, but they were, at the same time, such as could have been suitably adjusted by organised effort and friendly discussions between the representatives of the employers and the employed. The existence of grievances which, it must be admitted, were bona fide in many cases, have given the Communists the great opportunity for which they have been waiting. The object of the Communists is not so much the welfare of labour as the spread of revolution. Their ultimate aim is the destruction of capital and the replacement of the established Government by a dictatorship of the proletariat. The manner in which they

can achieve this is by penetrating trade unions by calling strikes in industries by unduly prolonging them by putting up strings of preposterous and absurd demands by refusing conciliation or arbitration and by sending masses of workers settling with discontent into the districts to preach their gospel of class hatred and class war to the ignorant masses in the villages of India. Fortunately for the industry many of the avowed Communists are awaiting their trial at Meysat or are in jail. Some of them have now been released from jail and are making frantic efforts to regain their hold on labour unions. But luckily the good sense of the workers has now begun to prevail and they are allowing little or no quarter to them. The Girmil Kamgar Union has already repudiated the leadership of one of its former Communist leaders and the G. I. P. Railway Union is doing likewise in the case of one of its former heroes.

Royal Commission on Indian Labour

The British Government in consultation with the Government of India appointed on 24th May, 1929, a Royal Commission to enquire into and report on existing conditions of labour in industrial undertakings and plantations in British India on health efficiency and standard of living of workers and on relations between employers and employed and to make recommendations. The Royal Commission consists of the Right Honourable Mr. J. H. Witley as Chairman with the Rt. Hon. Mr. Srinivasa Sastry, P. C. Sir Alexander Murray, Kt. C.M.G., Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola, Kt. C.M.G., C.I.E., Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., Dewan Chaman Lal, M.L.A., Miss Beryl M. Le Power, Deputy Chief Inspector Trade Boards England and Messrs N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., A. G. Clow, C.I.E., F.C.S., G. D. Birla, M.L.A., Kabeer ud-din Ahmed, M.T.A. and John Cliff, Assistant General Secretary Transport and Railway Workers Union England as members and with Messrs B. Lal, I.C.S. and A. Dibrin from the India Office, London, as Joint Secretaries. Mr. J. H. Green, M.B.E., is Assistant Secretary. Lt. Col. A. J. H. Russell, C.M.G., I.M.S., was subsequently appointed as a Medical Assessor and Mr. B. E. Deshpande, B. Litt. (Oxon), Senior Investigator of the Labour Office, Government of Bombay was appointed as a Statistician to the Commission. The Commission arrived in India on the 11th October 1929 and after visiting several places in India and examining several representatives of the Central and Provincial Governments, the Railways and Associations of Employers and Employed left for England on the 22nd March 1930. The Commission returned on the 11th of October 1930 and after touring Ceylon and Burma, went to Delhi in November. They are at present engaged in writing their Report which, it is expected, will be ready in April next.

The Royal Commission will no doubt make several important recommendations. They have already shown the lines on which many of their recommendations will be made by their close and searching enquiries into the possibilities of devising Unemployment and Sickness Insurance Schemes, the creation by the Central and Provincial Governments of Departments of

Industrial Relations, and the expansion of measures to ameliorate the conditions of industrial labour by the extension of welfare work provision of adequate and sanitary housing and the introduction of measures to protect the health of the workers and their safety from accidents

Industrial Workers in India.

In 1922 India obtained recognition by the League of Nations as one of the eight chief Industrial States in the world. The grounds on which this claim was based are stated in the Memorandum prepared by the India Office which gave the following figures to illustrate the industrial importance of the country —

28 000 000 agricultural work (excluding peasant proprietors), 141 000 maritime

workers lascars, etc., a figure second only to that for the United Kingdom, over 20 000 000 workers in industries including cottage industries, mines and transport, railway mileage in excess of that in every country except the United States

It is impossible to say how far and to what extent the figures given above hold good to-day. The Railways of India alone offer employment to very nearly a million workers. The number of workers employed in Plantations according to the 1921 Census amounted to over three quarters of a million. The latest figures for the numbers employed in factories are those available in the All India Report for Factories for 1928 which are reproduced in Summary Form in the tables given below —

Growth of Factories

Year	Number of Factories	Average Daily Number of Persons Employed
1921	4 009	1,266 396
1922	5 144	1,361 002
1923	5,980	1 409,173
1924	6,406	1,455 592
1925	6 920	1,494 958
1926	7 251	1 518,391
1927	7 515	1,532,382
1928	7,863	1 520 315

Age and Sex Distribution of Factory Labour

Year	Men	Women	Children	Total
1921	1 010 546	187 596	68 113	1 266,396
1922	1,086,457	206 887	67 658	1 361,002
1923	1,113 508	221 045	74 620	1 409,173
1924	1 147 739	230 192	72 521	1 455,592
1925	1 178 719	247 114	68,725	1 494 958
1926	1 205 628	249 669	60 094	1,518,391
1927	1 222 662	253,158	57 562	1,532 382
1928	1 216 471	258 931	50 911	1 520 415

Statistics for 1928

Province	Number of Factories	Average Daily Number of Persons Employed
Madras	1,393	136,973
Bombay	1 498	356,088
Bengal	1 348	571 079
United Provinces	338	86 531
Punjab	650	61,818
Burma	968	101,586
Hihar and Orissa	281	68,100
Central Provinces and Berar	756	70,160
Assam	600	47,842
North West Frontier Province	24	854
Baluchistan	6	1,241
Ajmer Merwara	35	14,371
Cochi	57	10 443
Bangalore and Coorg	15	2 929
Total	7 863	1,520,315

Enumeration of Factories in 1928

Province	Govern- ment and Local Fund	TEXTILES					Glass and Presses	Engi- neering Metals	Chemi- cals and Dyes	Paper and Printing Glass	Skins and Hides	Miscel- laneous Others		
		Cotton Spinning and Weaving	Jute	Woolen	Silk	Miscella- neous								
Madras	32	21	4		2	7	369	63	15	28	52	65	11	724
Bombay	67	192		4	3	9	698	132	14	104	81	24	4	166
Bengal	66	15	86		2	15	125	197	9	112	76	37	7	591
United Provinces	47	18			3	2	102	33	9	28	20	10	6	57
Punjab	36	4				1	348	15	28	12	37	9	1	66
Burma	13	1			2		30	47	20	30	21	147		839
Bihar and Orissa	29		1				6	27	11	99	8	11	1	98
Central Provinces and Berar	11	15					615	18		33	7	11		48
Assam	3						1	12	2	11		11		566
North West Fron- tier Province	15						3							5
Baluchistan	8													2
Ajmer Merwara		5					23	4	1		1			1
Delhi	7	4						3		3	11	8		14
Bangalore and Coorg						1		3			5			6
All India—Total	329	276	91	9	8	20	2,315	535	121	430	319	348	32	2,903

Average Number of Persons Employed in Factories in 1928

Province	Govern- ment and Local Fund	TEXTILES					Glass and Presses	Engi- neering	Minerals and Metals	Chemi- cals and Dyes	Paper and Printing Glass	Wood, Stone and Glass	Skins and Hides	Miscel- laneous Others
		Cotton Spinning and Weaving	Jute	Wool len	SILK	Miscella- neous								
Madras	6,627	80,628	6,815		326	648	19,268	22,980	1,821	1,244	4,360	7,507	1,884	34,321
Bombay	27,206	219,428		2,166	1,244	1,170	49,248	28,677	735	14,201	6,893	1,655	311	5,149
Bengal	44,469	18,767	331,899		410	917	37,868	66,671	10,960	14,882	11,158	5,111	709	33,218
United Provinces	24,388	27,292		2,486	38	80	9,802	6,779	229	3,022	2,839	1,452	2,817	9,676
Punjab	18,803	1,084		1,128		80	27,329	891	1,246	645	1,876	1,337	38	3,049
Bihar	3,329	484					3,877	14,489	15,945	3,632	1,431	14,663		43,536
Orissa	16,044		801				491	6,747	21,868	5,564	961	2,704	46	17,864
Central Provinces & Berar	3,041	19,389					39,251	1,585		1,778	299	3,241		1,476
Assam	316						46	1,809	909	683		1,134		43,240
North West Fron- tier Province	673						95	18						68
Baluchistan	1,141													100
Ajmer Merwara		2,097					2,277	10,355	17		113			14
Delhi	1,616	7,011						51	357	88	346	129		551
Bangalore and Coorg						14		810			127			2,482
All India Total	147,806	917,780	338,636	6,654	2,078	2,766	189,413	157,366	53,577	45,064	80,703	38,909	5,808	190,764

MIGRATION

The industrial centres in India are not able to supply the necessary labour that is required for industrial undertakings and there is consequently a considerable amount of migration from other parts of India to such centres. The extent of this migration is given in detail in Chapter III, Vol. I. Report of the Census of India for 1921, as follows:—The labour reserves are found chiefly among the lower classes of the centre and south of the country. The centre supplies the tea plantations and mining industries of the Eastern provinces the south meets the southern industrial demand, and the bulk of the Burmah and overseas demand while the more technical industries in the cities of the Western provinces are supplied chiefly from the neighbouring agricultural tracts.

Among these provinces and States which attract a larger number of emigrants from other provinces and States are Assam Bengal Burma, Bombay Mysore, Central Provinces and Berar and Punjab and Delhi. According to the 1921 Census there were nearly a million and a quarter immigrants in Assam as against 75,000 emigrants in Bengal there were more than a million and three-fourths immigrants as against about a quarter of a million emigrants. Bombay gained a little over a million but sent out 568,000 to the other provinces. The population figures for Central Provinces and Berar and Punjab and Delhi shows number of immigrants amounting to more than 600,000 in each case. The number of emigrants from the Central Provinces and Berar amounted to a little more than 400,000 and from Punjab and Delhi to half a million. In all these cases industrial and other employers were not able to recruit their requirements from their own territories. The position, however, is vastly different in the case of Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces Madras, Rajputana and to a small extent Hyderabad (Deccan). The number of emigrants from Bihar and Orissa amounted to nearly two million as against 387,000 immigrants with a net loss of over a million and a half to the province. In the case of the United Provinces there were 1,400,000 emigrants as against a little over 400,000 immigrants with a net loss of nearly a million. Madras lost nearly a quarter of a million and Rajputana 82,000.

Within the Provinces—It is neither necessary nor feasible to deal with the various streams of migration between districts and districts of the same province or within a district. These movements vary according to times and seasons, but it may be useful to show the extent to which and the sources from which some of the more important industrial centres draw their labour force.

In Bombay according to the Census Report for the year 1921 the percentage of the total population which had actually been born in the City has steadily declined at each census. In 1873 the percentage of the persons born in Bombay to total population was 31.1 in 1891 25 in 1911 19.6 and in 1921, 16. An important point however, to remember in considering these figures is the fact that, whenever possible, workers send their wives to their native places

for purposes of confinement. Many of those returned in the Census as having been born outside the city are not really fresh immigrants in the strictest sense of the term because they are the off-spring of the parents already residing in the city. According to the figures given in the 1921 Census Report for the numbers of immigrants into Bombay city it is seen that 235,566 or 20 per cent of a total population of 1,176,914 came from the Bhatnagar District. Poona district supplied 89,231, Kathiawar 72,485 and Satara 65,953. Among the provinces which contribute to the population of Bombay City the United Provinces comes first with 70,911. The sex ratio is only 925 females to 1,000 males as compared with a ratio in the Presidency as a whole of 919 females to 1,000 males. The figure of 52.2 for Bombay City may be compared with a big non-industrial city of Poona where the figure is 912. In a recent enquiry made by the Labour Office into the length of service of mill workers which covered 1,400 millhands it was found that not one of them had been born in Bombay City, 63 per cent were born in the Konkan and 27 per cent in the Deccan the remainder coming from different parts of the country.

Certain figures regarding birthplaces of the workers in Ahmedabad were obtained during the Family Budget Investigation conducted there by the Labour Office in the year 1926. These figures together with those obtained at the Census of 1921 and enquiries made from Mill Officers and the Labour Union officials at Ahmedabad show that the cotton mill workers of Ahmedabad come from different places in the proportion of 20 per cent from the City itself, 25 per cent from the Ahmedabad district excluding the City 20 per cent from Baroda State 10 per cent from Rajputana, 10 per cent from the Gujarat Division excluding the above 5 per cent each from Kathiawar the Deccan and the Konkan combined and from other places including the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, Madras etc.

In Solapur the labour force is mainly local and it is immigrant to a very small extent. The figures collected as a result of the Family Budget Enquiry conducted by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay in that centre in the year 1925 show that 60 per cent of cotton mill workers in the City were born in Solapur 32 per cent in the Deccan and about 8 per cent in the rest of India.

Calcutta, like Bombay relies on imported labour. But the imported labour there does not come from the same provinces as in Bombay but from other provinces. This is mainly due to three reasons. Firstly, the fertility of the land in Bengal secondly the immobility of labour and lastly the aversion of the average Bengalee to factory work.

The Census figures of 1921 show that just less than a quarter of the inhabitants of Calcutta and the Suburban Municipalities of Calcutta, Manikotah, Tollygunge, the South Suburbs, Garden Reach and Howrah were born in the city while rather less than a quarter or 22.25 per cent were born in the neighbouring areas of 25 Parganas and Howrah, and that rather more than half were born further afield.

Nearly 35 per cent came from other provinces Bihar and Orissa supplied nearly one in five and the United Provinces one in ten of the total population of the City 183 females accompanied every 1,000 males from Bihar and Orissa, 327 to 1,000 from the United Provinces and 813 females to every 1,000 males from Madras. In the other mill towns of Bengal only about one-fifth of the total population was born in the area surrounding the towns. In Titagarh a compact manufacturing area no less than 90 per cent of the inhabitants were born outside Bengal. The figures for the number of females to 1,000 males in Calcutta were 552 in 1872, 566 in 1881, 528 in 1891, 507 in 1901, 475 in 1911 and 470 in 1921. This is very largely due to the influx of single male workers who have left their families behind.

The position of Jamshedpur in many respects is unique in India. What was a dense jungle a little more than twenty years ago is now a town of over 100,000 inhabitants and a great industrial area. The Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited is not only an employer of labour but is also landlord and provides municipal services. The operatives in the iron and steel works are drawn from every province of India and from a very large number of districts. On the 5th July 1929 out of a total labour force of 15,917 persons employed, 6,190 came from all districts in Bihar and Orissa, 1,810 from the United Provinces, 2,076 from Bengal, 1,327 from the Central Provinces, 1,482 from the Punjab and the North West Frontier Province, 889 from Madras, 319 from Bombay, 275 from Assam and 221 from independent States and foreign countries.

In the Jharia coalfields a committee appointed in 1917 found that 15 per cent of colliery labour was settled and that most of it was Santal labour, 75 per cent came for weeks or months together and lived in *Dhokras* provided in mines and that there was no sign of a labour force divorced from agriculture coming into existence.

Cawnpore, the principal industrial town of the United Provinces is in a very curious position. It not only imports labour for the various industries which are to be found there but also exports it to surrounding districts and to other provinces. Any shortage of labour that it experiences is satisfied from the densely populated districts which surround the city.

The mobility of Indian labour is of considerable advantage to the agricultural population as it helps to relieve the increasing pressure on the land. In India the movement of labour between province and province is entirely unrestricted by Government with the exception of the movement of labour from certain pro-

vinces to eight districts in Assam, viz., Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, Nowgong, Darrang, Kamrup, Golpara, Cachar and Sylhet. These districts are known as labour districts and under the Assam Labour and Emigration Act No. VI of 1921 as amended by Act XI of 1908, Act VIII of 1915, Act XI of 1915, Act XXXVIII of 1920 (Devolution Act) and Act XXXI of 1927 the provinces of Madras, Bengal, the United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam can, by notification in the local official Gazette, prohibit all persons from recruiting, engaging, inducing or assisting any native of India or any specified class of natives of India to emigrate from the whole or any specified part of the province to any labour district or any specified portion of any labour district, either absolutely or otherwise than in accordance with such of the provisions of the Act as may be specified.

The following are the main types of migration of Indian Labour —

- (1) Casual migration consisting of movements between adjacent villages,
- (2) Temporary movements of labour on works of construction or by exigencies of trade or the stress of famine, business journeys, pilgrimages, etc.
- (3) Periodic migration owing to the seasonal demands for agricultural labour,
- (4) Semi-permanent migration when the inhabitants of one place migrate to another for trade but return at intervals to their native place where they sometimes even leave their families and spend their declining years and
- (5) Permanent migration when economic or other reasons have caused a permanent displacement of population.

In the first three cases the emigrants invariably return to their villages. In the fourth and fifth cases the majority of workers return for a short visit after two or three years but there is a considerable minority which has settled down at the industrial centres in which they have worked. Evidence is however overwhelming that owing to the home loving character of the Indian worker he seldom or never breaks his contact with his village home. The number of workmen of rural origin who have severed their connexion with their village and with agriculture is very small and is usually confined to such skilled workers as have left their homes permanently to settle in the important centres of factory industry. As the large majority of workers return home annually or biennially there is little disturbance of family life, except in the case of Assam where the system of recruitment now in force directly encourages the importation of families and women are almost as numerous as men in the residential labour population on the tea estates.

RECRUITMENT OF LABOUR.

The methods adopted for the recruitment of labour in India have received general condemnation even from employers. The Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry) which was appointed by the Government of India in 1925 *inter alia*, to investigate the condition of the cotton textile industry in India with special reference to the industry in Bombay

and Ahmedabad and to make recommendations dealt with the question of recruitment of labour in the following terms —

It was urged in evidence before us, that the system of recruitment of labour in Bombay leaves much to be desired and does not tend to efficiency as it places too much power in the hands of the jobber or foreman who recruits not neces-

early the most efficient man but the one who is willing to pay him the largest commission or in whom he is otherwise interested. The Mill owners' Association, on the other hand whilst admitting that the present system furnishes openings for corruption hold that it is the only possible system in Bombay conditions, as the jobber is in touch with labour to an extent that no official of the mill can possibly be and that it does not necessarily follow that because a jobber produces men, they are engaged by the mill. They further contend that it is not always possible for all vacancies to be filled from the applicants waiting at the mill gates for employment and that, when this is the case, the only course open is to send out jobbers to the homes of the operatives to collect men. This should however only be necessary in abnormal conditions. We are of opinion that the present system is undoubtedly open to the objection that it places too much power in the hands of the jobber and that it is desirable that all labour should be engaged directly by the officer of the mill in charge of the department which requires it or by a responsible assistant. This we were told was the practice in Ahmedabad and in most of the up-country centres we visited and we see no reason why it should not be followed in Bombay.

Recruitment, except in the case of special apprentices and higher paid workers employed on railways, is effected either through Sardars (Recruiters) or Contractors, or direct at the mill or factory gates. The difficulties in connexion with recruitment are due (1) to the want of a stable labour force at any particular town or centre, (2) to the general illiteracy of the Indian labourer, and (3) to the inherent attachment of the worker taking up industrial employment to his village life and home.

The contractor is sent out to overcome the innate conservatism of the Indian peasant. He is helped in his work by the poverty and indebtedness of the peasant and also by occasional bad harvests, but in addition he not infrequently indulges in fraud and misrepresentation by painting a rosy picture of the future that awaits the peasant in a town with its crowded bazaar and other amusements, which are absent in the village. The essence of the system is the payment of an advance to the prospective labourer in order to enable him to free himself from his pecuniary difficulties. The contractor retains some form of control over his recruits and takes good care to recover the amount of the advance together with the interest, which is generally calculated at an exorbitant rate. Generally, the employers do not deal directly with the labourers recruited by a contractor. The latter is paid a lump-sum from which he pays his men and retains a portion for himself. In the Central Provinces, however, it is reported that labour is actually purchased from private contractors at so much per head. The system of recruitment by contractors is most in use in Burma, owing to the scarcity of labour in that province and the necessity of recruitment from distant places. Practically all the unskilled labourers in most of the mills in Burma are mistry coolies, i.e., coolies who are recruited and paid by the employers' labour contractors or mistries. The general practice is for the employer to enter into a contract with a mistry for the supply of unskilled labour for the various operations carried on in the mills. In most

contracts, no mention is made of the number of workmen required the mistry agrees to supply labour as and when required at the piece-rates laid down in the contract. Sometimes the contractor sublets his contract to another person who may even be unknown to the employer. The person who arranges for the supply of labour at the mills is known as the head mistry, and the work is executed through sub-mistries who pay premia to the head mistry for the privilege of getting the work. It is the sub-mistries who either themselves come to India or send their agents to negotiate with prospective recruits. They make the necessary advances and on arrival in Burma their recruits are made to sign promissory notes for sums never less than the total amount spent on them. The payment of advances has become somewhat risky since the repeal of the Workmen's Breach of Contract Act and the system of recruitment through contractors is therefore gradually losing its importance. An increasing number of Indians go to Burma on their own and seek employment independently of mistries. Generally they form themselves into gangs, each of which nominates a leader from among its members. The gang moves about in search of work and its leader usually arrives at an arrangement with a head mistry by which the latter secures work for the gang and pays what is known as *buckheesh* which is first given as a loan but is eventually treated as a gift if the gang remains in service under the head mistry until the close of the busy season. These *buckheesh* coolies are paid at the same rates as the coolies recruited from India.

The method of recruitment through Sardars is also dependent on the payment of advances, which however are made at the cost of the employer. The Sardar is an operative already on work in the mill or plantation and is sent out to recruit labour from among his relations acquaintances or neighbours. He is drawn therefore from the same class as the recruits themselves and can therefore be relied on to deal more fairly with them. Another advantage of this system of recruitment is that the men recruited are insured against unemployment and find work waiting for them at their destination. On the other hand it does not infrequently happen especially in the Tea Gardens in Assam that the Sardar remits persons who are lured away from their homes by prospects of a bright future and who, on arrival find that conditions of work and wages are not so bright as they imagined. It is, however only in plantations that this form of recruitment has been used to any appreciable extent.

The recruitment of labour at the mill gate or at the surface of mines is the form of recruitment which is gradually gaining in importance over the other two methods. The news of the very much higher rates of wages paid in towns (which to the villager sounds fabulous as he has no idea of the higher cost of living) spreads through out the countryside and draws large crowds of would be workers. They are to be found at convenient gathering places on the thoroughfares waiting to be picked up for employment. The older hands also return from their village with groups of friends, relations and neighbours who come in the hope of finding employment in the mills. But the ignorance, simplicity and poverty of the Indian peasant render his exploitation an easy matter. The employer does not

recruit himself the men required for his establishment but holds the overseer, jobber or mukadam responsible for the adequate supply of labour in the department. The latter takes the place of the contractor and exacts bribes from the new recruits. He also acts as a money-lender and thereby reaps a double harvest from the needy labourer. It would appear therefore that education and organisation are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who like harpies are ever ready to prey on them.

In the coalfields in Bihar and Orissa unskilled labour is recruited by means of Sardars. The Sardar visits villages and brings the labour with him and the labour brought by him forms his gang. He has to pay the labour *bachkaseeh* (khormi and travelling expenses and for this purpose he frequently receives advances either from the contractor or from the Company concerned. At the Bhowra colliery advances varying from Rs 2 to Rs. 10 are paid to the recruits in addition to their travelling allowances and food. Such advances are seldom recovered and never if the gang maintains good attendance at work. The Sardar obtains remuneration for his services in various ways. Sometimes he is paid a commission and a salary, but generally he is paid a certain amount on each ton of coal raised by minors working in his gang. Independent recruiters are paid at 9 pies per tub raised. In the Central Provinces the recruiters or mukadams as they are called receive 3 pies per head per week from the individual labourers whom they recruit and wages from the employers.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur maintain an Employment Bureau where skilled and unskilled workers are registered and employed. Applicants for work assemble in a yard and daily requirements are selected by the officer in charge. No outside recruitment is done in the literal sense of the word but in the event of special qualifications being required and no applicants being available the post is advertised in a few leading newspapers.

The methods adopted by different Indian railways for the recruitment of unskilled labour are generally the same as those which obtain in other industries. In the case of workshop men a trade test is generally given and in every case a medical examination has to be gone through. Special apprentices for the higher grades are engaged by all Railways. The terms and conditions attached to apprenticeship in most cases are similar.

Recruitment for Assam.—It has already been stated that the Assam tea industry is the only industry which is controlled in its recruitment of Indian Labour. Other industries, and even the tea industry in the Duars, Darjeeling and Madras Presidency are free from Governmental control. There is a considerable body of opinion in favour of freeing the Assam tea industry from control, but the Indian Tea Association is not only not in favour of this but has definitely urged that Government control should continue. The Association contend that if recruiting were free, abuses would arise as they did in the past from the competitive spending of money to secure labour. There appears little doubt that if control were removed, all the abuses which were associated with the *Arhat* system of recruitment would be revived.

The present system of recruitment is controlled by Act VI of 1901 called the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, as amended by Act XI of 1908, Act VIII of 1915, Act XI of 1915, Act XXXVIII of 1920 (Devolution Act) and Act XXXI of 1927. The Act extends to the Provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, United Provinces, Central Provinces, Madras and Assam. In the Bombay Presidency Act No VI of 1901 is not enforced. There the Government of Bombay have allowed recruitment provided the emigrants are produced before a Magistrate. The most important provision of the Amending Act of 1915 is the abolition of the system of recruitment by contractors and their recruiters, commonly known as *Arhatia*. In all recruiting areas, where the provisions of Act VI of 1901 are in operation except the local areas in which recruitment is prohibited by notification under section 3, recruitment is carried out only through the medium of garden sirdars under the provisions of Chapter IV working under a local agent duly licensed under section 64 of the Act. The only recruiter now recognised is the sirdar who must himself engage the coolies. Any arrangement for the direct supply of coolies to a tea estate by a contractor or for the supply to sirdars of coolies collected through the agency of a contractor or *arhat* would be illegal and would render every person who is a party to such an arrangement liable to prosecution and punishment under section 184 of the Act. Even an employer cannot himself legally engage labour in a recruiting district, he must do so through the agency of his garden sirdars. In the Bombay Presidency, agents other than garden sirdars are allowed.

Latest Statistics.—The Annual Report on the working of the Assam Labour Board during the year ending the 30th June 1929 has been published. The Report shows that the total number of persons recruited during the year was 73,198 as against 39,549 in the previous year. The average number of recruits per sirdar was 1.63 as compared with 99 for the year ending 30th June 1928. This very favourable recruitment during the year under report was due to scarcity and famine in various parts of the country. The average of advances to garden sirdars for each adult recruit fell in 20 and rose in 15 agencies as compared with the preceding year. No cases occurred in which the local Agents were found to be extravagant or indiscreet in the matter of giving advances to sirdars. The total number of garden sirdars prosecuted for offences in connexion with recruitment was 75 as compared with 85 in the previous year. The rate of cess on garden sirdars and emigrants was Rs 1-8-0 per head during 1928-29. The actual receipts from the cess amounted to Rs 1,55,720.

Reforms in the Bombay Cotton Mill Industry.—In a circular letter dated the 8th January 1930 the Bombay Millowners Association have instructed all mills affiliated to the Association to introduce, wherever possible, a policy of direct recruitment of labour instead of the existing practice of recruitment through jobbers. The introduction of a system for providing Discharge Certificates to operatives leaving service has also been recommended. The certificates are to contain a record of the

per cent between the 20th and the 30th year and the remaining 9 per cent joined the first mill after they had attained the age of 30

Sixty-three per cent of the workers were born in the Konkan and 27 per cent in the Deccan while the rest came from different parts of the country. Not a single worker gave his place of origin as Bombay City.

About 48 per cent. of the workers covered by the sample continued in the employment of the same mill without change, 34 per cent served in two or three mills and 18 per cent. had served in 4 or more mills. The highest number of mills served by an individual was 15. The cause of leaving the mills was "for going to native place" in 26 per cent cases, low wages and for bettering prospects in 21 per cent cases, absence due to illness in 14 per cent cases and retrenchment in 10 per cent cases. Other causes for leaving mills were unsuitable conditions of work, dismissal, strike, resignation, etc.

The approximate period of total service (including the period of non-attendance) was reported to be less than 5 years in 87.54 per cent. cases, 5 to 10 years in 23.87 per cent cases, 10 to 15

years in 15.88 per cent. cases, 15 to 20 years in 8.18 per cent cases and more than 20 years in 14.08 per cent cases. The percentages of workers who had not changed mills was 87 in the case of operatives with less than 5 years service and 48 for workers with 5 to 10 years service. In the other service groups, the percentage of operatives working in the same mill varied between 25 and 45.

The actual active service was reported to be less than 5 years in 46.51 per cent cases, 5 to 10 years in 24.26 per cent cases, 10 to 15 years in 18.95 per cent cases and 15 to 20 years in 7.20 per cent cases. In the remaining 8.08 per cent cases the actual service was more than 20 years.

A large number of workers in the age groups 15-20 and 20-25 had served for a period of less than 5 years while the most common period of service in the age group 25-30 was between 5 and 10 years. In the age group 30-35 about 30 per cent. of the workers had served for less than 5 years and 19 per cent for a period of 5 to 10 years. Among workers of 35 to 40 years of age, the number of those falling in each of the first five service groups was between 16 and 20 per cent.

LABOUR IN FACTORIES.

The conditions of factory labour until 1913 were regulated by the Indian Factories Act of 1891, as amended in 1891. Under the chief provisions of the amended Act Local Government were empowered to appoint Inspectors of Factories and Certifying Surgeons to testify as to the age of children. A mid-day stoppage of work was prescribed in all factories, except those worked on an approved system of shifts, and Sunday labour was prohibited subject to certain exceptions. The hours of employment for women were limited to 11, with intervals of rest amounting to at least an hour and a half their employment between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. was prohibited, as a general rule, except in factories worked by shifts. The hours of work for children (defined as persons below the age of 14) were limited to 7 and their employment at night-time was forbidden. Children below the age of 9 were not to be employed. Provision was made for fencing of machinery and for the promulgation of rules as to water supply, ventilation, the prevention of overcrowding, etc.

The next Factory Act to be passed into law was Act XII of 1911. This Act extended the definition of 'factory' so as to include seasonal factories working for less than 4 months in the year, shortened the hours within which children, and, as a general rule, women might be employed and further restricted the employment of women by night by allowing it only in the case of cotton spinning and pressing factories. It also contained a number of new provisions for securing the health and safety of the operatives, making inspection more effective and securing generally the better administration of the Act. The most important feature of the Act, however, was the introduction of a number of special provisions applicable only to textile factories. The report of the Factory Commission showed that excessive hours were not worked except in textile factories. The Act, for the first time, applied a statutory restriction to the hours of employment of adult

males by laying down that, subject to certain exceptions, 'no person shall be employed in any textile factory for more than 12 hours in any one day.' It also provided in the case of textile factories that no child may be employed for more than six hours in any one day and that (subject to certain exceptions, which were factories worked in accordance with an approved system of shifts) no person may be employed before 5.30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. (the new limits laid down generally for the employment of women and children).

The Acts now in force.—The ratification by India of the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919 necessitated radical revision of the Indian Factories Act of 1911. This was undertaken during 1921 and the Indian Factories Amendment Act, 1922 introduced a series of important reforms including the adoption of a 60-hours week, the raising of the minimum age of children from 9 to 12, the prohibition of night work for women, the extension of the Act to a large number of small factories, drastic restriction of the exempting provisions, etc. The principal object of the amending Act of 1922 was the removal of a difficulty which had arisen in connection with the law relating to the weekly holiday. The experience gained during the three years which immediately followed the revision of the Act in 1922 indicated that the amending Act had worked smoothly and that the main principles followed in 1922 commanded general acceptance. It was not considered necessary, therefore, to modify any of the main principles of the Act, but several administrative difficulties had arisen in connection with some sections of the Act—one such difficulty relating to Section 21 which provided for intervals. Local Governments were asked in June 1923 to consider a possible solution of the difficulty and to bring to the notice of the Government of India any difficulties which might have arisen.

in connection with other provisions. On receipt of their replies, a conference of Chief Inspectors of Factories was convened. The conference recommended a number of alterations designed by allowing greater elasticity in some directions and by increasing control in others in order to make for smoother working. The Factories Amendment Act of 1926 was, therefore, passed on the recommendations of that conference and on the opinions received from the Local Governments. The more important alterations effected include the widening of the definition of factories so as to bring within the control of the Act such establishments as Electrical Generating Stations, water works etc. the prevention of the issue of age certificates by Certifying Surgeons to children who are not fit for employment, the prevention of cleaning machinery in motion, even by men in cases where Local Governments were of opinion that the work is attended by danger to the operatives for intervals of rest, and while still preventing the employment of children in two factories on the same day the permitting of women to work in two factories on the same day provided that the limits for hours of work were not exceeded.

Hours of Work.—The Indian Factories Act prescribes a daily as well as a weekly limit to the hours of work in factories and provides for rest intervals and for a weekly holiday. Section 25 of the Act provides that no person shall be employed in any factory for more than 11 hours in any one day and Section 27 provides that no person shall be employed in a factory for more than 48 hours in any one week. Section 21 of the Act makes it obligatory for the occupier of a factory to provide for each person employed a rest period of at least one hour at intervals not exceeding 6 hours, or at the request of the employees concerned two rest periods of half an hour each at intervals not exceeding 6 hours, the total duration of the periods of rest on that day not being less than one hour for each period of 6 hours worked generally. With the previous sanction of the Local Government and at the request of the employees concerned the rest interval may also be reduced to half an hour for each male person provided that he is not employed for more than 44 hours on each working day and is not required to work for more than five hours continuously. For children Section 23 (c) provides that no child shall be employed in a factory for more than 6 hours in any one day. Section 21 (b) provides that for each child working more than 6½ hours in any one day a period of rest of not less than half an hour shall be given and the period of rest has to be so fixed that no child shall be required to work continuously for more than 4 hours. Sections 23 (b) and 24 (e) further provide that no child or woman may be employed in any factory before half past five o'clock in the morning or after 7 o'clock in the evening. Under Section 25 a child cannot be employed in two factories on the same day but adults may be so employed in such circumstances as may be prescribed. Under the provisions of Sections 25 every Manager of a factory has to fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in such factory and no person is allowed to be employed except during such specified hours. The Governments of Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab and

the Central Provinces are the only Local Governments which have prescribed the circumstances under which adults may be employed in more than one factory on the same day. The rules framed by these Local Governments invest the Inspector of Factories with the power to sanction such employment if he is satisfied that the adults concerned are not employed for more than 10 hours on any one day and that they received the weekly holiday prescribed by Section 22 of the Act. In addition to the notice of 48 hours of work for particular period every factory has to maintain a register of all persons employed in a factory in the form prescribed by the Local Government showing their hours of work and the nature of their respective employment.

The latest statistics available in connection with the administration of the Indian Factories Act are for 1928. The data published in connection with the normal weekly hours of work show that for the whole of British India men were required to work for more than 54 hours a week in 45,661 factories, above 48 and not above 54 in 1,024 factories and not above 48 hours per week in 2,164 factories. In the case of those factories employing women 3,042 required female workers to work for more than 54 hours per week whereas 1,650 fixed their hours at below 48 per week. 740 factories had hours above 48 but not above 54. Out of the 1,453 factories employing children, 498 had hours below 30 for children and 855 above 30 but not above 36—the maximum permitted by the Act. The details in connection with the various provinces will be found in summary form in the All India Factories Reports or in a more detailed form in the Provincial Reports themselves. The statistics of factories do not show the hours of work in particular industries.

All railway workshops come under the Indian Factories Act. Hours of work in railway workshops in all provinces are generally average 8 per day and 48 per week. In most cases the hours are so arranged as to provide for a half day off on Saturday provided that a total of 48 hours is worked during any particular week.

With regard to intervals for rest 5,551 factories out of a total number of 7,863 factories registered in India in 1928 observe an interval of one hour.

Proposed Change for the Bombay Cotton Mills.—The Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry) recommended that a minor, but in their opinion a very essential reform which should be immediately introduced into Bombay mills is the fixation of a definite period of rest to enable the operatives to take their morning meal. The Board were greatly struck during the inspection of the mills by the number of operatives they found taking food in the mill compounds an hour or two after the commencement of work. In their opinion this materially affected efficiency and they were of opinion that the commencement of work should be put back to 6.30 a.m. a period of rest of half an hour being granted from 9 a.m. to 9.30 a.m. or 9.30 a.m. to 10 a.m., to permit of meals being taken. In accordance with this recommendation the Bombay Millowners' Association in the standardised Standing Orders which they proposed to introduce in all cotton mills in Bombay affiliated to the Association formulated

a rule that the hours of work for adult operatives would be from 7 a.m. to 9.30 a.m., 10 a.m. to 1 p.m., and 1.45 p.m. to 6.15 p.m. with two recesses from 9.30 a.m. to 10 a.m. and from 1 p.m. to 1.45 p.m. These Standing Orders formed one of the references to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee. This Committee endorsed the opinion of the Tariff Board that a morning recess was desirable but they did not consider it reasonable that the millowners should reduce the present number of working hours from 10 in order to enable this recess to be provided, so long as there is no general reduction of that kind made for all factories by legislation or otherwise. Nor, on the other hand, did the Committee think that the millowners could reasonably insist on the operatives reducing the mid-day hour recess and stay in one quarter of an hour longer in the mill in order to enable the half hour morning recess to be given. The Committee proposed a modification of this order.

Holidays.—Section 22 of the Act provides that no person shall be employed in any factory on a Sunday unless (a) he has had or will have, a holiday for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday and (b) the Manager of the factory has previous to the Sunday or the substituted day, whichever is earlier given notice to the Inspector of his intention so to employ the said person and of the day which is to be substituted and has at the same time, affixed notice to the same

effect in some conspicuous place near the main entrance of every factory, in English and in the language of the majority of the operatives in such factory. Sub-clause 2 of this section further provides that where any person is employed on a Sunday in consequence of his having had a holiday on one of the three days preceding that Sunday, that Sunday shall, for purposes of calculating the weekly hours of work of such person be deemed to be included in the previous week. The statistics of factories for 1927 show that holidays were granted on Sundays in 3,091 factories and on week days and Sundays in 3,704 factories.

Employment of Children.—By the Amending Act of 1926 the maximum age of children was raised from 14 to 15 years and the minimum age from 9 to 12. Section 23 of the Act provides that no child shall be employed in any factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted by a Certifying Surgeon showing that he is not less than 12 years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate. Further no child is allowed to be employed in any factory before half past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening and no child is to be employed for more than six hours in any one day. The number of children employed in factories during the years 1921 to 1928 is shown in the following table—

Year	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1921	56,986	11,187	68,113
1922	54,552	11,106	67,858
1923	61,841	12,779	74,620
1924	60,240	12,291	72,531
1925	57,199	11,026	68,225
1926	50,015	10,079	60,094
1927	48,028	9,584	57,562
1928	42,996	7,915	50,911

The decrease in the number employed since 1921 has been a little over 25 per cent. Whilst the total factory population rose during the same period from 1,256,935 to 1,320,315 or by 17 per cent and the total number of factories increased from 4,059 to 7,553 or by 94 per cent. The reduction in the number of children employed would have been much greater had it not been for the fact that the revision of the Indian Factories Act in 1923 brought a number of seasonal factories which employed a larger percentage of children than perennial factories under the scope of the Act. An examination of the figures in the above table will show that the number of children employed rose from 67,658 to 74,620 in 1923. This was due to the fact that the tea factories in Assam which employed about 11,000 children were brought within the scope of the Act for the first time in that year. Further, the amendment of the Act in 1925 did not apply to children who were lawfully employed in a factory on or before the 1st July 1921 and it was not until 1924 that full effect was given to the new restrictions for children.

Employment of Women.—The number of women employed in factories during the years

1921 to 1928 has increased steadily from 187,596 employed in 1921 to 252,933 employed in 1928 or by 28 per cent. The total factory population during the same period rose as has been shown above, by only 17 per cent. The large increase in the employment of women is due partly to the restrictions imposed on the employment of children and partly to the inclusion within the scope of the Act of all quasi agricultural factories for example in the tea gardens which are dependent on female labour to a larger extent than other factories. An important change which the revision of 1923 made in connection with the employment of women was the repeal of Section 27 of the Act of 1911 which permitted the employment of women at night in spinning factories. In view of this amendment the Government of India considered that they were in a position to ratify the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night adopted by the First International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919 without undertaking any further legislation.

Exemptions.—Section 31 of the Indian Factories Act provides that in those factories where exemptions are granted from the provision that

no person shall be employed in a factory for more than 60 hours in any one week every person employed in such a factory for more than 60 hours in any one week shall be paid, in respect of overtime worked at a rate which shall be at least one and a quarter times the rate at which he is normally paid in most of those factories which work normally less than 60 hours per week overtime is paid for at normal rates up to 80 hours per week and at a time and a quarter for overtime work over 80 hours. Some factories,

however, pay either the full time and a quarter rate to be granted under the Factories Act for all overtime worked over and above the normal daily hours or even grant higher rates irrespective of the weekly limitation of 60 hours under the Act. No detailed statistics are available to show the number of workers who were paid overtime during any particular period except in the case of a few Railways and some of the larger industrial organisations.

LABOUR IN MINES

The conditions of employment of labour in mines are governed by the provisions of the Indian Mines Act, 1923 which came into force with effect from the 1st July 1924 replacing the former enactment of 1901. The Act of 1901 contained provisions designed to secure safety in mines and it provided for the maintenance of an inspecting staff but it contained no provisions regulating the employment of labour. Labour in the mines was subject therefore to no restrictions in regard to hours of work, holidays, etc. The question of amending the old Act was brought to a head in 1923 by the introduction of the Reforms Scheme under which the regulation of mines became a Central Subject. As the then existing Act made no clear distinction between the functions of the Central Government and those of the Local Government in regard to its administration, a line of division between the two was considered necessary. It was proposed that the Central Government on whom the duty of regulating mines and securing the safety of workers devolved should have power to deal with the technical administration of the Act while Local Governments would deal with minor matters of administration in their respective provinces. Further, the acceptance by the Government of India of certain conventions passed at the International Labour Conference held at Geneva in 1919 necessitated the regulation of hours of employment and of the employment of children. In accordance, too, with the recommendation of the third Session of the International Labour Conference a weekly day of rest was to be provided. And the experience of the working of the Act of 1901 showed that the existing definitions of a 'child' and of a 'mine' required revision. A Bill to amend and consolidate the law relating to the regulation and inspection of Mines was therefore introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 13th September 1922 with a view to make provisions for the above matters. The Bill was referred to a Joint Select Committee of 18 members representing both Houses of the Central Legislature and the report of the Committee was published on the 18th January 1923. The most important question which came before the Committee was that of the exclusion of women from mines. The extent to which coal mines in particular depended on women's labour was a main factor which weighed against any proposal for immediate exclusion of women from the mines. The Joint Committee so amended the Bill as to provide that the power to exclude women should rest with the Government of India and they recommended that the question of the employment of women below ground in mines should be taken up at a very early date with a view to prohibiting such employment either in all mines or in

particular classes of mines at the end of a specified period. When the Bill as amended by the Select Committee came up before the Legislative Assembly for discussion on the 29th January 1923 many important amendments were moved. Of these one relating to a proposal to impose a daily limit on hours of work involved a considerable amount of discussion. A suggestion was made that a compulsory shift system might be introduced in order to bring about an automatic restriction on the daily hours of work. The Coalfields Committee who investigated the question reported that the enforcement of such a system in existing conditions would be premature. The Government of India indicated that they would make a reference to Local Governments regarding the possibility of introducing a statutory system of shifts. The Assembly, thereupon passed the Bill as it emerged from the Select Committee and the Act received the assent of the Governor General on the 23rd February 1923.

Working of the Act.—The Annual Reports of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India show that Section 26 which prohibits the employment of children in mines was contravened in nearly every class of mine and in nearly every province in British India in 1923. This was found to be due to a misinterpretation of the Section nearly every one having taken the Section to prohibit the employment of children in underground workings only. With regard to the employment of children underground a common explanation was that the children had been employed for only a few days unknown to the management and had been dismissed as soon as they were discovered. In order to clarify the position the Mining Department issued a circular letter to all mineowners drawing their attention to the requirements of the Act with respect to the employment of children. The prohibition of the employment of children brought into increased prominence the necessity of providing education and facilities for recreation for the young. The prohibition of child labour has however, had no effect on the attendance of women.

The restrictions imposed by the Act in regard to hours of work had practically no effect in the case of the coal mines in Bengal where very few mines worked for more than 4 days in a week or more than 64 hours. Their earnings have not been reduced but their attendances have not increased. The industry did not suffer in the average output per man shift which, as a matter of fact, increased. In Bihar and Orissa the normal hours of work in coal mines varies from 8 to 12. At the Lodna colliery in the Jharia coalfields a system of shifts, two per day with an interval of two hours between shifts

has been in operation for over a year. With regard to the number of days worked in the week, the miner works only on as many days as he feels inclined. The mines are closed generally on Sunday and the miners are paid on that day. The great majority of miners will not work on Monday also. In order to induce the miners to attend on Monday, the Bhagatdia colliery pays one anna extra per tub for raisings on Monday but the desired result has not been achieved. The main effects of restricting the weekly hours to 60 were (1) a reduction in the number of hours in which a miner remains underground, (2) the supervising staff attendants etc., enjoy a weekly rest day because the mines are closed for one day per week and (3) an additional number of skilled hands, such as pump *khalas* and boiler *khalas*, has to be entertained as it is not convenient to arrange for changes of shift of such workers within the limits of a 54-hour week. The argument that when children were taken out of the mine the women would not go down to work has been falsified and any labour that left the mine on this account was insignificant.

The exclusion of women from mines will not be a hardship to the industry if male labour is recruited for female labour, generally employed as coal carriers, or, if recourse be made to modern methods of loading coal by machinery. The earnings of the miner's family, as a whole, is bound to suffer on account of the prohibition

of women in mines but the loss can, to a certain extent, be made up by more regular attendance. Two large manganese mines in which there is underground working, owned by the Central Provinces Manganese Ore Company, Limited, one in the Balaghat District and the other in the Nagpur District are reported to be hard hit by the new regulations regarding the exclusion of women. In the Madras Presidency women have lately been excluded from work in the mines in certain districts. Owing to this exclusion, 50 per cent of the workers in the Cuddappah District left the mines and secured service elsewhere. In the salt mines in the Punjab women are still employed but the number is being systematically reduced with a view to ultimate abolition. This reform does not appeal to the men. It is stated that "women are at a premium in the Punjab and the more their work is concentrated on the care of the rising generation the better for the province. With effect from October 1925 no woman have been employed in underground workings in Assam but a few were doing light work in open workings or on the surface. The miners in Assam actually worked for only 4½ days in a week, the total hours being shorter than the maximum permitted under the Act.

Number of Mines—The following table gives the number of mines which came under the Act each year, classified according to the minerals raised —

Year	Number of mines					Total Number of all mines
	Coal	Mica	Manganese	Tin and Wolfram	Other minerals	
1924	845	513	186	87	172	1,804
1925	810	571	214	204	212	2,011
1926	722	601	231	210	143	1,897
1927	644	630	220	200	256	1,952
1928	556	674	184	203	331	1,948
1929	548	498	125	186	375	1,732

Number employed—The number of persons employed in mines during the years 1924-1928 were as follows —

Year	Total No of mines which came under the Act	Number of persons employed		
		Below Ground	Above Ground	Total
1924	1,804	167,719	90,496	258,217
1925	2,011	169,554	84,303	263,857
1926	1,897	189,371	70,742	260,113
1927	1,952	196,341	72,949	269,290
1928	1,948	197,296	70,372	267,671
1929	1,732	197,906	65,783	263,691

The sex distribution of the persons employed in mines during the years 1926 to 1929 was as shown below —

Year	Number of males employed.			Number of females employed		
	Underground	In open workings	On the surface.	Underground	In open workings	On the surface
1926	86,343	43,806	51,967	31,889	27,833	18,777
1927	84,766	50,028	53,903	31,850	27,697	19,045
1928	84,155	51,005	52,430	31,786	28,453	17,843
1929	92,356	51,235	51,954	24,089	28,738	17,889

Labour on Railways—All railway work shops come under the administration of the Factories Act. The Indian railways employ nearly a quarter of a million workers in other occupations for which no provisions regarding control of hours of work, etc., have yet been made by legislation.

The Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1919 and 1921 prescribed a 60 hour week and a weekly rest of not less than 24 consecutive hours for all workers in British India employed in factories, in mines and in such branches of railway work as may be specified for this purpose by the competent authority. The Indian Factories Act which was amended in 1922 to give effect to the Conventions limited the hours of work in factories to 11 in any one day and to 60 in any one week. Provisions were also made for intervals of rest and a weekly holiday. Similar limitations were imposed under the Indian Mines Act of 1923 in respect of colliery staff. Both these restrictions apply to factories and mines controlled by railway administrations. The application of the Conventions to other departments of railway organisation has been found to be a problem beset with many difficulties and has been a subject of prolonged investigations. Orders were issued by the Railway Board in 1921 that the 60-hour week should be adopted for station staff not employed in connection with the working of trains. The Indian Railway Conference Association drew up a set of rules in 1927 and these received the general approval not only of the Railway Board but also of the Boards of

Directors of the lines managed by companies. Subsequently, however it was found that these rules while they aim at applying the spirit of the Conventions do not adequately fulfil the statutory obligations imposed upon Government by the ratification of the Conventions. The whole question was therefore again exhaustively reviewed and a Bill amending the Indian Railways Act with the object of empowering the Governor-General in Council to make rules on the subject was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in the autumn session of 1929 and was referred for consideration to a Select Committee.

Working of overtime on Indian railway is more prevalent on construction than on the open line due to (1) the working season in the monsoon areas being confined to eight months in the year, (2) special measures taken to speed up all heavy work to avoid the locking up of capital, and (3) wet foundation work in bridges which necessitate continuous work. Usually overtime in such cases is paid at a rate fixed beforehand.

Seamen—The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923 provides that no seaman shall be signed on for service on a ship unless he enters into a contract in the manner specified with the Master of the ship. All agreements entered into between Masters and Seamen for service on foreign-going ships have to be signed in the presence of a Shipping Master. The agreement forms contain the rules and regulations provided for under the Act for maintaining discipline and for the fines which may be inflicted for the breach thereof.

CONTRACT LABOUR.

In most industrial concerns in India working in connection with building, loading and unloading, carting, receiving, and despatching of goods and work involving the employment of unskilled labour over which supervision is either difficult or costly is given out on contract. In the textile mills industry work in connection with bleaching and dyeing is also generally done on contract at all centres. In the cotton mills in Ahmedabad work in the Milling and Waste Room and the Yarn Spinning and Baling Department, in the Drawing in Department and Beam Carrying is given out on contract in various mills. In most cases no supervision is exercised over the labour engaged by the contractor in whom the contract is given. Perhaps the most efficient method of control and supervision over contract labour is that which obtains on several railways.

This will be dealt with separately lower down. Exceptions to the general remarks made above are as follows:

In the coal mines in Bihar and Orissa contractors are employed by a large number of collieries to provide the labour required for cutting the coal and loading it on wagons. The contractors are paid at a fixed rate per ton for all coal loaded on wagons. In some cases, however, the rate paid per ton is increased either because coal is being extracted from difficult places in the mine or because the contractor has difficulties in maintaining his labour supply. The extent to which contractors are employed is considerable and probably more than half the coal raised in the Jharia coal fields is raised on the contract system. Definite figures are not available but the Indian Mining Association reports that 90 per cent.

of the coal raised in the mines belonging to that Association in the Jharia coal fields is raised by contracted labour. In some cases contractors are only employed to provide the labour for

utilising the coal. The contractor is generally responsible only for raising the coal while the ministry supervising staff is responsible for seeing that the mines are run safely.

FORCED LABOUR.

The question of Forced Labour was an item on the Agenda of the Fourteenth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva on the 10th June, 1930. At this Session one Convention and two Recommendations on this subject were adopted. The question of Forced Labour appears first to have been brought within the sphere of international consideration by the Peace Conference. The Temporary Slavery Commission of the League of Nations considered, amongst other things, two main questions, viz., (1) Systems of compulsory labour, public or private, paid or unpaid, and (2) the measures taken or contemplated to facilitate the transition from servile or compulsory labour to free wage labour or independent production, and they recommended that an International Convention on the subject was desirable and suggested (1) that forced or compulsory labour, except for essential public works and services, should be prohibited and (2) that certain precautions should be laid down to be observed by the authorities in the recruiting of labour. In pursuance of the recommendations of this Commission, the Seventh Assembly of the League of Nations in 1926 adopted a Draft Convention called the Slavery Convention which has been ratified by India. Article 5 of the Convention reads as follows:—The High Contracting Parties recognise that recourse to compulsory or forced labour may have grave consequences and undertake, each in respect of the territories placed under its sovereignty, jurisdiction, protection, suzerainty or tutelage to take all necessary measures to prevent compulsory or forced labour from developing into conditions analogous to slavery.

"It is agreed that

"(1) Subject to the transitional provisions laid down in paragraph (3) below, compulsory or forced labour may only be exacted for public purposes.

"(2) In territories in which compulsory or forced labour for other than public purposes still survives, the High Contracting Parties shall endeavour progressively and as soon as possible to put an end to the practice. So long as such forced or compulsory labour exists, this labour shall invariably be of an exceptional character and shall always receive adequate remuneration, and shall not involve the removal of the labourers from their usual place of residence.

"(3) In all cases the responsibility for any recourse to compulsory or forced labour shall rest with the competent central authorities of the territory concerned.

The following are some of the internationally accepted principles regarding Forced Labour—

(a) That it should be inadmissible except for essential public works and services.

(b) That it should be of an exceptional character and should always receive adequate remuneration, and should not involve the removal of the labourers from their usual place of residence.

(c) All forced labour is to be adequately remunerated.

The general public purposes for which forced labour is used are classified under five main heads—(1) Public works, (2) Portage, (3) Emergencies, (4) Compulsory cultivation, and (5) other purposes. The International Labour Office conducted an enquiry into the practices with regard to forced labour obtaining in the various countries, including India, prior to the drafting of the questionnaire on the subject. The extent to which forced labour is exacted in India and the legal sanction, if any, behind it are dealt with below.

Public Works—In Bihar and Orissa in British India, compulsory work is exacted by the Government in certain aboriginal areas in connexion with the upkeep of public roads and minor public buildings in the vicinity of the village community from which the labour is levied. It is not quite clear how far this work may be regarded as being performed for general public purposes as distinct from local public purposes.

Portage—In British India, under Bengal Regulation XI of 1806, the landholders of places through which troops, military officers, or other travellers are passing are bound, on requisition of the local civil authority, to provide carts, bearers, coolies and necessary supplies for payment at rates fixed by that authority. In the Bombay Presidency labour can be impressed under Rule 42 of the Bombay Regulation XXII of 1827 which reads as follows—

42 First—When emergent occasions require the immediate march of troops, and more extensive aid towards it (than is allowed by the preceding section) is necessary, the (District) Magistrate may resort to impressment under the following rules, being careful to define the nature of the employment for which the impressment is made, and the period it is to continue. The remuneration for services or supplies procured by impressment is to be fixed by the District Magistrate on a liberal scale. It is stated that these Regulations are now very rarely, if ever, used, as both military units and civil officers have their own means of transport. Carts for touring officers are impressed in the Districts of the Bombay Presidency. In some districts a list of carts available in each village is kept by Police Patels and the carts are taken in turn. No cart is taken beyond twenty miles and hire is paid according to a fixed scale which is never below the local market rate.

Emergencies—In British India, labour may be impressed to avert sudden and serious dangers in irrigation works under the following Acts:—The Northern India Canal and Irrigation Act, 1872, the Bombay Irrigation Act, 1919, the Punjab Canal and Irrigation Act, 1901, and the Madras Canal and Irrigation Act, 1882.

In Bihar and Orissa compulsory labour is exacted by the Government in certain aboriginal areas. In parts of the Santal parganas (districts) and of Singhbhum, the Government instead of imposing local taxation, require village communities to maintain each their own share of the public roads near public buildings in the immediate neighbourhood of their homes. The distribution of work is left to the village headman, the work is done at the leisure of the villagers, and the method is considered appropriate to the state of economic and political development of these areas. In the West Khandesh District, of the Bombay Presidency labour is liable to be exacted from Watandars Mahars and Bhils in pursuance of the Watan settlements where there is occasionally a clause to the effect that the body of Mahars or Bhils should supply men if necessary. Such a demand is however, reported to be seldom made.

Forced Labour for Private Purposes

LABOUR DUES FOR LANDHOLDERS.—Forced labour for private purposes is not countenanced by the Government of India. Mention must be made, however, of the labour dues which are exacted in many parts of India, under ancient custom, by land holders from tenants and agricultural labourers. In most, if not all cases the duty of providing this labour carries corresponding rights. Thus an agricultural tenant or labourer usually has the right to free grazing on the landholders' ground, to cut wood and thatching grass for the construction and repair of his house and well, and to the free occupation of the land on which his house stands. Similarly, a low-caste labourer who works in leather has the right to the skins of all cattle dying in the village.

In the Talukdari villages in the Bombay Presidency improved labour for private purposes is unpaid and of feudal character both in its scope and origin. The traditional village services continue to be performed by tenants in the Ratnagiri District where they work on the land of the *Khats* for nominal payment in kind. Section 35 of the Khotsi Act, however, discountenances such exactions from the tenants who are however found to be unwilling to depart from the age long custom. In the other parts of the Presidency, modern ideas are beginning to influence the tenants who are increasingly opposed to the system of forced labour exacted by the Talukdars.

It was also the custom in Sind for the revenue and other officials to exact 'chher' or free labour whenever required for public or private purposes. The Committee appointed by the Government at Bombay to deal with the subjects of 'Rasul' (levy of free supplies), 'Lapo' (share of produce) and 'Chher' (compulsory free labour) have dealt with the question in their Report, published in 1921.

The principal recommendations of the Committee were (1) that casual labour should be employed whenever obtainable, (2) that the principle of full payment strictly enforced; (3) that steps should be taken to prevent excessive exactions of labour by the Talukdars, and (4) that compensation for the repairs to the houses and other buildings should be paid by the Talukdars.

were approved by the Local Government who ordered that they should be carried out in practice. No reference to this old institution of "chher" is now reported.

The Penal Code provides that any person who unlawfully compels a person to labour against the will of that person may be punished with imprisonment with or without hard labour for a period not exceeding one year or with a fine, or with both. It appears that this provision is intended to put a stop to the practice of forced labour which was, and is still to a certain extent, in vogue and is aimed at the abuses arising from forced labour which ryots were in former times compelled to render to great landholders.

The extent and the nature of the system prevalent in the Indian States are as follows:—

"According to the census report of 1921, there were 140,755 slaves in Rajputana and Central India alone, including 10,884 born domestic slaves in Sikhar and 48,100 in Jodhpur. They are known by various names such as Darogas, Humaris, Ravana Rajputs, Chelas and Golas, and are owned by princes, Hindu and Muslim alike. They are bound to be lifelong servants of their masters and are not allowed to own property except a few necessities. Their masters exercise the power of disposing of their wives and daughters and to a great extent control their marriages and divorces. If they run away to other States they are liable to be brought back and returned to their masters.

"In Jodhpur, if the Darogas fail to give service commensurate with the position and requirements of the master, the latter is legally entitled to compel them to do so. Rajputs who have Darogas born in their houses and who have brought them up are entitled to give away their daughters as part of the dowry of their own daughters. In Kotak agricultural labourers, shepherds, cowherds and herds of the State are not allowed to emigrate to another State unless they have arrived at a settlement with their masters. They are also prohibited from entering State service.

The systems of Veth and Begar (forced labour) prevail in almost all the Indian States and all classes of labourers and artisans are compelled to work for the princes and their officials for remuneration which in practice is nothing but their food. They are compelled to work many times and for such time as the State wishes and are also forced to travel long distances from their homes to distant villages or to the hills and jungles, when princes and their guests go hunting or officials are on tour.

"According to the Bundi State regulations, several classes of people, such as barbers, oil-makers, hotel-keepers, butchers, peasants and Bhils (aborigines), must work for nothing or supply free of charge such material as fuel, skins for drums, and dried cow-dung. For all labour carried out for State purposes, such must be given and for all work done for private servants wages must be paid, but such labour must be done by the classes hereditarily bound to perform it, and if members of those classes refuse to do their work they must be severely punished.

Before the Commission of Enquiry appointed in the Udaipur State in 1923 to investigate the grievances of the peasants, one of the complaints was that Bolas Bhils and Balas, even if they had given up their calling, were compelled to build roads and carry the bedding of officials from one village to another without payment.

In Kathiawar those who are liable to forced labour belong to depressed classes such as Dhedis, Dubhas and the Dhodias and are often called Chakars or Golas. Those who are privileged to exact their labour are known as *Dhamamas* or *Anarias* (masters). The latter are a class of well-to-do landholders. The relation between the two classes is that of bond slaves and their masters.

In the Surat district this class of indentured labourers is called *Halis*. A man becomes a *Hali* by reason of debt contracted either by him or by his forefathers. When a man of this class contracts a debt for a marriage or funeral ceremony, he pledges the only thing he has of any value—his labour—for the rest of his life or till the debt is repaid and becomes a

Hali and his creditor a *Dhamama*. But the debt has a way of constantly increasing and never diminishing. As long as the debt remains, he also remains the slave of his *Dhamama* and after him his children inherit the debt and the status of the *Hali* thus becomes perpetuated from generation to generation. These debts range from 100 to about 800 rupees. Interest being calculated at rates varying from 9 per cent to 12 per cent. The *Hali* or account is of course kept by the *Dhamama*, and he takes care to get his *Hali*'s thumb impression on the *Khata* periodically so as to keep him in constant terror of the civil court. The landlord has his *Halis* as part and parcel of his property and uses them for field labour or domestic work according to his needs.

Until not long ago the *Halis* were treated virtually as a commodity which could be purchased or sold in liquidation of debt and even to this day such transactions though not common, are not unknown. The *Hali* or *Dubla* form of labour is a well-organised feature in the agricultural industry in the Surat district and these *Halis* and *Dublas* change hands like a commodity.

UNEMPLOYMENT

The problems connected with unemployment in India are quite different from the problems which have arisen in highly industrialised countries like England and the United States of America and Germany. In the latter countries labour is divided into two fairly distinct classes: (1) industrial, and (2) agricultural. During periods of depression in industry those workers who are thrown out of employment either on account of a temporary or a partial closing down of concerns cannot fall back upon agriculture for earning their livelihood. It is necessary to repeat here, in order to understand this question clearly, that more than 70 per cent of the population of India derive their livelihood from various occupations in connection with agriculture. This does not mean that agriculture is a perennial source of employment. Considerable unemployment and distress occurs during periods when the monsoon fails. Even during those years when the monsoon is generally successful, there are several parts of the country where the rainfall is deficient and there is not enough scope for the employment of all the labour available. Both the Government of India and the various Provincial Governments have devised various schemes for famine relief and the variations in the visitations of nature with their consequent periods of prosperity and distress have now been brought more effectively under human control than ever before in the history of India. It is not necessary to go into the details of the questions connected with famine relief in this section. The point which it is intended to bring out is that owing to the agricultural character of industrial labour in India the problems connected with employment and unemployment are somewhat closely related to those connected with the success or the failure of the monsoon.

Speaking generally, the Indian labourer migrates to industrial centres when he finds that the yield of the land in his native place is not sufficient to maintain on the members of his family. A certain percentage of the workers

employed in industry temporarily give up their employment during the sowing transplanting and harvesting seasons. During periods of depression in trade and industry, industrial workers released from employment all back upon agriculture and thus add to the existing pressure of population on land. If the depression in trade and industry synchronises with the failure of the monsoon, the amount of unemployment becomes considerable and the resulting distress is enormous. Various States have devised schemes of Employment Exchanges for the purpose of studying the problems in connexion with the demand and supply of labour to control the movements of labour and to place it where it is required. The Government of India and the various Provincial Governments have considered the question of creating Employment Exchanges in India several times during the last ten years, but opinion is unanimous that owing to the preponderantly agricultural character of Indian labour it is practically impossible to devise any satisfactory scheme for the formation of Employment Exchanges.

India is a State Member of the International Labour Conference and as such she is bound according to the terms of the Treaty of Peace to ratify and adopt wherever possible, any Convention or Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference. The consideration of industrial unemployment was thrust upon the Government of India by the Washington Convention, which was adopted by the First International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919. Each Member ratifying this Convention was required—

(1) to communicate to the International Labour Office all information, statistical or otherwise concerning unemployment, including reports on measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment,

(2) to establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of the central authority, and to appoint Committees,

including representatives of employers and workers to advise on matters concerning the operation of these agencies

(iii) where systems of insurance against unemployment have been established, to make arrangements, upon terms to be agreed upon between the members concerned, whereby workers belonging to one Member and working in the territory of another shall be admitted to the same rates of benefit of such insurance as those of the latter

In addition to this Convention, the First International Labour Conference also adopted a Recommendation which advocated—

(a) the abolition of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit

(b) the establishment of an effective system of unemployment insurance, and

(c) the execution of public works as far as practicable during periods of unemployment and in districts most affected by it

The draft convention was ratified by India but in communicating this ratification to the International Labour Organisation at Geneva the Secretary of State for India found it necessary in order to avoid subsequent misunderstanding to explain at some length the peculiar position of India in this matter and to emphasise the difficulties connected with a complete ratification by India owing to the predominantly agricultural character of the country. The Government of India in addressing the local Governments on the question arising out of the draft Convention and Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference invited views on the following points—

(i) Advisability of creating Public Employment Agencies in congested areas to facilitate the migration of surplus labour to industrial areas where there is a shortage of labour

(ii) Advisability of utilising Public Employment Agencies in connexion with recruitment for Assam

(iii) Advisability of establishing Public Employment Agencies for the dissemination of information regarding employment during times of famine and scarcity to those in search of employment

(iv) Advisability of appointing Committees representing employers and workers to advise on matters concerning the operation of Public Employment Agencies

(v) Advisability of abolishing or controlling Employment Agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit. The replies of the local Governments indicated that in most provinces the demand for labour exceeded the supply, that, even in provinces from which there was a large migration of labour no difficulty had been experienced in obtaining information with regard to the areas where labour was in demand that the establishment of public employment agencies would serve no useful purpose and that such agencies might excite suspicion and be liable to be misunderstood by the people. With regard to the recruitment of labour for Assam the local gov-

ernments concerned were agreed that any experiment on the lines suggested would be risky. On the question of the abolition of control of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit, the replies of the local Governments indicated that employment agencies of this character were practically unknown in India. In the circumstances the Government of India decided to take no further action on the draft Convention or Recommendation concerning unemployment

Middle-class unemployment.—In recent years unemployment among the educated middle classes has been assuming alarming proportions and has attracted wide spread public attention. In January 1926, a Resolution was passed by the Legislative Assembly in the following terms—

This Assembly recommends to the Governor General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a Committee with a non official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies whether by a system of industrial and technical education or by a revision of the existing system of education or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries or by opening new avenues of employment or by the establishment of employment bureaux or by all these or any other means and that the said Committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible

Similar Resolutions were also passed in some of the local Legislative Councils. The Government of India did not consider that the appointment of a Central Committee would serve any useful purpose but in a circular letter drew the attention of the local Governments to the gravity of the problem of middle-class unemployment in India. As a result of the Resolutions passed by the local Councils Committees were appointed by some of the local Governments. The reports of most of these Committees refer almost exclusively to middle-class unemployment but the Punjab and the Bengal Committees also dealt with general unemployment. The Punjab Committee came to the conclusion that there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes whilst the Bengal Committee observed as follows—

‘The labourer if we may use the term has not yet been divorced completely from the land, and he frequently possesses or has an interest in a small plot of land in his native place on the cultivation of which he can fall back in times of depression. Added to this is the fact that industrial labour is still comparatively scarce in Bengal and in fact had to be imported from other provinces. The effect therefore of trade depression on the industrial labourer in Bengal is so far very small

Jute and Cotton Mill Industries.—In the jute mill industry in Bengal a large number of mills have, during the last two or three years changed over from the multiple to the single shift system. It is estimated that on the single shift about 25 to 33 per cent less labour force is required than on the multiple shift, but in spite of the changes no trouble has been reported

with regard to unemployment in the Bombay cotton mill industry, out of about 140,000 workers employed, approximately 10,000 have been thrown out of employment on account of the introduction of efficiency methods of work whereby spinners are required to mind two sides of a spinning frame instead of one and where the ordinary two loom weaver is required to tend three looms. The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee dealt with this aspect of the question in their report and they recommended the creation of an Out-of-Work Donation Fund. This has been dealt with in the summary given with regard to the findings of this Com-

mission in the Section on Conciliation and Arbitration. Owing to depression in trade several cotton mills were being compelled either to close down completely or to work with partial complements. Owing to the Boycott movement, however, since October 1896 the cotton industry is again showing signs of considerable improvement and many of the mills which had closed down during the year have again started working with full complements. Not only are the mills working with full complements but many are working a night shift. In December 1926 14 mills in Bombay were working a night shift and 18 in Ahmedabad.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY AND INSPECTION.

As in other countries, the industrial progress of India has been accompanied by an alarming increase in the number of industrial accidents. The total accident rate per 100 000 employees in factories rose from 520 in 1904 to 1,025 in 1927 whilst in mines the total accident rate

per 100 000 operatives also rose from 116 in 1904 to 357 in 1927.

Statistics for 1928—The numbers of accidents classified according to fatal, serious and minor in each of the British Provinces in India for the year 1928 are shown in the following table—

Province	Fatal	Serious	Minor	Total
Madras	12	258	1 068	1 338
Bombay	39	1 000	3 419	4 518
Bengal	70	1,204	2 373	3 657
United Provinces	26	176	1 407	1,611
Punjab	29	36	964	1 019
Burma	16	218	1 218	1 452
Bihar and Orissa	43	420	1 386	1 849
Central Provinces and Berar	11	34	292	337
Assam	2	40	43	85
North-West Frontier Province				
Baluchistan	1	2	19	22
Ajmer-Merwara	3	5	218	226
Delhi	2	7	50	59
Bangalore and Coorg	1	2	122	125
Total	264	3,494	12 590	16,348
Total for the year 1927	242	3,403	12 066	15 711

Factory Inspection—The administrations of the Indian Factories Act is entrusted to Factory Inspectors in each province. Where breaches of the Act are discovered the managers of factories are prosecuted and in most cases such prosecutions result in convictions. All provinces except Assam have Factory Inspectors. In the Bombay Presidency the full time factory staff consists of the Chief Inspector of Factories, three Inspectors, three Assistant Inspectors and one Woman Inspector. The Chief Inspector, two Inspectors and two

Assistant have their headquarters in Bombay City. An Inspector and an Assistant are stationed in Ahmedabad. The Woman Inspector has headquarters in Bombay but has jurisdiction over the whole Presidency. She deals with problems mainly affecting women. The Bombay Presidency is the only province in India which has a Lady Inspector of Factories. Full-time Certifying Surgeons are stationed in Bombay and Ahmedabad. They have been appointed as Divisional Inspectors with powers under the Health and Sanitary sections

of the Factories Act. They have also been granted powers under the provisions of the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act. The Director and Assistant Directors of Public Health have also been appointed as Divisional Inspectors under the Health and Sanitary sections of the Act. Their reports are sent to the Chief Inspector who passes orders on the same. Local Magistrates in the districts have ex-officio powers under the Employment sections of the Act.

Reporting of accidents.—Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act requires the manager to report all accidents which cause death or bodily injury whereby the person injured is prevented from returning to his work in the factory during the 48 hours next after the occurrence of the accident. All classes of accidents, namely fatal, serious, & accidents which prevent a person returning to work for 21 days or more and minor, are to be reported to the Inspector of Factories and to the District Magistrate and in cases of any accident resulting in death to the officer in charge of the Police Station. It is the duty of the Inspector of Factories to make an investigation as soon as possible into the causes of and the responsibility for a fatal or serious accident and to take steps for the prosecution of the person concerned. If it is found that the death or serious injury resulted from any infringement of the provisions of the Act or of the rules framed under the Act, the Act also requires notice to be given of an accident which is due to any cause that has been notified in this behalf by a Local Government, even though no injury may have resulted therefrom to any person. So far notifications have been issued under this section only in Bombay, Bengal and Burma.

Accident Prevention.—The chief influences in the prevention of accidents are (a) the powers of inspectors under the Factories Act to compel managers to erect adequate fencing and to take precautions against accidents; (b) the voluntary interest of managers in safety measures and safety precautions; and (c) the interest of insurance companies as a result of the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act. In many provinces the existing rules made under the Factories Act cover *Safety-First* measures such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly fitting clothes to prohibit children from entering into certain parts of factories etc. but no serious attempt has been made in the shape of a *Safety-First* campaign except in the case of a few solitary instances. In some provinces the first three resolutions adopted by the eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference have been communicated to all industrial concerns. In the Bombay Presidency the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association have recognised the value of safety powers as an aid in the reduction of accidents and have undertaken the preparation of some posters for the textile industry. The posters which are under preparation will illustrate the danger of carding machines at the front plate either during or after the shifting process, dangers at the underside of the Mekeru-in, dangers of wearing unsuitable clothing and the danger from careless sweeping under ring frames.

The railways are of course pioneers in the introduction and the continuance of active propaganda in *Safety-First* work in all departments. These activities cover railway workshops (which come under the Indian Factories Act) as well. In order to present a complete picture of this work on railways the work done for railway workshops will be dealt with under Railways. Perhaps the best known instance where first class *Safety-First* work is being carried on in India is that done by the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur. The Company has since 1920 subscribed to the British Industrial Safety First Association and has installed notice boards all over the plant exhibiting the posters supplied by that Association. The literature received from the Association has also been circulated broadcast throughout the works.

First-Aid and Medical Relief.—Some of the Local Governments have framed rules requiring the provision under the charge of responsible persons and in readily accessible positions of first-aid appliances containing an adequate number of sterilised dressings and some sterilised cotton in all factories employing 500 and more operatives. Most of the factories are situated within easy reach of Government hospitals or hospitals maintained by Local Authorities but many of the larger and enlightened employers are already maintaining their own medical staff and equipment which are easily available in cases of accidents. In the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur boxes with first-aid supplies are maintained in each department and two first-aid hospitals in different parts of the plant are staffed with doctors and compounders in readiness to render first-aid to injured persons.

Mines.—The Indian Mines Act of 1923 empowers the Governor General in Council to frame regulations for the safety of persons employed in mines (Section 22 clause (b) to (p)). Local Governments are also empowered to frame rules under the Act to ensure the proper fencing of a mine for the protection of the public. In addition the Chief Inspector of Mines may call upon the owner, agent or manager of a mine to frame bye-laws which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act, regulations or rules to prevent accidents and to provide for the safety, convenience and discipline of the persons employed in the mine (Section 32). The bye-laws, when approved by the Local Government have effect as enacted under the Act. Further Section 10 of the Act gives special powers to the Inspector of Mines to take action when any danger is apprehended which is not expressly provided for by the Act, regulations, rules and the bye-laws. The Governor-General in Council has framed two sets of regulations, namely the Indian Coal Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply only to coal mines and the Indian Metallic Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply to all other mines. These regulations provide for the proper maintenance of shafts and outlets roads and working places, hoisting arrangements, fencing and gates, for the restrictions which have to be observed in raising or lowering persons or materials for the precautions to be taken in the use of explosives, and for adequate ventilation and lighting.

Railways—The Railway Department conducts an intensive *Safety First* propaganda every year which embraces the following among other activities—

- (1) Safety posters and safeguards are put up on prominent points both in English and in the vernacular. Some of these, e.g., on the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway, are prepared from actual photographs of safe and unsafe methods of working in selected branches of manufacture and maintenance work in the railway workshops.
- (2) An illustrated booklet was compiled by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during the year 1926-27 which has been translated into a number of vernacular languages and distributed throughout the line on certain railways.

- (3) Photographs and special articles are published in the Railway magazines for the instruction of the staff.
- (4) Inspecting subordinates are instructed to take the opportunity, while visiting stations, of addressing the staff on *Safety First*.
- (5) Coloured pictures showing the right and wrong way of doing a job are posted at several places for the benefit of the illiterate staff.
- (6) A *Safety First* film was prepared by the Central Publicity Bureau during the year 1927-28 and copies distributed to railways. The film is displayed weekly by the travelling cinemas of the railways.
- (7) A *Safety First* pamphlet has been prepared by the Central Publicity Bureau and is being issued to all railway administrations.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 came into force on July 1st, 1924. This measure when originally introduced in the Legislative Assembly, contained clauses modifying the ordinary law in respect of employer's liability and making it easier for injured workmen to sue their employers for damages in the Civil Courts. These clauses applied only to workmen who come under the workmen's compensation provisions so that although they omitted the limit to damages which governs their counterpart in England they were not likely to be much used. The clauses in question were deleted from the measure by the Legislative Assembly. The Act as passed by the Legislature covers ten classes of workmen. Some of these, such as members of fire brigade, telegraph and telephone linemen, sewerage workers and tramway men are small and as the definition of seamen is limited to those employed on certain inland vessels only a very small proportion of Indian seamen come under the Act. The five important classes covered are the workmen in factories, mines, docks and on railways practically all of whom are included and those engaged in certain types of building work notably the construction of industrial and commercial buildings and any other buildings which run to more than one storey. The most important classes excluded altogether are agricultural workers and domestic servants. Non-manual labourers getting more than Rs. 300 a month are excluded, except on the railways. Power is taken to include other hazardous occupations by notification from time to time. All occupations involving blasting operations were thus proposed to be declared by the Governor General in Council as hazardous occupations. Compensation is to be given as in the English Act, for personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of employment. It is also to be given for diseases in certain cases. The provisions for diseases have been so framed that if a certain class of workmen contracts a scheduled disease, it will usually be extremely difficult for the employer to defeat a claim for compensation. On the other hand, other workmen will find it equally

difficult to get compensation for disease as they will have to prove that the disease arises solely and directly from the employment. The diseases scheduled at present are anthrax, lead poisoning and phosphorus poisoning. Whether compensation can be claimed for diseases other than those scheduled is doubtful, but the list is made capable of extension. Mercury poisoning was thus added to Schedule III by notification, dated 28th September 1926.

In order to bring the Indian law into conformity with the provisions of the Draft Convention concerning Workmen's Compensation for occupational diseases adopted at the Seventh International Labour Conference held at Geneva in 1925 which has been ratified by India, necessary changes were made in sub-section (2) of section 3 and in the list of occupational diseases given in Schedule III of the Act. Certain occupations in connection with operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas and in connection with the loading, unloading and fuelling of a ship in any harbour, roadstead or navigable water were also brought within the purview of the Act by notification issued by the Governor General in Council in exercise of the powers conferred by sub-section (3) of section 2 of the Act.

The Amending Act of 1928—A number of amendments have suggested themselves or have been proposed by Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation and Local Governments. Some of the proposals involved the modification of the principles underlying the Act of 1923 or of its more important features. So far as these are concerned, the Government of India consider it advisable to consult Local Governments and the public generally before forming conclusions. With a view to revise the Act so as to amend those Sections or parts of Sections which were admittedly defective and to introduce changes which were likely to raise no important controversial questions and which would be generally recognised as improvements, the Government of India introduced into the Legislative Assembly on 21st September 1928, a Bill further to amend the Work

men's Compensation Act, 1923. The main features of this Amending Act are (1) that the discriminating restrictions placed on workmen employed in the construction repair or demolition of a building or bridge, with regard to their ineligibility for compensation except in the case of death or permanent total disablement has been removed (2) that all payments to dependants of the deceased workmen (except advances to the extent of Rs. 50 for funeral expenses of the deceased workman and to the extent of a hundred rupees on account of compensation to any dependent) and any lump sums payable to minors should be paid through the Commissioner (3) deposits of trivial amounts less than Rs. 10 has been done away with (4) provision is made for the protection of lump sums payable to a woman or a person under legal disability by empowering the Commissioner to invest, apply or otherwise deal with them for the benefit of the woman or of such person during his disability (5) powers are vested in the Commissioner to recover any amount obtained by any person by fraud impersonation or other improper means and (6) the benefits of the Act are extended to (a) any person employed for the purpose of loading, unloading, fuelling, constructing, repairing, demolishing, cleaning or painting any ship of which he is not the master or a member of the crew or (b) employed on a railway as defined in Sections 3 (4) and 148 (1) of the Indian Railways Act 1890, by a person fulfilling a contract with a railway administration or (c) employed as an inspector, mail guard, sorter or van peon in the Railway Mail Service, or (d) employed in connexion with operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas as a rig builder, driller, driller's helper, oil well pumper or bailing or cleaning oil wells or putting in and taking out casings or drill pipes in oil

wells or (e) employed in any occupation involving blasting operations.

As a result of the experience gained of the working of the Act the Government of India have thought it desirable to re-examine the principles underlying the Act as it stands to-day and its more important features. The enactment of 1923 was admittedly an experimental measure and many of its features owe their origin more to a desire to minimise the difficulties attendant on the introduction of an entirely new measure of this kind than to any belief in their permanent value.

Statistics.—The statistics regarding cases disposed of under the Act have been collected and published since 1st July 1924 on which date the Act came into force. These statistics relate to the more important classes of workers *i.e.* workers in factories, mines and docks and on railways and tramways. The total amount of compensation paid to these classes of workers was about 6½ lakhs of rupees in 1925 8½ lakhs in 1926 and 11 lakhs each in 1927 and in 1928. The total amount of compensation paid in respect of accidents in the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur where over 25,000 persons were employed, was as follows—

	Rs.
1926	58,236
1927	52,418
1928	78,408

Occupational diseases have figured for the first time in 1927 in connexion with the working of the Act in India. It is reported that a compositor in a printing press in Bengal owned by the Local Government was found to have fallen a victim to lead poisoning for which he was paid Rs. 2,730 as compensation. The following table shows the number of cases classified by nature of injuries and the amounts of compensation paid in each year since 1924—

Year	Number of Cases			Amount of Compensation paid for		
	Fatal	Non Fatal	Total	Fatal Cases	Non Fatal Cases	All Cases
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1924 *—						
Adults	249	3,898	4,147	82,085	66,248	1,48,333
Minors	2	19	21	375	1,518	1,891
1925—						
Adults	589	10,761	11,354	3,45,995	2,95,535	6,41,530
Minors	7	30	37	200	2,361	2,561
1926—						
Adults	651	18,867	19,518	4,26,935	3,94,385	8,21,320
Minors	8	45	53	480	695	1,175
1927—						
Adults	777	14,397	15,174	5,81,400	5,27,984	11,09,384
Minors	6	26	32	840	1,030	1,870
1928—						
Adults	819	15,898	16,717	5,21,410	5,89,741	10,91,251
Minors	9	42	51	2,494	1,985	4,479

* The figures for 1924 relate to only the six months from 1st July to 31st December.

The following tables set out the proportion of contested cases out of the total number of applications received by the Commissioners in each year —

Year	No. of Applications disposed of	Number of contested Cases.	Percentage of contested cases to total disposed of
1924	92	14	15.2
1925	539	100	18.6
1926	835	198	23.7
1927	1,223	281	22.9
1928	1,308	309	23.7

The details of agreements (i) disposed of (ii) registered as filed and (iii) rejected on account of inadequacy are given below for each year —

Year	Number of Agreements.			
	Disposed of	Registered as filed	Registered after modification.	Not registered on account of inadequacy etc.
1924	41	33	1	7
1925	399	390	3	6
1926	591	583	5	3
1927	701	682	12	7
1928	887	855	25	7

Compensation on Railways.—The total amount of compensation paid under the Act by the principal railways in India, since 1st July 1924 was over Rs. 12,00,000, the average per year being nearly 3,00,000. This is over and above the compensation paid under departmental rules.

Effect on Industry.—A compulsory system of workmen's compensation enhances the cost of production but not to any appreciable extent. In the case of coal mines the increase in cost has been estimated to be not more than annas four per ton of coal (*vide* para 29 of the Report of the Indian Coal Committee, 1925). However the owners of many of the small coal mines have been compelled to close down their mines due mainly to the severe depression with which the industry has been

facied. In the Punjab the proprietors of the coal mines in the Jhelum District are reported to be not satisfied with the privileges enjoyed by the miners under the Act as some of them have had to pay as compensation on a single accident more than they could earn during a month. An unexpected increase in the number of serious and fatal accidents may undoubtedly make a big hole in the profits of a concern but the remedy for this lies in accident insurance. Facilities for accident insurance are now being provided by a number of leading insurance companies in the country and the most important of these are the Claims Bureaux in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. In these three provinces insurance is widely resorted to by the employers but in the other Provinces accident insurance does not appear to have made much progress.

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING.

One of the most vital problems facing industrial employers in India to-day is that connected with the housing of the labour which they employ. The importance and the urgency for providing decent housing cannot be sufficiently emphasised.

The conditions of industrial housing in India are, in many cases, appalling and the majority of buildings, tenements or huts in which industrial labourers are housed are insanitary and more or less uninhabitable from Western points of view. Provincial Governments, Municipalities,

Improvement Trusts and the larger employers have done a great deal to mitigate the evils resulting from an insufficiency of decent sanitary housing for labour, but a considerable amount still remains to be done before this question can be considered to have been satisfactorily solved.

Several commissions and committees of inquiry appointed by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments in connection with various subjects have dealt with the question of industrial housing. The Industrial

Commission in 1918 urged that, in addition to the scheme followed by the Improvement Trust in Bombay other measures should be adopted such as the refusal of permission with a few exceptions to fresh industrial concerns to be established, the setting up of a special area for industrial development, the removal of the existing railway workshops from the city supply of housing, accommodation to the employees by railways, Government departments and public bodies improved communications with a view to creating industrial suburbs, and a definite programme of construction to be taken up by local authorities. The findings of other commissions and committees with regard to this question follow similar lines.

Bombay Presidency—The first attempt to improve housing conditions in Bombay City was made after the plague of 1896 when the heavy mortality and the great exodus that followed paralysed the trade and industry of Bombay. The Bombay Improvement Trust was established in 1898 'for the work of making new streets opening out crowded localities reclaiming lands from the sea to provide room for the expansion of the city and constructing sanitary dwellings for the poor and the police. Owing to its limited powers and the various difficulties which it encountered the Trust had to content itself for the first few years of its existence with slum patching, the development of a few building sites, the construction of a few chawls and the development of main roads. In more recent years, however, the Trust has been able to do considerable good work in the direction of industrial housing and has built over 1,800 tenements for housing its own labour and 99 chawls containing 8,606 tenements in all for housing labour in general. The Bombay Port Trust which engages on an average about 8,500 manual workers in all its departments has provided accommodation for a little over 8,000 of its workers. The Bombay Municipality has provided a large number of chawls for its employees as will be evidenced by the fact that 5,538 out of 7,537 scavengers employed are provided with quarters. Varying proportions of the numbers of employees in the other departments of the Municipality are also provided with adequate housing. According to the information collected by the Bombay Labour Office in 1925 25 out of the 76 textile mills in Bombay City which furnished information for the enquiry had provided housing for their operatives. 7 out of these mills provided residential accommodation only for employees in the Watch and Ward Department and the rooms provided were given free of rent. In the 22 mills which provide partial housing for all classes of operatives, the number of workers who lived in the tenements provided amounted to 12,149 out of 84,780 employed. The G.I.P. Railway owns 20 chawls containing 841 one-room tenements and the B & C I Railway owns 306 one-room tenements for housing their employees.

No action was taken by the Local Government in Bombay City for housing general industrial labour till after the end of the war. A broad and comprehensive policy was drawn up just after the end of the war by the Government of Bombay under the personal inspiration of Lord Lloyd, then Governor of Bombay, for

dealing with the problem. A Development Directorate was formed in 1920 to co-ordinate the various housing activities of Government, the Municipality, the Improvement Trust and the larger labour employing organisations. The original intention of the Directorate was to construct 625 chawls located in 3 industrial centres and to comprise of 50,000 tenements for working classes, within a period of 9 years from 1921 to 1929. The original estimated cost was 54 crores of rupees and a town duty of a rupee per bale of cotton on all cotton entering Bombay was imposed under the City of Bombay Municipal and Improvement Act of 1920. The scheme was launched at a time when the industrial prosperity of the country was at its zenith and labour conditions in the City were abnormal. By the end of 1927 207 chawls with 16,524 tenements were constructed but only 123 chawls with 8,234 rooms were occupied. These chawls did not attract industrial labour in Bombay to live in them, the reasons attributed to the failure being the distance of the chawls from the mills, the absence of travelling facilities and other amenities of city life. The average economic rent per tenement worked out at Rs. 16 per month but the actual rents charged were fixed on an average at barely 50 per cent of the economic rent and accommodation can now be had in the chawls at Worli at Rs. 5 per room on all floors. The rents in the Nal-tam and Sewri chawls are Rs. 7 per room on all floors and for those in the chawls at DeLisle Road Rs. 8 per room per month on all floors. One rupee extra is charged for certain corner rooms. The rents charged prior to 1st April 1929 were, however, higher for all centres. The figure of the number of rooms occupied on the 31st December 1927, namely 8,234 was the highest ever recorded. Frequent strikes in the cotton textile mills and general industrial unrest in Bombay City have been largely responsible for the non-occupation of the rooms in the chawls of the Development Department during the last two years and the figure for the number of tenements occupied on the 31st March 1929 was only 6,605 or a little over 40 per cent of the number of tenements available.

Ahmedabad City—Probably in no other industrial centre in India is the condition of the housing of the working classes so bad as it is in Ahmedabad. The Textile Labour Union at Ahmedabad has recently published a pamphlet entitled 'A plea for Municipal Housing for the Working Classes in the City of Ahmedabad' for submission to the Ahmedabad Municipality. In this pamphlet the Union deals with 23,708 tenements observed and studied by it. The Union reports that there is absolutely no provision of water in the case of 5,606 tenements, 3,117 tenements have a supply of some sort of wells. Even those which are supposed to possess the advantage of Municipal water have a hopelessly inadequate arrangement in this respect—a tap or two in a compound for a group of 200 or more families. Bathing and washing accommodation has not been thought of except in one or two chawls erected by mills. 5,800 tenements have no latrine accommodation. In most of the remaining tenements the Union reports that the arrangements are miserable in quality and grossly insufficient.

in quantity and that urinals are conspicuous by their absence. Only a few tenements are provided with any sort of drainage. No other drainage arrangement exists.

The evils of bad housing in Ahmedabad were considerably aggravated as a result of the flood of July 1927 in Gujarat which destroyed over seven thousand houses in the City of Ahmedabad. The bulk of these houses belonged to the working classes. The Union in the pamphlet referred to reports that the situation which had arisen in consequence of the flood was grave beyond words. Of the thousands who had been unhoused many came to share with their relatives and friends the accommodation that was already heavily overcrowded. Hundreds were altogether without shelter. The relief operations that were then carried out included the construction of huts intended to provide temporary accommodation to a number of those who could make no arrangement of their own. The Relief Committee set up by the leading citizens of Ahmedabad for reconstruction work recommended that the Municipality should take as early step as possible to construct 5,000 sanitary tenements by raising a loan for the purpose.

In the opinion of the Labour Union the solution of the question of housing constitutes one of the obligatory duties of the Municipality, and a growing appreciation of this aspect of the housing question on the part of the authorities has led to the incorporation in the City Municipalities Act (1923) under section 71 of a provision permitting City Municipalities to undertake provision of sanitary dwellings for the poorer classes. Owing mainly to the efforts of Mr. Gursallal Nanda, Secretary of the Ahmedabad Labour Union, the Ahmedabad Municipality has recently decided to construct model dwellings for the working classes.

Bengal Presidency.—Housing is generally provided in Bengal by employers and the extent and quality of the housing depend on the cheapness and availability of land. In the more congested areas in Calcutta, Mowrah and the nearer neighbourhood housing facilities are not provided on so big or so good a scale as in other areas. Most jute mills provide for their workers rooms constructed in the neighbourhood of the mills at rents varying from annas 8 to Re 1 per room per month. The sizes of the rooms vary from 8'x8 to 10'x10' and in some cases to 12'x10'. In nearly all cases the rooms are constructed back to back and in most places floors and tiled roofs have been provided with narrow verandahs generally 4' wide used for cooking purposes. Very often the rooms are dark and in none of them sun light can penetrate through. Ventilation is unsatisfactory owing to the method of construction and the only openings in the rooms are the doors. If windows are provided they are kept shut. No chimneys or openings are provided for the escape of smoke in the majority of the houses. Recent enquiries made into the condition of housing in Bengal show that drainage, water supply and conservancy arrangements in *hacks* are abominable. Government and other public agencies do not provide housing as in Bombay, for industrial purposes but some Government and public concerns do provide quarters for their own employees.

Madras Presidency.—As a result of the exertions of the Labour Department of the Government of Madras and the Co-operative Building Societies and a number of local authorities some houses have been built for poor workmen in Madras City. Out of 14,080 registered factories 211 factories are reported to have provided housing for a small number of their employees. Almost all plantation estates in the Nilgiris, Malabar and Coimbatore provide lines for the coolie labour employed.

United Provinces.—Out of 230 regulated factories 88 make some provision for the housing of workmen and their families. Altogether about 5,400 single room and 1,048 double room tenements are provided by the employers. The McRobertson, Allamganj and the Juhl settlements of the British India Corporation at Cawnpore are about the only important examples of housing provided by employers for their workmen in that city. A scheme has however been launched by some of the owners of factories in Cawnpore for providing housing for some twenty thousand workmen and their families but it is still under discussion. Except as employers the Government of the United Provinces has done nothing in connection with industrial housing. The Improvement Trust of Cawnpore has put up some temporary housing and the Improvement Trust of Lucknow has put up a model barrack in the area set apart as an industrial area. In the *hacks* or *hats* where housing is provided by private landlords the type of tenement available is usually a small mud hut with a room at the back and a room or a verandah in front. The size and height vary. The usual size is 10'x8'. The normal height is 6 to 8'. The only outlet for ventilation is the small main door. Even such tenements are reported to be shared by 2, 3 or even 4 families and as many as 10 persons may be found as inmates.

Central Provinces.—Housing is provided for about 7,500 workers by some of the larger factories and mills in the Central Provinces. Nineteen per cent. of textile labour and 7.5 per cent. of the labour employed in minor industries is housed. The Pulgaon Cotton Mill maintains a settlement covering an area of 15 acres on which the millhands are allowed to build their own houses in payment of a nominal ground rent of annas 4 per annum per 100 sq. ft. Probably the most magnificent scheme of industrial housing conceived in India is that launched by the Empress Mills under the agency of Messrs. Tata Sons Limited at Nagpur. These mills have leased a plot of 300 acres at Indora, a suburb of Nagpur, two miles from the mills. The scheme is based on a desire to establish a model village. The idea is to build houses of the bungalow type standing on their own ground in plots measuring 30'x63' with the limitation that building will not be allowed on more than one-third of the space provided. The houses are let to the workers by the hire purchase system and it is expected that many of the workers will ultimately own them.

Bihar and Orissa.—All the collieries in the Jharla coal field are amply and efficiently equipped with approved types of houses. Their design, construction, ventilation and general amenities are governed by the Jharla Mines

Board of Health Workers recruited from villages within five miles from the mine frequently prefer to live in their own villages and walk backwards and forwards to their work. In five collieries employing about ten thousand workers 4,775 houses are provided, five of the worst equipped mines employing 424 workers provide 156 houses and five normally equipped mines employing 3,984 workers provide 1,162 houses. In many cases more than one employee is accommodated in one *chawls* or house. Very frequently a man and his wife and his family all of whom may be recorded as separate labourers in the figures of the mining population occupy one house. Every house must be licensed. Licenses are not given unless the standards are complied with. If labourers are found in occupation of unlicensed premises the management is liable to prosecution. No rent is however charged and subletting is not known.

The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur have built 4,521 residential buildings. Of these 301 are rented at over Rs 20 per month. Sixteen are rated as hotels. The accommodation provided at present is insufficient and one of the problems the Company will have to face is the provision of a larger amount of housing.

Assam.—Free quarters are provided for all residential employees on tea estates. Such non-resident labour as is employed is casual labour which comes from the adjoining villages and lives in its own houses. In the mines and oil fields free quarters are provided for the labour force employed. Committee of Inquiry appointed in 1921-22 recommended that endeavour should be made to house immigrants from different provinces together in hamlets instead of putting workers from all provinces indiscriminately into barracks or lines. The main objection to this recommendation is the want of land as all available land is under tea. The housing conditions in the coal and oil fields are reported as being quite satisfactory. In Assam the tea estates are regularly inspected by District and Sub-Divisional officers. Although the legal powers of interference have been curtailed by the abolition of indentured labour and the repeal of so much of Act VI of 1901 as related to such labour still in practice the inspecting officers do invariably report on the condition of the lines. They call attention to the need of improvement and the management is generally ready to effect such improvements as are considered necessary.

Other Provinces.—No special remarks are necessary in connection with the question of industrial housing in other provinces. Gen-

erally speaking no industrial slums as such or any big urban inflammation due to the presence of agglomerations of factory or other workers is particularly noticeable and the housing of labour is not to be differentiated from the ordinary poor classes. Except in those cases where Government action has been definitely indicated the governments of the various other provinces in India have done nothing for the improvement of industrial housing.

Railways.—The general policy on railways is to provide residential quarters where it is necessary for special reasons to provide accommodation for certain classes close to their work and where conditions are such that private enterprise does not adequately meet the demand for housing the staff. The total expenditure incurred on housing provided by the principal railways since the commencement of operations amounts to Rs 23.41 crores while the expenditure incurred during the last four years exceeds four and a half crores. The programme for the next two years contemplates a further expenditure of Rs 1.87 crores. Notwithstanding this expenditure there is, at present, a considerable dearth of quarters on most railways. Endeavours are, however, continuously made to construct new houses in accordance with an annually pre-arranged programme as funds permit.

Acquisition of Land for Workers' Homes.—Except the Railways, which can obtain land under the Land Acquisition Act for railway purposes which include building quarters for necessary maintenance of the staff no other industry in India is covered by that Act. One considerable difficulty has been experienced by collieries in the Bihar coal fields for acquiring land for purposes of housing schemes. In 1930 the Coal Fields Committee suggested that every facility should be offered to a Colliery Company or proprietor to acquire land under the Land Acquisition Act for the housing of labour. In considering the amendment of the Land Acquisition Act in 1923 the Government of Bihar and Orissa suggested that some amendment might be made in order to give facilities for the acquisition of land for colliery housing purposes. The Government of India, however, did not include any such amendment in their amending Act. The matter has again been before the Local Government in connection with the revision of Sections 49 and 50 of the Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act and a Bill was introduced and passed in the winter session of the Local Legislative Council in 1929. Slight alterations were found necessary in the Bill to improve its working and these changes have recently been passed by the Legislative Council.

HEALTH

No serious attempt has so far been made to keep any satisfactory statistics regarding health conditions of industrial workers e.g. morbidity rates among the workers, their average weight, height, etc., and in the absence of any statistical information it is not possible to generalise about these matters. Health conditions in the important industrial centres in India cannot however be said to be very satisfactory. This is due to many causes such as poor diet, overcrowded and insanitary dwellings, want of open air and exercise, etc.

But the main cause of ill health particularly among the workers in Bombay and Bengal, appears to be the prevalence of malaria in the localities in which they live. Major Correll, the Special Officer appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into malarial conditions in Bombay City who submitted his report in 1928, says: "Malaria is still present in certain quarters of the southern portion of the City to a serious extent, but the most intense malaria at the present time exists in the vicinity of the mills, more especially in Ward and Patel

sections. In the northernmost portion of Worli section, malaria is also slight, but as soon as the edge of the mill area is reached the incidence of the disease rises abruptly and extends over the greater part of Worli and Parel. The correlation between the intensity of malaria and the proximity of mills was most striking, especially in certain cases where a single isolated mill happened to be present, e.g., the Victoria Mill in Chowpatty and the Colaba Land Mill in Colaba. The vast majority of the mills in Bombay are situated in the highly malarious area.

In the mines in the Madras Presidency malaria prevails in the Cuddapah district and at every change of season there is a prevalence of widespread fever. Malaria also prevails in the Thummaragudi mines throughout the

year and the cold winds during the rainy season from Sandur Hills affect the health of the labourers in the mines of Tonasigari. Typhoid fever prevails among industrial workers in the United Provinces and Bihar and Orissa, and *Kala Azar* is common among workers in certain tracts like Bihar and Orissa.

The following table gives the birth and death rates and the rate of infant mortality per thousand of the population for some of the important industrial centres. The figures, however, relate to the whole population in most cases and as such are not likely to give an adequate idea regarding mortality etc. among industrial workers. Besides, in certain cities like Bombay it is customary for married working class women to leave the city for their confinement and register births in the mofussil.

A table showing (a) Birth-rate and (b) Death rate per thousand of population and (c) Infant mortality for 1,000 registered births for certain important industrial centres

Centre	Period	Birth rate per 1 000 of population	Death-rate per 1 000 of population	Infant mortality per 1 000 registered births
Bombay	1928	20 56	23 59	314 40
Ahmedabad	"	43 70	42 08	330 94
Bhopal	"	40 41	35 90	246 93
Karachi	"	54 04	28 13	190 43
Nagpur	1928	56 35	50 88	290 47
Amritsar	"	56 06	41 68	254 96
Alota	"	43 57	35 02	276 67
Khamgaon	"	40 23	30 31	241 59
Cawnpore	"	38 14	47 23 (a)	433 43
Lucknow	Average for 1921 to 1928	47 68	39 76 (a)	292 08
Allahabad	"	44 19	31 54 (a)	244 03
Agra	"	41 03	43 19 (a)	305 47
Jharia Mining Settlement	1928-29	35 47	18 28	171 00
Asansol Mines Board Area.	1927-28		17 14	

(a) Average for 1923 to 1928

The relation between overcrowding and infant mortality is brought out in the following table extracted from the annual report of the Municipal Commissioner for Bombay City —

Infant Mortality by the Number of Rooms occupied in 1929

Number of rooms	Births.		Deaths in Infants.		Infant mortality per 1,000 births registered	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	1929	1928
1 Room and under	11 561	47 7	5,625	77 9	497	443
2 Rooms	1,285	5 8	473	6 5	368	365
3 Rooms	470	1 9	140	1 9	297	223
4 or more rooms	270	1 1	50	0 7	185	176
Hospitals	10,024	43 9	911	12 6	85	72
Homeless and not recorded	10	0 1	26	0 4		
Total	24,220	100 0	7,225	100 0	208	311

Working conditions.—In the Bombay Presidency the working conditions in the factories are usually considerably in advance of the conditions in the homes of the workers. The Factories Department has recently effected an

appreciable improvement in the development of ventilation in factories. The working conditions in the average Cotton Mill in the U. P. are reported to be not very satisfactory and those in the Central Provinces and Berar have

plenty of scope for improvement especially in ventilation maintenance of suitable temperature, suitable flooring proper spacing of machinery and provision of places for meals. Considerable improvements are required in the seasonal factories for alleviating the dust nuisance and for proper lighting. In the Jute mills in Bengal, especially in the sorting and darning section there are no adequate arrangements for taking off the dust and the workers get a particular kind of rash all over their bodies in the beginning of their employment. Women are mostly employed in this Department and they bring their infants and children who live in that dust-laden and hot atmosphere during working hours. Working conditions are, however, generally satisfactory in jute mills and other large industrial concerns.

A question closely connected with the health of the workers is that relating to ventilation and humidification in cotton mills. For the spinning and weaving of cotton a humid atmosphere is required. Artificial humidification is necessary in the hot season and when this is effected by the letting in of steam when the temperature of the factory is high it produces very trying conditions of work. The Government of India instituted a special enquiry into this question in 1921. Mr. T. Maloney (now Secretary to the Bombay Millowners Association) who was appointed special adviser for the purpose, presented to the Government of India a report entitled "Humidification in Cotton Mills" in 1923. The replies from local Governments received by the Government of India showed complete unanimity in regard to the suggestion in the report to the effect that the use of steam should be prohibited when the temperature in a Department of a factory exceeded 85 degrees F. In 1925 the Government of India suggested that a rule should be framed by the local Governments under the Factory Act prohibiting the use of live steam at temperatures beyond 85 degrees F. Such a rule has been issued in all the provinces concerned except Delhi, where it is expected to be issued very shortly, and Bombay. The Government of Bombay is in favour of such a rule but it considers that it would be ultra vires the provisions of the Factory Act. However, the Bombay Mill owners themselves are discounting the practice of using steam for the purpose of humidification when the temperature is above 85 degrees F. The problem affects the Bombay Presidency most and notable progress has already been made in this direction in that Presidency. Thus Ahmedabad has generally recognised the need of efficient ventilation and cooling arrangements to neutralise the trying climatic conditions of that centre and the mills in Bholapur have installed several special ventilatory, cooling and humidifying plants that have considerably improved the working conditions in those mills.

Extent of Medical Facilities provided.—The result of the enquiry into Welfare work conducted by the Labour Office in 1926 show that the provision of facilities for medical attendance and the supply of medicines is fairly general in all the larger labour employing organisations in the Bombay Presidency. Thus 68 out of 76 mills which supplied information in Bombay city reported that they maintained dispensaries for the supply of medicines, 6 mills,

provided only medical attendance and 3 mills supplied ordinary drugs. Out of 82 working mills in Ahmedabad, 41 mills provide both for medical attendance and supply of medicines and four mills maintain hospitals in addition to dispensaries. All the five mills in Bhadozpur provide both medical attendance and medicines. One mill maintains a hospital. In most cases the dispensaries are attended by qualified medical practitioners. The mills make no or only a nominal charge for the supply of medicines. The Bombay Port Trust maintains several dispensaries, with qualified medical men in attendance for each department. The Karachi Port Trust provides a free dispensary with a medical officer at Manora. The Bombay Municipality maintains 2 special small dispensaries for its employees at Love Grove and Kuria in addition to the several Municipal dispensaries in the City. The Bombay Improvement Trust provides 4 dispensaries and 2 hospitals for its employees. Among Government Departments in Bombay the Royal Indian Marine Dockyard maintains a dispensary under a permanent Medical Officer. The Yeravda Prison Hospital gives free medical aid to the employees of the Yeravda Prison Press. The Security Printing Press at Nasik has a dispensary with a Sub-Assistant Surgeon. The Social Service League conducts a charitable dispensary at Farel for the benefit of women and children of the poor, middle and working classes. The Textile Labour Union in Ahmedabad is the only association of employees which provides medical facilities for its members. There are also Government, Municipal or charitable hospitals and dispensaries which are open to the public and which are used by the labouring classes. In the United Provinces, many of the larger employers maintain dispensaries but no hospitals. The Jharkhand Fund, a private organisation aided by grants from Government and local bodies, maintains female hospitals at the most important towns. The Lady Chelmsford Maternity and Child Welfare League maintains a number of centres for child welfare and the treatment of maternity cases. Many of the employers in the Central Provinces and Berar have provided well-equipped dispensaries and medical facilities are within easy reach of the workers in almost all the factories and every important mining area in the Province. Some of the larger concerns in Bihar and Orissa and in the Punjab also provide medical facilities for their employees. In Madras only a few large factories provide dispensaries. Medical facilities in the plantations are fairly good. All the jute mills in the neighbourhood of Calcutta provide dispensaries but most of the doctors in charge are not registered medical graduates. In all the tea gardens in Assam and in Bengal medical attendance and medicines are provided for, for all classes of employees. The medical arrangements in a large number of estates are supervised by European medical officers. Well-equipped hospitals are also provided for the labour force in the mines and oil-fields in Assam. Part-time medical attendance and medicines are provided by the employers in the Assamoi Mines Board Area. Medical facilities are also provided in the mines in Madras. In the Jharia Mining Settlement eight hospitals are maintained by employers, the number of beds varying from 6 to 12 in each ward.

Sickness Insurance.

The Government of India considered the possibility of introducing a scheme of sickness insurance in India in connection with the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Tenth International Labour Conference in 1927 and came to the conclusion that owing to the migratory character of industrial labour the want of qualified medical practitioners in sufficient numbers, the existence of indigenous systems of medicine and the opposition of the worker to any system involving compulsory deductions from pay, it would not be practicable to introduce a comprehensive scheme of sickness insurance on the lines of the Conventions. The Government of India, however, invited the views of Local Governments in this matter. But it was pointed out that the Indian worker owing to his illiteracy would not appreciate the advantages of any such schemes and that he would object to the payment of any contribution particularly because he gets medical treatment free of charge in most cases. The main difficulty in the way of the introduction of any scheme of sickness insurance was stringency of finance. The recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour on this question are however, being awaited with interest.

Maternity Benefits

The first International Labour Conference at Washington in 1919 adopted a draft Convention concerning the employment of women before and after child birth. The Conference also adopted a resolution inviting the Government of India to make a study of the question of the employment of women before and after confinement and of maternity benefits in pursuance of certain suggestions put forward in the Legislative Assembly, the Government of India made enquiries in 1924 regarding the extent to which maternity benefit schemes were in force in India. The results were published in 1925 in Bulletin No. 82 of Indian Industries and Labour. Since that date maternity benefit schemes have been introduced by certain employers, an important scheme being started at Jamshedpur from January 1929 by the Tata Iron and Steel Company.

In September 1924, Mr. N. M. Joshi made the first attempt in the Legislative Assembly to introduce a Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefits in certain industries. Under this Bill, the Local Governments were to be asked to establish a Maternity Benefit Fund and to make payments out of this Fund. The Bill after circulating, was thrown out by the Assembly in August 1925. But the clue was taken up by some Provincial Legislatures and in August 1926 the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council passed a resolution recommending to Government to take early steps

to protect female labour employed in the coalfields and all industrial plants of the Province and to prohibit their employment during the advanced state of pregnancy and three weeks after childbirth.

A Maternity Benefits Bill was introduced in 1929 in the Central Provinces Council by Mr. R. W. Fulay a non-official member of the Council, and was referred to a Select Committee in August 1929. Maternity Benefits are being given at present at the Empress Mills at Nagpur and at four other factories in the Central Provinces. All these schemes are similar, leave on absence on full wages for a period varying from one to two months being given to expectant mothers who are required to obtain from the mill doctor an opinion regarding the probable date of confinement.

The only Province in India that has passed a Maternity Benefit Act is Bombay. The Act came into force on 1st July 1929. According to this Act, the payment of maternity benefits is an obligation which is imposed directly on the employer. The first annual Report on the administration of this Act shows there were 315 claims paid for 100 women employed and the total amount of maternity benefit paid under the act was Rs. 34,683 as 1. The Bombay Municipality has started since February 1928 a maternity benefit scheme by which benefit is given to halekhore and scavenging women in the form of leave with full pay not exceeding 42 consecutive days including the date of confinement as certified by the Executive Health Officer if the birth takes place in Bombay and by a Police Patel or by hospital authorities if it takes place out of Bombay.

In Assam, voluntary maternity benefit schemes have been adopted by almost every tea estate of repute. While pregnant women remain at work, they are put on light work on full rates of pay. During the period of advanced pregnancy and after childbirth leave on half pay is usually granted and in some cases full pay is allowed and a bonus at childbirth is often granted in addition. The bonus is in some cases conditional on the child being healthy. The Assam Railways and Trading Company the next largest employers of labour in Assam, grants six months' leave on half pay provided the women have been examined by the medical officers and attend hospital once a week. The Assam Oil Company grants leave on half pay for three months. On some estates in Cochin before District female colonies are fed free for a month before and a month after confinement. On other estates maternity benefit ranging from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 is paid and in some other estates free feeding of the women for two weeks before and three weeks after confinement is arranged.

WELFARE WORK.

(Excluding Health and Housing)

The importance of Welfare Work undertaken by employers to ameliorate conditions of work and leisure of their workers especially when they are not actually employed, and of the development of facilities for the utilisation of spare time, does not require too much emphasis. Facilities for sport and recreation are of great benefit to

the workers and provide a means of keeping them healthily employed during their leisure hours. Benefits derived from the provision of cheap grain shops, co-operative societies and stores, technical schools, etc., amount to a real increase in wages and are of greater advantage than actual increases in cash rates which might

be mispent. The modern system of large-scale production makes it impossible for the employer to pay individual attention to the numerous employees who are working in his factory and the absence of personal touch between the employer and the worker makes the provision of facilities for Welfare Work all the more necessary for the existence of a contented labour force. This aspect of the labour problem in India has, however, received little attention from employers as a whole and such efforts as have been made in the direction of ameliorating workers' conditions take the form more of providing medical and minor educational facilities and housing. Activities expressly directed towards the development of the physical, intellectual, material and moral qualities which is the object of those interested in the proper use of workers' spare time are practically negligible as far as employers are concerned except in the case of some of the larger organisations such as the Railways, the Port Trusts and a few individual employees and private organisations. The notable exceptions among individual employers are the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur, the Esplanade Mills at Nagpur, the Our Imbroy Group of Mills in Bombay, the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills at Sholapur, the British India Corporation at Calcutta and the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills at Madras.

The need of Welfare Work is all the greater in this country because of the migratory habits of the workers. Situated in strange surroundings the majority of workers are exposed to all the temptations of the life of great industrial cities which gradually make for their demoralisation and ruin. If the worker is encouraged to spend his time in healthy recreation he may be saved from the attractions of the liquor shop. The provision of facilities which will add a little colour to the drab life in industrial employment will also tend to draw the workers nearer to the employer. It is clear therefore that one of the most essential conditions for the maintenance of a stable and efficient labour force is an improvement in the working and living conditions of the labouring classes. Satisfactory labour conditions are a stimulus and not a handicap to industrial progress. And hence much stress should not be laid on the financial aspects of Welfare Work. Although the increase in efficiency of labour will not completely compensate the employer for the expenditure that he will incur for providing additional facilities for the amelioration of labour, the employer can always depend upon the moral support of the workers and will thus be free from heavy losses due to reckless strikes owing to the absence of harmonious relations between the employers and the employed.

At the same time it is necessary to bear in mind that welfare activities such as are conducted in highly organised factories in the West presuppose a certain cultural basis which in its turn, largely depends upon literacy. The vast majority of the workers in India are illiterate and it is not to be expected that they can appreciate benefits which presuppose a certain standard of education even though the standard may not be very high. It is also difficult to expect the wholehearted co-operation of workers in schemes which are foreign to their habits and modes of living. Thus, the attempts made to

start schools have failed in many cases from the lack of interest shown by employees. In the case of sports also the results have not been very encouraging. Attempts have been made to provide amusement either by indigenous games or cinema entertainments but these also have had very moderate success. The labour force in this country is generally of a temporary character and heterogeneous in composition. Workers of the same communities naturally try to form themselves into separate groups, thus introducing some complications in any general scheme of welfare work in spite of the above difficulties satisfactory progress has been achieved in recent years by individual employers and private organisations such as the Social Service League in Bombay. An All India Industrial Welfare Conference was convened in 1922 at Bombay by the Social Service League which had been entrusted since 1918 with the organisation and management of two workmen's institutes for the benefit of operatives employed in the cotton mills under the agencies of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ibrahim & Sons and Messrs. Tata & Sons. The Conference was attended by the representatives of the Central Government and of some of the Provincial Governments and was presided over by Mr. (now Sir) Atul Chatterjee. The object of the Conference was to discuss several problems connected with welfare work and to secure some co-ordination between the activities of the various agencies at the different centres.

In 1925 the Government of India requested all Provincial Governments to collect full and comprehensive information with regard to the measures undertaken and the efforts made to ameliorate the conditions under which the workers live when they are not actually employed. The enquiry originated as the result of the Recommendation adopted by the Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference in connexion with the development of facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time. The results of this enquiry which the Government of India hope to publish in due course will be of considerable interest. The Labour Office conducted an enquiry in the Bombay Presidency, the results of which were published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1927.

Apart from the few individual employers who have organised welfare work on modern lines the first organised attempt to introduce welfare activities of a particular type was taken by the Bombay Millowners' Association early this year. In a circular letter dated 8th January 1928, addressed to the mills affiliated to the Bombay Millowners' Association, this Association have requested all mills in Bombay City to give their wholehearted co-operation to their efforts for devising machinery for the improvement of the relations between the management and labour by giving immediate effect, wherever it is possible, among other things, to those classes of welfare work which have been uniformly successful—(a) periodical social gatherings of workpeople, (b) provision of free milk dispensaries as soon as financial considerations permit and (c) the establishment of canteens at all mills.

Employment of Welfare Officers and Workers.—The All-India Industrial Welfare Conference of 1922 passed a resolution that

social service organizations should be asked to take up the work of training welfare workers. The establishment of workers' committees in all industrial establishments was also urged but very little progress appears to have been made so far in this direction.

In the Bombay Presidency except in the case of the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills in Sholapur and the Currimbhoy Abraham Workmen's Institute at Bombay, no other employers have employed any special welfare officers or workers to conduct their welfare activities.

In Bihar and Orissa, the Tata Iron and Steel Company has recently appointed a welfare officer with an office and staff to co-ordinate the various welfare activities that have been carried on by the Steel Company.

In the Central Provinces and Berar, except at the Empress Mills, no regular staff of welfare officer and workers has been appointed.

In the United Provinces, the British India Corporation employ a full-time welfare superintendent and a trained staff consisting of 4 doctors, 5 nurses, 6 matrons, 8 compounders and a dozen midwives, 10 teachers and 2 sergeant patrols.

Messrs. Begg, Sutherland and Company have recently engaged the services of a superintendent to organize welfare work for their employees.

Provision of Educational Facilities by Employers.—A problem which is now assuming great importance is that relating to the education of the children of the workers from among whom the future supply of labour will be drawn but many workers do not keep their families with them for a sufficiently long period. The education of the adult workers presents difficulties because of the indifference of the average worker to education after the long hours of work in a factory. It is, however, being gradually realized that the efficiency of the workers cannot be sufficiently improved without education and some enlightened employers in the country have taken whatever measures that were possible to promote education among their workers also among their children whom they hope in time to attract to their mills. The nature of the special facilities provided in each Province for the education of the workers and their children are briefly as follows.

In Bengal, attempts have been made by some mills to set up day and night schools but many of such schools are reported to have been closed owing to the lack of interest shown by the employees. Except for the facilities for technical training that are provided at the Inchcape Mills Factory the Cosmopore Gum and Shell Factory and the Government Weaving School at Secampore there is little or no organised provision for industrial and vocational training in the industrial centres in Bengal.

In Bombay, the Bombay Municipality has introduced compulsory education in F and G Wards which are chiefly peopled by millhands. In the Government factories at Kiroke, the Kiroke Education Society which is well supported by the factory authorities conducts six night schools. The Golak Mills Company maintains one night school for adult workers. In Ahmedabad one mill runs a school for half-

timers and eight mills maintain schools for workers' children. Three mills in the Sholapur district and the Government workshop at Dapur provide for the primary education of half-timers.

The Social Service League, Bombay, maintains 9 night schools and a Textile Technical School at Parel, for imparting practical and theoretical training to actual mill workers. The Bombay Y.M.C.A. conducts 14 night schools with an average daily attendance of about 200. The Ahmedabad Labour Union conducted in 1928, 10 day schools, 12 night schools, one nursery school, one boarding school for boys and one boarding school for girls.

In Bihar and Orissa, the Tata Iron and Steel Company has established a Technical Institute at Jamshedpur to train in theory and practice certain selected students for positions in the operating departments. The Company also maintains twenty-two schools for the education of the children of its employees.

In Madras, seventy factories registered under the Indian Factories Act have provided schools for half-timers and in some cases for employees' children also. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills maintain a day as well as a night school. The day school is an elementary school with 5 standards and has a technical section attached to it.

In Burma, very few firms provide facilities for education. The Burma Oil Company maintains schools in the Yenang Yaug Oilfield for about 800 children and proposes to start a night school for its employees. The Burma Corporation makes an annual donation of Rs. 1,000 for the maintenance of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School at Nambu and is also constructing a school at Bawdwin for the education of the children of its employees.

In the United Provinces, the British India Corporation maintained in 1928 four day schools for boys and girls, two night schools and two industrial classes, for employees. The High Mills at Cawnpore, the United Agra Mills, Agra, and the B. N. W. Railway Workshops at Gorakhpur also provide for the education of the children of the employees.

In the Punjab, only the new Egerton Woollen Mills Company, Dhariwal, maintains a school.

In the Central Provinces and Berar the Empress Mills in Nagpur have Nursery and primary classes for the children in the creches. The educational work outside the mills is conducted by the Young Men's Christian Association which has established 9 centres where the mill workers reside. Of these 8 centres have night schools. The Empress Mills also make annual contributions of about Rs. 2,500 to other schools where the children of the work people study.

In Assam, some of the tea gardens maintain schools for children but these schools are not popular as the labourers are generally recruited from the aboriginal tribes with whom education is at a discount particularly as it interferes with the earnings of their children who find employment in the gardens. The Assam Oil Company maintains a Middle English School and the Assam Railway and Trading Company provides a Middle English and a Primary School for the children of their employees. No industry provides schools for adult labourers.

RAILWAYS.

Recreation.—Railways as a group are the largest employers of labour in India and their welfare work is therefore being dealt with separately. All Railways provide facilities for

recreation for their employees and their children. The number of recreational clubs or institutes provided on each railway are shown in the following table —

Name of Railway	NUMBER OF INSTITUTES FOR	
	Europeans and Anglo-Indians	Indians.
North-Western Railway	32	19
East Indian Railway	33	26
Eastern Bengal Railway	11	14
Burma Railways	15 in all	
Great Indian Peninsula Railway	27	29 (2 for all nationalities)
Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway	17	12
Bengal Nagpur Railway	14	19
Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway	24	7
South Indian Railway	19 in all	

Each institute is regarded as a club provided by the Railway free of rent. The institutes provide a reading room, indoor and outdoor games, etc., and are generally self-supporting although grants are made from fine funds to meet the recurring expenses in deserving cases. The railways also undertake to recover the subscriptions of the members through the paybooks and to remit them to the manager of the institute. The membership of the institutes is compulsory on some railways.

Sports committees and athletic clubs have been formed on several railways e.g. the G I P and the East Indian Railways with the object of promoting athletic sports among the employees and organizing tournaments. The Indian Railway Athletic Association has been recently formed for the promotion and development of inter-railway athletic competitions of all kinds. This is a registered association and its membership is open to the Railway Board and its subordinate offices as well as to railways which are parties to the Indian Railway Conference Association. Inter-district or inter-divisional competitions are also run by local sports committees with the idea of encouraging sports among all classes of staff. The inter-railway boxing, wrestling and foot-ball competitions are arranged in four groups.

The classes shown and magic lantern lectures are being recently organized for the recreation of railway employees are growing in popularity with the staff.

Education.—Almost all Railways provide facilities for the education of their literate staff as well as the children of Railway employees. The progress made in this direction on each railway may be briefly stated as follows —

The M. W. Railway have started two experimental schools for adult workers in the running locomotive sheds at Lahore and Sialkot respectively. It is also intended to open

another at Kotri shed shortly. The experiment has so far been confined to the locomotive staff as the majority of the staff in this branch are illiterate and education provides a great inducement in that wages can practically be doubled by qualifying for promotion to the higher grades of running staff. The East Indian Railway provide 37 schools for the employees of the Operating Department. The Eastern Bengal Railway provide 9 night schools for adult employees the daily average attendance at these schools being 309. On the Burma Railways educational facilities for adult workmen have hitherto proved a failure and another experimental school has recently been opened for firemen.

The B E & C I Railway has recently opened classes for imparting instruction in the three R's at 3 centres on the Broad Gauge and 3 on the Metre Gauge systems. As an inducement to study a bonus of Rs. 5 is paid to each man passing a simple test. On the A B Railway, the Locomotive Department holds classes at Luding, Badarpur and Chittagong to assist drivers to qualify as English speaking which grade carries a higher pay. The only facilities given by the B & N W Railway are first aid classes and subjects of a technical nature in the Locomotive Department. The Bengal Nagpur Railway provides 14 schools for imparting elementary training in reading, writing and rudimentary arithmetic to Indian drivers, shunters and firemen so as to enable them to make themselves personally acquainted with the rules and orders affecting train working. On the M & S M. Railway there are two night schools at Hubli and Guntakal respectively both of which receive financial support from the Company.

Schools for the education of adult workmen do not exist on the G I P. Railway but a school is established at Bina for imparting technical instruction and conducting refresher courses in Railway working.

For Workers' Children.—The facilities provided for the education of the children of railway employees are as under:

97 schools for European and Anglo-Indian children and 123 schools for Indian children are maintained at suitable centres and the total number of pupils on the rolls is 4,155 and 15,987 respectively. The total expenditure from revenue on the European and Anglo-Indian schools is Rs. 402 lakhs per annum and on the Indian schools Rs. 1.4 lakhs. The Railway Department also aids certain schools for children of railway employees. The total number of children in railway aided schools is 3,531 (European and Anglo-Indian) and 7,704 (Indian) and the total annual grants made by the Railway are Rs. 49,505 and Rs. 46,584 respectively. The Railway Department also gives direct financial assistance to its employees towards the education of their children in certain hill schools. The total expenditure on this account in 1927-28 was Rs. 3.5 lakhs for Europeans and Anglo-Indians and Rs. 28.8 thousands for Indians.

Facilities are also afforded by the grant of passes and concession tickets to enable the children to attend schools.

The present methods of assistance have recently evoked public criticism on the score of their being more favourable to European and Anglo-Indian employees than to the Indian and with a view to eliminating all trace of racial discrimination the Railway Board placed Mr. C. R. W. Jones C.I.E., I.E.S., on special duty in 1927 with instructions to collect all facts and figures regarding the assistance given by railways for the education of the children of their employees. On consideration of Mr. Jones' report the Board have now formulated their future policy on the following lines:—

All railway schools would be transferred to local authorities or private bodies, special grants being given out of railway funds where neces-

sary. The assistance given by the Railway Department would be confined to employees who draw pay below a prescribed maximum and obliged to send their children to boarding schools. The assistance would take the form of grants to the employees on a fixed proportion not exceeding one-half of the board and tuition fees, the proportion depending upon the pay drawn by the parent and falling with the increase in pay. The assistance would be open to all employees without distinction of community race or creed.

Several companies' railways have also signified their willingness to adopt a similar policy. But the question is still receiving further consideration because of the representations received in connexion with the scheme.

Welfare Funds.—The fine funds to which are credited the provident funds become forfeited as well as the fines levied on the staff have formed a valuable source from which it has been possible for Agents to give assistance to the subordinate staff for recreation and educational purposes as well as compassionate grants in cases of exceptional hardship. The principal railways contributed in 1923-24 Rs. 81 thousand for schools and Rs. 3.06 lakhs for recreation clubs from the fine fund.

Co-operation.—The Railway Administration have noticed that heavy indebtedness degrades the employee and impairs his efficiency and they have therefore encouraged the formation of co-operative credit societies and co-operative stores by the employees.

Co-operative Credit Societies have been formed on all railways and are managed by committees generally elected from among the shareholders. But in some cases the heads of the departments are required to be the chairman of the Committees and they have power to nominate some of the members of the committee.

WAGES

It was in 1873 that one of the earliest attempts to collect wage statistics in India was made by issuing instructions to District Officers to submit half yearly returns showing the average monthly wages of certain classes of skilled and unskilled labour. The returns thus collected were utilised for compiling a series of comparable statistics of wages for selected Districts in each Province and these statistics were published in the publication "Prices and Wages" issued annually by the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics. A reference however, to Mr. Dutt's Report on an Inquiry into Rise of Prices in India would show that these statistics were found to be wholly unreliable and consequently these half yearly returns from District Officers have been discontinued since 1918. In their place a quinquennial wage census was adopted in all Provinces, except in the Central Provinces where an annual return was obtained from District Officers. The first quinquennial wage census was held in 1911-12 and the second in 1916-17. The statistics regarding wages continued to be published in "Prices and Wages" which gave the results of the quinquennial wage census in respect of a few urban and rural occupations. As the statistics were still far from satisfactory the third wage

census, which was due in 1921-22, was abandoned except in Madras and the Punjab. In 1921 an attempt was made by the Government of India to hold an All India census of industrial wages with the active and voluntary co-operation of employers but nothing could be done partly because a number of employers either failed to submit returns or submitted incomplete returns and partly because neither the Central nor the Local Governments were able to provide the staff required for the purpose owing to financial stringency. The annual issues of Prices and Wages were also suspended in 1922 as a result of retrenchment and no regular official wage statistics are now published for British India as a whole.

In the United Provinces a scheme for a census of industrial wages to be taken along with the regular census was considered but was not carried through. A periodical survey of wages has been carried out every five years since 1912 in the Punjab. These surveys deal with the wages of certain classes of workers in three principal forms: in selected villages unaffected by urban conditions, and at certain Railway stations to secure a means of comparison with rural wages in the same neighbourhood. Beyond

the figures of average monthly wages of certain classes of labour submitted by factories in all Provinces every year for inclusion in the annual Reports on the Administration of the Indian Factories Act, no regular and detailed statistics of industrial wages are available in Bengal and in the Central Provinces and Berar. In Madras quinquennial wages censuses have been conducted since 1906 showing the average wages of certain artisans (as well as farm servants employed in agricultural labour) in respect of homogenous tracts and districts. These censuses, however, only related to rural and urban wages and not to industrial wages. A thorough investigation of the conditions of labour and particularly the rates of wages on tea estates in

Assam was made in 1921-22 by a Committee appointed by the Government of that Province. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted three enquiries into the wages of workers in the cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency in 1921-1923 and 1923 respectively. Apart from these enquiries, the Labour Office has also conducted enquiries into (1) Wages of peons in Bombay (2) Agricultural Wages, (3) Wages of Municipal workers, (4) Clerical Wages in Bombay City and (5) Wages of Printing Press Workers in selected Printing Presses in Bombay City. The results of all these enquiries except the last have been published either in the form of special Reports or in the "Labour Gazette".

WAGE RATES.

Agriculture—Whether wages paid to agricultural labour in India have kept pace with the increase in the cost of living is, for several reasons, a very difficult question to answer. Firstly conditions vary so markedly between provinces and province that it is almost impossible to obtain accurate and comparable figures of wages for different classes of agricultural labour. Secondly there exists a variety of methods adopted for remunerating the workers engaged in different agricultural areas in India. For example, in the Punjab, there are four forms of wages, such as (a) purely cash wages, (b) cash wages with supplements which may consist of food, tobacco, lodging, bedding, clothing, etc. (c) purely grain wages, and (d) wages other than in cash or grain. In the Punjab the last quinquennial wages survey was held in December 1927. This survey shows that the following were the average daily wages of the three important classes of agricultural labour in rural areas in the Punjab—

Carpenters	16 to 32 annas a day
Masons	16 to 33 annas a day
Unskilled labourers	5½ to 16½ annas a day

As regards the last occupation it may be pointed out that the most frequent wage was between 7½ to 8½ annas. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay published a Report in 1924 of an Enquiry into Wages in Agriculture which gave the average daily earnings of three classes of agricultural labour, viz. skilled labour, ordinary labour and field labour in each of the 28 districts of the Bombay Presidency separately for urban areas and rural areas

for each of 23 years from 1908 to 1922. The figures for each year from 1923 to 1927 have been published in the Bombay Administration Reports. The wages prevailing in other provinces for similar types of labour do not compare very unfavourably with wages in the Bombay Presidency for any particular year for which a comparison is made. This statement requires an important qualification. It is not meant that the money amounts actually paid are similar. The rates of wages in different provinces vary according to the extent of their industrialisation and money wages in provinces which are mainly agricultural are on a lower level than the money wages in Provinces which are highly industrialised such as Bombay and Bengal. There is no doubt whatever that wages have considerably improved in all parts of India between 1915 to 1928. Taking the Bombay Presidency as a whole the downward tendency in the level of wages which set in 1925 and continued up to the end of 1927 was checked during the year 1928 during which period wages of all classes of agricultural labour, except field labour in urban areas and ordinary labour in rural areas either remained stationary or showed a definite upward tendency.

Comparison of conditions in India to-day with the pre-war year shows that during this particular period the condition of the Indian labourer has undoubtedly improved. This is amply proved by the figures given below showing the index numbers of daily average wages of skilled labourers, ordinary labourers and field labourers for urban areas and for rural areas for the Bombay Presidency.

AGRICULTURAL WAGES (NOMINAL)
Index Numbers for the Bombay Presidency (including Sind) 1913=100

Year	Urban areas			Rural Areas		
	Field Labour	Ordinary Labour	Skilled Labour	Field Labour	Ordinary Labour	Skilled Labour
1921	179	184	180	169	148	186
1922	189	192	195	170	148	179
1923	200	200	196	171	157	187
1924	195	198	209	178	161	191
1925	221	208	224	208	161	211
1926	221	204	216	198	161	215
1927	200	192	211	179	176	206
1928	191	192	212	199	215	210
1929	188	193	206	180	179	213

The Cotton Textile Industry.—The most important centres of the cotton textile industry in India are situated in the Bombay Presidency. The main sources of information as regards the wages paid in this industry are the Reports of three Enquiries conducted by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay, into Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry in the Bombay Presidency.

It is claimed that the 1926 Enquiry as compared with the previous two Enquiries was more satisfactory in its method, more detailed in its scope and more accurate and reliable in its results as the information collected related to each individual worker and not to groups of workers in each occupation as was the case in the previous Enquiries. The results of this Enquiry give among other things figures for average daily earnings of all occupations of cotton mill operatives, average monthly earnings for operatives covered in Bombay and Sholapur, the average number of days worked, the number of operatives working full time i.e., working on all the working days during the Census month, the average earnings of these working full time, frequency of attendance for the mills in Bombay the percentage absenteeism by departments and details regarding amounts of bonuses secured by the workers.

Wages in the Bombay and the Sholapur mills are paid monthly irrespective of the fact whether they are based on time rates or piece rates or fixed on a daily or a monthly basis or in any other manner. While in the case of the Ahmedabad mills wages are paid fortnightly or by haptas referring to a period generally of 14 days for piece workers and to a period of 14 days for time workers.

Different systems are adopted at these three centres with regard to the methods of calculating wages. In the case of the mills in Bombay City there is first a 'basic' rate to which is added a dearness allowance of 80 per cent. for male piece workers and 70 per cent. for male time workers and all female workers. Those mills which grant a good attendance bonus add the amount of the bonus granted, to the gross wage from which are deducted any fines that might be inflicted before arriving at the net wages payable.

The term 'basic' in the case of the Bombay mills may be generally considered to apply to the pre-war year although in the case of some individual mills it might apply to any year between 1913 and 1918 in which year the first increase of 15 per cent. was granted as dearness allowance. This was increased to 35 per cent. on the 1st January 1919. The next increase granted on 1st February 1920 was 20 per cent. extra to male workers on time rates and to female workers both on time and piece rates, and 40 per cent. extra to male operatives on piece rates—the total percentages amounting to 55 and 75 respectively. On the 1st November 1920 the 55 per cent. was raised to 70 per cent. and the 75 per cent. to 80 per cent. There have been no changes in these percentages since the year 1921.

In the Ahmedabad mills there is a complete lack of uniformity in the methods adopted for calculating the dearness additions and deductions before arriving at the final earnings.

The methods of calculating wages in Sholapur are different from those in Bombay and Ahmedabad. There are five items which go to make the full wage of an operative. These items are (1) the basic rate, (2) dearness allowance which is 35 per cent. in the case of all female workers and all male time workers and 40 per cent. in the case of all male piece workers, (3) the number of grace days granted for which payment is made, (4) bonus, and (5) the benefit derived for the grain co-operation. The following table gives the average daily earnings by centres for all adult male operatives, all adult female operatives, all children and all adult operatives, covered by the 1926 Enquiry —

Centre	AVERAGE DAILY EARNINGS FOR			
	Men	Women	Children	All adults.
	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.
Bombay	1 8 0	0 11 11		1 5 3
Ahmedabad	1 6 8	0 12 6	0 5 6	1 4 8
Sholapur	1 0 5	0 6 8	0 4 0	0 14 8

The average monthly earnings of all workers in mills selected for the 1926 Enquiry at Bombay and Sholapur in the month of July 1926 in each age and sex group were as follows —

Sex and Age group	CENTRE.	
	Bombay	Sholapur
	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.
Men	37 10 2	23 15 5
Women	17 12 4	9 15 7
Children		5 10 4
All adults	32 14 0	21 7 9

The following table shows by centres for each sex and age group the average monthly earnings of all operatives who worked on all the working days in the census months for Bombay and Sholapur and for Ahmedabad. The figures for Ahmedabad were arrived at, by multiplying the average daily earnings by 27.

Average monthly earnings of Full Time Workers

Sex and Age group.	CENTRE.		
	Bombay	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur
	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.
Men	44 3 6	28 8 6	28 10 2
Women	20 4 9	20 15 8	11 6 7
Children		9 4 6	6 12 10
All adults	40 4 6	35 0 3	24 6 1

Occupations.	Average Daily Earnings in			Occupations	Average Daily Earnings in		
	Bombay July 1925	Ahmed- abad May 1926	Shola- pur July 1926		Bombay July 1925	Ahmed- abad May 1926	Shola- pur July 1926
<i>Men</i>	R s a p	R s a p	R s a p.	<i>Men</i>	R s a p	R s a p	R s a p.
Head Jobbers	3 15 4 3	1 8 2 13 5		Turners	2 13 2 2	6 7 1 8	
Other Jobbers	2 4 0 1	1 1 6 1 12 1		Blacksmiths	2 10 6 2	5 3 2 0 0	
Mixing Kawghanias	1 2 2 0	1 4 7 0 12 5		Timemiths	2 9 2 2	2 0 1 1 2	
Drawing Frame Ten- turers	1 4 8 1	1 3 0 12 4		Masons	2 1 0 2	5 4 1 5 6	
Shutting Frame Ten- turers	1 6 3 1	3 0 0 13 3		Moulders	2 12 4 2	2 7 2 3 9	
Inter Frame Tenters	1 4 6 1	0 1 1 0 12 9		Assistant Moulders	2 3 10 1	4 1 0 10 4	
Revolving Frame Ten- turers	1 3 8 1	0 4 0 11 4		Carpenters	2 7 5 2	9 2 1 10 11	
Ring Siders	1 0 3 0	1 5 2 0 11 5		Fitters	2 15 4 2	10 1 2 6 9	
Ring Doffers	0 12 1 0	1 0 7 0 8 1		Assistant Fitters	1 9 4 1	6 6 1 3	
Winders	0 14 1 0	1 3 3 0 7 10		Others	1 2 6 1	2 7 0 13 11	
Warpers	2 1 0 2	1 7 1 12 6		Moories	1 2 0 1	9 7 0 12 1	
Creelers	0 13 2 0	1 0 7 0 9 8		Coolies	0 15 1 1	0 14 1 0 11 3	
Front Sizers	3 1 5 1	1 3 7 1 9 9		Sweepers	0 13 6 0	13 5 0 10 8	
Back Sizers	1 9 9 0	1 5 9 1 0 8		<i>Women</i>			
Two Loom Weavers	1 13 4 1	1 3 5 1 9 9		Waste pickers	0 8 8 0	8 5 0 4 10	
All Weavers	1 13 1 1	1 4 1 1 5 11		Ring Siders	0 15 2 0	15 1 0 11 0	
Front Folders	0 15 9 0	1 5 9 0 11 10		Ring Doffers	0 11 5 0	10 5 0 7 10	
Back Folders	0 15 0 0	1 5 1 0 11 1		Winders	0 12 1 0	12 7 0 6 4	
Sarangs	2 1 10 1	5 10 1 14 4		Reelers	0 10 1 1	0 14 5 0 6 9	
Engine Drivers	4 3 10 1	1 13 1 12 5		Coilles	0 9 5 0	9 9 0 6 7	
Firemen	1 5 4 1	7 1 1 3 9		Sweepers	0 8 8 0	9 2 0 5 9	

The available information in connexion with cotton mill workers in other provinces is reproduced below

Occupation	Central Provinces Range of wages per month (in one mill)	Bengal Range of wages per month	Punjab Average wage per month	Madras Average daily earnings
	R s.	R s.	R s a p	R s a p
Spinner Picer	15 to 24	15-12-0 to 23-8-0	27 0 0	0 9 9
Weaver	22 to 50	40	38 0 0	0 15 11
Dyer	15 to 26		23 0 0	
Doffer	14 to 15	16-6-0 to 23		
Frame Tenter	20 to 29	15-4-0 to 23-8-0		
Reelers (women)	10 to 17	13 to 14	22 0 0	
Warper	21 to 26			
Sluer	20 to 29			
Finisher	17 to 23			
Blacksmiths	62 to 63	34 to 43		
Turners	62 to 63	31 to 50		
Carpenters	39 to 63	22		
Fitters	62 to 122	33 to 46		

Jute Industry

The jute industry holds the premier position amongst the industries in the Bengal Presidency. The following table gives the average monthly wages of some important occupations in a jute mill. The figures are not the exact averages of wages of the total number of employees in the industry. They are averages obtained from the actual payments made in some representative mills.

Department.	Designation	Average monthly wages	
		Multiple shift.	Single shift.
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Rs a p</i>	<i>Rs a p</i>
Roving Machines	Rovers	12 15 0	14 7 0
	Shifters	12 6 0	14 2 0
Spinning Frames	Warp spinners	13 4 0	15 14 0
	Wet spinners	16 0 0	17 10 0
Winding	Bobbin cleaners	10 0 0	11 0 0
	Warp winders (piece workers)	21 6 0	23 0 0
Weaving	Wet (,)	24 6 0	25 2 0
	Hessian weavers (,)	23 3 0	31 0 0
Dressing and Benning	Sacking weavers (piece workers)	29 5 0	32 1 0
	Boomers and dressers	28 8 0	32 0 0
Sack sewing workers	Machine sewers (piece)	21 11 0	25 10 0
Sewing machine	Others	19 0 0	23 8 0
Engineering Section	Firemen	23 1 0	30 2 0
Engine Staff	Mason	34 0 0	34 0 0
Workshop hands—			
Machine shop fitting	Carpenters (Chinese)	35 0 0	33 5 0
	Carpenters (Indian)	30 0 0	33 2 0
Tin Smithy	Turners (Metal)	40 0 0	40 0 0
	Tin Smith	30 0 0	30 0 0
Blacksmith shop	Blacksmith	36 0 0	36 0 0
	<i>Women</i>		
Batching Softeners	Feeders	11 12 0	13 5 0
	Receivers	11 6 0	13 5 0
Teasers	Feeders	9 6 0	12 0 0
	Receivers	9 8 0	11 13 0
Preparing Breaker Carding Machines	Feeders	9 0 0	11 2 0
	Receivers	9 0 0	11 2 0
Finishing Carding Machines	Feeders	10 6 0	11 7 0
	Receivers	9 7 0	11 0 0
Drawing machines	Feeders	10 0 0	11 2 0
	Receivers	10 0 0	11 2 0
Roving machines	Feeders	10 0 0	11 0 0
	Sweepers	9 6 0	11 2 0
Twist Frames	Twisters	13 6 0	14 16 0
	Sweepers	12 1 0	12 10 0
Sack Sewing	Hand Sewers	18 5 0	14 11 0

It will be seen from the above table that there is an appreciable monetary advantage to workers in the single-shift system.

MINES.

The tables given below show the daily earnings in the month of December for each of the two years 1928 and 1929 for workers in the main occupations in coalfields and the other important mines, in British India.

Daily earnings of underground workers in important coalfields in British India.

Coalfields.	Over men & Sirdars Foremen & Matas		Miners		Loaders	
	1928	1929	1928	1929	1928	1929
	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.
Jharia (Bihar and Orissa)	1 4 9	1 4 9	0 13 6	0 13 6	0 10 9	0 11 0
Baniganj (Bengal)	1 1 9	1 2	0 12 6	0 13 0	0 10 3	0 10 3
Girdih (Bihar and Orissa)	1 7 3	1 7 3	0 13 9	0 12 9	0 10 9	0 12 0
Assam	1 2 9	1 8 0	1 7 0	1 5 6	1 3 0	1 3 6
Punjab	1 3 3	1 15 0	0 14 3	0 14 3	0 1 9	0 12 6
Baluchistan	1 10 3	1 7 3	1 3 3	1 2 0	1 2 3	1 1 9
Pench Valley (C P)	1 6 0	1 4 4	1 0 6	1 2 0	0 8 6	0 10 6

II

Coalfields	Skilled Labour		Unskilled Labour		Females	
	1928	1929	1928	1929	1928	1929
	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.
Jharia (Bihar and Orissa)	0 13 0	0 12 9	0 9 9	0 9 9	0 8 9	0 8 6
Baniganj (Bengal)	0 12 6	0 12 3	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 7 0	0 7 6
Girdih (Bihar and Orissa)	0 14 0	0 14 3	0 7 9	0 8 0	0 6 9	0 7 0
Assam	1 2 0	1 2 3	0 13 9	0 14 6		
Punjab	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 9 3	0 8 3		
Baluchistan	0 13 6	1 4 9				
Pench Valley (C P)	0 9 6	0 10 6	0 8 0	0 9 3	0 7 6	0 7 6

Daily Earnings of Workers engaged on Open Workings in Important Coalfields in British India

Coalfields.	Over Men and Sirdars Foremen and Matas		Miners		Loaders.	
	1928	1929	1928	1929	1928	1929
	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.	Rs a p.
Jharia (Bihar and Orissa)	1 3 6	1 2 0	0 14 0	0 13 9	0 5 6	0 11 6
Baniganj (Bengal)	1 14 9	0 14 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 7 0	0 7 0
Girdih (Bihar and Orissa)	1 0 0	0 14 3	0 12 0	0 11 9	0 9 0	0 8 3
Assam	1 8 0	1 2 6	1 5 3	1 1 0	1 3 0	1 0 3
Punjab	1 1 6		1 0 0			
Baluchistan						
Pench Valley (C P)						

II.

Coalfields.	Skilled Labour		Unskilled Labour		Females.	
	1928	1929	1928	1929	1928	1929
Jharia (Bihar and Orissa)	Rs. a p 0 10 6	Rs. a p 0 12 9	Rs. a p 0 7 9	Rs. a p 0 9 9	Rs. a p 0 8 3	Rs. a p 0 8 6
Raniganj (Bengal)	0 11 6	0 12 3	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 6 0	0 7 6
Girdih (Bihar and Orissa)		0 14 3		0 8 0	0 6 0	0 7 0
Assam	1 6 0	1 2 3	1 0 9	0 14 6	1 4 0	
Punjab		0 12 0		0 8 3		
Baluchistan		1 4 9				
Pench Valley (C P)	0 8 0		0 6 0		0 6 0	

Daily Earnings of Labourers working on Surface in important Coalfields in British India.

Coalfields	Skilled Labour		Unskilled Labour		Females	
	1928	1929	1928	1929	1928	1929
Jharia (Bihar and Orissa)	Rs. a p 0 12 3	Rs. a p 0 13 3	Rs. a p 0 8 6	Rs. a p 0 8 9	Rs. a p 0 6 9	Rs. a p 0 6 9
Raniganj (Bengal)	0 11 6	0 11 6	0 8 6	0 8 6	0 5 9	0 6 0
Girdih (Bihar and Orissa)	0 14 3	1 14 0	0 7 9	0 8 0	0 5 9	0 5 9
Assam	1 0 6	0 13 9	0 11 9	0 11 0	0 7 9	0 8 0
Punjab	1 2 9	0 14 0	0 8 9	0 11 3	0 4 6	0 6 9
Baluchistan	1 0 0	1 14 9	2 8 0	1 3 0		
Pench Valley (C P)	0 10 3		0 11 9		0 5 9	

Daily earnings of labourers working in underground mines other than coalfields —

Mining fields excluding coal	Skilled labour		Unskilled Labour		Females.	
	1928	1929	1928	1929	1928	1929
Mica—	Rs. a p	Rs. a p	Rs. a p	Rs. a p	Rs. a p	Rs. a p
Bihar & Orissa	0 8 0	0 6 9	0 4 9	0 5 0	0 4 9	0 4 0
Madras	0 6 3	0 6 0	0 4 9	0 5 6	0 3 6	0 6 6
Manganese—						
Central Provinces	1 0 0	1 0 6	0 7 9	0 7 0	0 6 6	
Madras						
Limestone—						
Central Provinces						
Iron—						
Bihar & Orissa						
Burma	2 10 0	2 11 0	1 8 3	1 5 6		
Tin—						
Burma	2 0 0	1 4 6	1 2 0	1 3 0		1 1 0
Salt—						
Punjab	0 15 3	1 1 3	1 3 0	1 10 9	0 8 0	0 8 9
China Clay—						
Bihar & Orissa				0 6 3		0 4 6
Slate—						
Punjab	0 4 0	0 8 0	0 2 2	0 3 0		
Stone—						
United Provinces						

Daily earnings of workers engaged in open workings in mines other than coal —

Mining fields excluding coal.	Skilled labour		Unskilled labour		Females.	
	1928	1929	1928.	1929	1928.	1929
	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.	Rs. a p.
Mica—						
Bihar & Orissa	0 7 9	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 4 9	0 4 0	0 4 0
Madras	0 5 6	0 5 9	0 4 3	0 6 9	0 3 8	0 3 8
Manganese—						
Central Provinces	0 15 9	0 14 3	0 7 3	0 7 9	0 4 9	0 5 3
Madras	0 6 0	0 5 3	0 7 9	0 7 0	0 3 6	0 4 3
Limestone—						
Central Provinces	0 12 9	0 14 9	0 8 9	0 8 9	0 5 0	0 4 6
Iron—						
Bihar & Orissa	0 14 3	0 13 6	0 7 0	0 7 9	0 5 9	0 5 9
Lead—						
Burma			1 5 9	1 0 0		
Tin—						
Burma	1 15 6	1 11 8	1 5 0	1 5 0	0 12 0	0 13 8
Salt—						
Punjab						
China Clay—						
Bihar & Orissa	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 3 3	0 3 3
Slate—						
Punjab	0 8 0	0 7 3	0 6 0	0 4 8		1 4 9
Stone—						
United Provinces	0 7 9	0 5 6	0 6 6	0 5 9	0 4 9	0 4 9

Daily earnings of workers engaged on surface in mines other than coal —

Mica—	0 8 9	0 9 0	0 6 9	0 6 3	0 4 0	0 4 0
Bihar & Orissa	0 8 9	0 7 6	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 3 3	0 3 8
Madras						
Manganese—						
Central Provinces	1 3 3	1 0 0	0 7 9	0 8 0	0 4 9	0 4 9
Madras	0 13 6	0 10 0	0 13 0	1 1 6	0 5 0	0 4 9
Limestone—						
Central Provinces	0 7 6	0 7 0	0 8 0	0 10 6	0 4 6	0 3 9
Iron—						
Bihar & Orissa	1 0 0	1 4 0	0 6 9	0 6 9	0 5 6	0 5 0
Lead—						
Burma	3 12 3	3 13 0	1 6 3	1 5 3	0 10 0	
Tin—						
Burma	2 4 9	2 9 6	1 2 3	1 3 0	0 1 0	0 15 8
Salt—						
Punjab	1 2 9	1 1 3	0 11 9	0 13 3	0 8 3	
China Clay—						
Bihar & Orissa	0 9 9	0 9 3	0 5 6	0 6 6	0 3 9	0 4 0
Slate—						
Punjab			0 7 0	0 7 3		
Stone—						
United Provinces	0 5 9	0 8 9	0 11 6	0 13 9	0 2 6	0 4 0

Gins and Presses

The male coolies in the gin factories in Madras and the Punjab earn on an average annas 8 per day while the female coolies get only as 5-1 and as 6 respectively. In the Central Provinces the average daily earnings of male and female coolies are as 10-2 and As. 5-10 respectively.

The average daily wages of female press coolies in Madras and the Central Provinces amount to annas 5-10 while those of male coolies amount to annas 9-6 and annas 13-10 respectively.

The Plantations.—Labour in the tea gardens in Assam is paid on a piece-work basis in addition to the standard daily task which the worker must execute in order to reap his wages (called *Horive*) the labourer is given an opportunity at certain seasons to supplement his earnings by the performance of second task the payment for which is known as *Meos*. In some cases where it is impracticable to prescribe a definite task as in leaf plucking at the beginning and the end of the season payment is made by time. A distinctive feature of work

In the gardens is that the labourer usually brings his family with him and the wife and sometimes the children are also wage earners. The joint earnings of a family must always be taken into consideration. The average family of a labourer has been calculated as consisting of one working man, one working woman about three-tenths of a working child and non working child and about two tenths of an adult non-working dependant. The following table gives the average monthly earnings of the labourers in the tea gardens in Assam.

Table showing the average family monthly earnings in the tea gardens in Assam calculated on the average daily strength in 1914 1922 and 1928

District.	1914	1922	1928
	Rs n p	Rs a p	Rs s p
Durrang Sadr	14 14 10 18	15 8 24 13	5
Managadai	11 11 5 18	15 28 4 2	2
Jorhat	16 11 9 18	8 10 23 2	7
Jorhat	15 7 21 8	0 11 23 4	4
Sibsagar	14 16 11 20	1 0 24 12	1
Gulaghat	14 0 11 17	7 4 22 0	5
Lakhimpur Sadr	18 2 4 21	15 2 30 11	3
North Lakhimpur	15 13 10 23	4 3 24 4	2
Cachar Sadr	13 13 8 15	0 4 19 2	8
Hadia Kandi	13 11 7 15	8 10 19 10	8
North Sylhet	13 0 4 14	2 10 20 11	7
Karimganj	13 7 7 15	14 1 19 11	4
South Sylhet	13 15 0 15	13 8 21 7	11
Habibganj	14 12 1 16	8 9 21 6	6

Periods of Wage Payment—There is a complete absence of uniformity as regards the periods for which payments of wages are made in the various important branches of organised industry in India. In scarcely any industry is there a single period of wage payment. Different systems are found in establishments belonging to the same industry and in the same district and within the same establishment different classes of workers are frequently paid for different periods. The month the fortnight and the week are, generally the periods of wage payment in Cement and Brick Works, Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories, Flour Mills and Engineering Works. Monthly payment of wages is mainly adopted for workers in Printing Presses, Moulding, Tramways and Railways. In the Cotton Mill industry wages are calculated on a monthly basis in all the mills outside Ahmedabad. In the case of the Ahmedabad mills, wages of process operatives are calculated on a fortnightly basis and of workers in the maintenance department on a monthly basis.

In tulces, tea gardens and rice mills the predominant periods of wage payment are a month and a week. In jute mills wages are calculated per week. Wages are calculated on both the monthly and the fortnightly basis in the Iron and Steel Industry, Sugar Mills and in Tanneries. The system of monthly payment appears to be universal in its application to supervisory and clerical staffs engaged in all different industrial establishments, while the

most general system in the case of casual labour is of a daily payment of wages.

Periods elapsing before payment—The waiting period or the time which elapses between the end of the period for which wages are earned and the date of payment varies considerably from industry to industry and from establishment to establishment in the same industry. It may be generally stated that the longer the wage period the more delayed is the payment of wages. Monthly wages are not paid so promptly as fortnightly wages, weekly wages are withheld for still shorter periods and daily wages of casual labour are nearly always paid on the day on which they are earned or on the following day. Speaking generally the average period of waiting may be considered to be 10 to 15 days in the case of monthly payments, 6 to 7 days for fortnightly payments and 2 to 4 days in the case of weekly payments. Another factor which affects the period of waiting is the method of payments. Where workers are paid on piece rates, intricate calculations are required to ascertain the amount due and consequently piece rate wages cannot be paid so promptly as wages of workers on fixed time rates of pay.

Indebtedness prevails to a very great extent among the labourers but no reliable figures are available except those for the Bombay Presidency which were collected by the Bombay Labour Office during its enquiries into the workers' family budgets for different centres. From the statistics of the Empress Mills the percentage of labourers indebted appears to be more than 50. Though exact figures for the Punjab are not available it is reported that the volume of indebtedness amongst the agriculturists is greater than anywhere else in India. As regards urban and industrial labourers it may safely be assumed that a greater majority are in debt to their food suppliers. In Madras the indebtedness of the worker is heavy especially in the case of plantations where it is reported that 75 per cent of the wages of the labourers are taken away by money lenders on pay days. The mine managers of the Jharia coalfields in Bihar and Orissa generally put this figure at one week's wages. It is also stated that the extent of indebtedness varies with caste and social custom. In Bombay City interest on debts forms nearly three per cent of the total monthly expenditure. Of the families considered for the Labour Office enquiry no fewer than 41 per cent were in debt. The extent of the indebtedness of the family in debt is ordinarily the equivalent of two and a half months' earnings. The extremes were 14 months and one-third of a month's earnings respectively. As regards single men for whom 608 budgets were collected 45 per cent were in debt the average expenditure on interest being as 12-3 and the average expenditure on interest for those in debt being Rs 1-11-2 per month. Enquiries for the Bombay Port Trust workers showed that over 80 per cent of the families considered were found to be in debt. In the majority of cases the amount of debt varied from a month's income to four months' income. In Ahmedabad during 1926 about 60 per cent of the families were in debt. The amount of debt varied from a few rupees to many times the monthly income. According to an enquiry made by the Labour

Office in the year 1925 into the family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur City 83 per cent. of the cotton mill workers' families in Sholapur were in debt the extent of which varied from less than a month's income to many times the monthly income. In 48 per cent. of cases however it was equal to between one and four months income of the family.

Bonus and Profit Sharing Schemes.—The successful working of a profit sharing scheme pre-supposes the realisation by the worker of an identity between the various interests engaged in the concern and a conscientious effort on their part to do their best for its maximum success. The employers of labour do not feel that labour conditions in India are such as to justify the hope that this high ideal of co-operation will be realised in a substantial measure in practice. The only solitary concerns in which profit sharing schemes have been tried are the Tata Iron and Steel Company and in the Buckingham and the Carnatic Mills. In 1928 the Tata Iron and Steel Company introduced a scheme under which a monthly bonus based on production is paid to all men drawing less than Rs. 800 per mensem or Rs. 10 per day whose work contributes to the production obtained and who have been in the Company's service for at least six months. In the Buckingham and the Carnatic Mills a bonus is paid to the workmen on a basis relative to the dividend declared.

Bonuses are paid for a variety of reasons. Some concerns grant bonus for regular attendance and for economical utilization of material. In some collieries in Bihar and Orissa a worker

is paid sort of bonus for working six days a week. A bonus is also being granted for rising and loading extra tubs. The Tata Iron and Steel Company grant bonuses (1) for general production (2) for departmental output and (3) regular attendance. This is paid to all employees drawing less than Rs. 8 per day. The Company has also introduced a Jack pot scheme. The idea of this scheme is that if 50 men are required to perform certain duties connected with the operation of any unit and the full force is not present the wages which would have been payable to the absentees are distributed amongst those present.

The system of paying bonus in addition to a cash wage either for better work or for better attendance obtains in several industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency and may be said to be almost general in textile mills especially in Bombay and Ahmedabad. An enquiry by the Labour Office in 1926-27 showed that in the textile industry no fewer than 109 out of the 144 mills in the Presidency which furnished information reported that bonus was granted for regular attendance and 76 or 52.8 per cent. stated that bonuses were given for turning out work better than the specified standards. Several cotton gins and presses also reported that such bonuses were granted but in the majority of such cases these rewards took the form of annual bonuses given on the results of a season's working. In a few cases the system is similar to that of profit sharing—the bonus payable being dependent on the profits made by a concern during the year. Bonuses for better work were however, not generally granted in Public Utility Companies, Municipalities, commercial offices and Government and other non factory organisations.

RAILWAYS.

Wages.—Owing to the different types of railways have therefore been set out in the grades of pay which are prevalent on the Railways it is not possible to give particulars for all of them. Scales of pay of some important classes of railway servants on some principal grades.

Statement showing scales of pay of important class of Railway servants other than Workshop employees and Colliery Staff on the principal Railway

Name of Railway System	ENGINEERING						
	Mates		Gangmen		Trollymen		
	Rs	a	Rs	a	Rs	a	
North Western Railway	20	0 to 34	0	13	0 to 22	0	
East Indian Railway	18	0 to 38	0	12	0 to 16	0	
Eastern Bengal Railway	20	0 to 62	0	13	0 to 14	0	
G I P Railway	12	6 to 37	0	0	0 to 28	0	
B. B. & C. I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	14	0 to 37	0	12	0 to 20	0	
Bengal Nagpur Railway	15	0 to 34	0	10	0 to 17	0	
Bohalkhand and Kumaon Railway	11	0 to 19	6	9	6 to 15	6	
					11	*	
M. & S. M. Railway	13	6 to 30	0	10	6 to 23	0	
South Indian Railway	14	0 to 25	0	12	0 to 15	0	
Assam Bengal Railway	20	0 to 30	0	11	0 to 10	0	
					12	0 to 16	0
					12	0 to 16	0
					14	0 to 16	0

* Per day senior mates only are in the grade of Rs. 37-3 52.

Name of Railway System	TRAFFIC.					
	Station Masters.		Guards		Signallers.	
North Western Railway	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a
East Indian Railway	45 0 to 500 0		30 0 to 210 0		33 0 to 190 0	
Eastern Bengal Railway	52 0 to 500 0		30 0 to 180 0		30 0 to 200 0	
G I P Railway	40 0 to 350 0		45 0 to 210 0		30 0 to 170 0	
B. B. & C. I. Railway	50 0 to 395 0		70 0 to 210 0		45 0 to 140 0	
(Broad-gauge)	55 0 to 400 0		50 0 to 210 0		60 0 to 70 0	
Bengal Nagpur Railway	52 0 to 500 0		35/40 to 210 0		30 0 to 170 0	
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	20 0 to 230 0		20 0 to 150 0		15 0 to 90 0	
M. & S. M. Railway	40 0 to 425 0		40 0 to 170 0		25 0 to 110 0	
South Indian Railway	30 0 to 325 0		25 0 to 120 0		25 0 to 95 0	
Assam Bengal Railway	40 0 to 450 0		40 0 to 200 0		20 0 to 100 0	

Name of Railway System	TRAFFIC				MECHANICAL	
	Goods clerks, Booking clerks and Parcel clerks		Ticket Collectors.		Pointmen	
North Western Railway	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a
East Indian Railway	33 0 to 270 0		32 0 to 160 0		19 0 to 27 0	
Eastern Bengal Railway	28 0 to 300 0		23 0 to 125 0		12 0 to 18 0	
Great Indian Peninsula Railway	34 0 to 145 0		32 0 to 160 0		18 0 to 17 0	
B. B. & C. I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	40 0 to 100 0		50 0 to 90 0		15 0 to 18 0	
Bengal Nagpur Railway	15 0 to 180 0(2)		55 0 to 190 0			
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	50 0 to 250 0(5)		30 0 to 120 0		13 0 to 18 0	
M. & S. M. Railway	25 0 to 60 0(2)		18 0 to 40 0(6)		10 0 to 14 0	
South Indian Railway	75 0 to 180 0(2)		23 0 to 80 0		15 0 to 16 8	
Assam Bengal Railway	25 0 to 125 0(5)		25 0 to 100 0		12 0 to 18 0	
	32 0 to 120 0(2)		20 0 to 100 0		12 0 to 16 0	

Name of Railway System	MECHANICAL					
	Cabinmen.		Drivers.		Firemen	
North Western Railway	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a
East Indian Railway	15 0 to 45 0		31 0 to 220 0		0 8 1/2 to 100 0	
Eastern Bengal Railway			40 0 to 200 0		15 0 to 50 0	
Great Indian Peninsula Railway			34 0 to 220 0		13 0 to 90 0	
B. B. & C. I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	65 0 0(1)		72 0 to 310 0		16 4 to 32 8	
Bengal Nagpur Railway			2 8 to 7 8(3)		0 10 to 1 12(3)	
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	11 0 0		5 0 to 11 0(4)		2 8 to 4 8(4)	
M. & S. M. Railway			31 0 to 46 0(2)		13 0 to 35 0	
South Indian Railway			35 0 to 200 0		16 0 to 50 0	
Assam Bengal Railway	25 0 to 30 0		41 0 to 250 0		21 0 to 35 0	
	16 0 to 25 0		75 0 to 263 0		12 0 to 22 0	
			80 0 to 275 0		14 0 to 40 0	

* Parcel Clerks only

(1) Maximum.

(2) Goods Clerks only, wages are regulated according to local market rate.

(3) Indians per day

(4) Europeans per day

(5) Goods and Parcel Clerks.

(6) Maximum of the Maximum scale not given.

† Per day Senior mates only are in the grade of Rs. 27-3-52

Statement showing scales of pay per day of some important skilled labourers in Workshops

Name of Railway System	Fitters.		Moulders.		Welders.	
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
North Western Railway	0 8 0 to	2 8 0	1 0 0 to	2 8 0	1 4 0 to	2 8 0
East Indian Railway	0 10 0 ,	2 8 0	0 10 0 ,	2 4 0	0 10 0 ,	2 4 0
Eastern Bengal Railway	0 10 0 ,	3 14 0	0 12 3 ,	3 2 3	0 12 3 ,	3 2 3
Great Indian Peninsula Railway*	50 0 0 ,	86 0 0*	44 0 0 ,	86 0 0*	44 0 0 ,	86 0 0*
B & C I Railway	0 8 0 ,	3 5 0	0 7 0 ,	3 5 0	0 8 0 ,	2 9 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway	0 12 0 ,	2 0 0	1 0 0 ,	2 14 0	1 0 0 ,	2 0 0
Robilkhanda and Kumaon Railway	0 15 4 ,	1 14 8	1 4 0 ,		1 0 0 ,	
M & S M. Railway	0 7 0 ,	5 4 0	0 11 0 to	5 4 0	0 12 0 to	5 4 0
South Indian Railway	0 14 0 ,	2 8 0	0 14 0 ,	2 8 0	0 14 0 ,	2 8 0
Assam Bengal Railway	0 12 0 ,	3 0 0			1 8 0 ,	2 8 0

Name of Railway System	Turners.		Carpenters		Blacksmiths	
	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p	Rs a p
North Western Railway	1 1 0 to	2 8 0	0 14 0 to	2 8 0	1 4 0 to	2 8 0
East Indian Railway	0 10 0 ,	2 4 0	0 10 0 ,	2 4 0	0 10 0 ,	2 8 0
Eastern Bengal Railway	0 12 3 ,	3 2 3	0 12 3 ,	3 2 3	0 12 3 ,	3 2 3
Great Indian Peninsula Railway *	50 0 0	86 0 0*	39 0 0	86 0 0*	44 0 0	93 0 0*
B & C I Railway	0 7 0 ,	3 5 0	0 9 0 ,	2 11 0	0 9 0 ,	3 9 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway	1 0 0	2 14 0	1 0 0 ,	2 14 0	1 0 0 ,	2 0 0
Robilkhanda and Kumaon Railway	1 4 8		1 7 4		1 7 4	
M & S M. Railway	1 0 0 to	5 4 0	0 8 0 to	4 4 0	0 7 0 to	5 4 0
South Indian Railway	0 14 0	2 8 0	0 11 4	2 0 0	0 14 0	2 8 0
Assam Bengal Railway	0 12 0	2 12 0	0 12 0	3 0 0	1 1 4 ,	3 0 0

N B—These rates are exclusive of Overtime and Piece work profits.

* The scales of pay for the G I P Railway are per month.

The following rates may be taken as representatives of daily wages of workshop employees in important centres

Centre	Unskilled		Semi-skilled		Ordinary skilled	
	As p	As p.	As p.	As p.	As p.	As p.
Bombay	14 0 to	16 0	17 0 to	24 0	28 0 to	46 0
Lahore	10 0 ,	12 0	14 0 ,	18 0	14 0 ,	40 0
Lillooah	9 0 ,	11 0	10 0 ,	16 0	12 0 ,	40 0
Lucknow	7 6 ,	10 9	10 0 ,	18 0	16 0 ,	36 0

Besides the usual pay the employees of the railways are granted allowances and perquisites for special work, climatic and local conditions, etc.

Amount sent to villages.—In the absence of a completely unbiassed industrial labour force in India, the practice of remitting part of the wages earned by workers in industrial centres to their place of origin appears to be very common. But no authorised or statistical information for a definite period of time is available as regards the amounts sent by workpeople in this manner. If statistics pertaining to this subject were compiled, it would help a good deal in estimating the agrarian contact of Indian industrial workers. In the Central Provinces and Berar 80 per cent of immigrants from the United Provinces leave their families behind in their villages to look after cultivation. These labourers are reported to be remitting more than 50 per cent of their income home. The other immigrants in that province from Central India and the Bombay Presidency are said to be sending 25 per cent of their earnings to their homes. Estimates of amounts sent by money order by the various post offices in the Jute mill areas in Bengal are annually published in the reports of the Indian Jute Mills Association. The figure for 1928 comes to Rs 1,73,57,816-1-2, but it does not purely represent the amounts sent by Jute mill employees only. Labourers from coal mines in Bengal coming from outside the coal fields are reported to send or take home to their villages from 30 to 40 per cent of their earnings. In the case of the miner in the mining fields of Bihar and Orissa it is roughly estimated that he sends home, all his savings—which amount to about 8 annas to Rs 1-8-0 per week. Results of a special enquiry made in the case of an important cotton mill at Cawnpore in which wages are paid fortnightly showed that during

the particular period of two weeks covered by the enquiry, 5.8 per cent of the wages received by workmen was remitted by money orders through the office attached to that mill. In the course of its family budget investigation, the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay collected some information regarding remittance of amounts by workers' families. In Bombay City a large number of workers do not maintain an establishment, but live as boarders and though married keep their dependants in their native places. In the case of resident families the average monthly amount remitted comes to Rs 111-1 which constitutes 3.2 per cent of the family income which is Rs 52-4-6 per month. In the case of persons living singly in the Bombay City the average monthly remittance comes to Rs 11-7-1 which constitutes 3.4 per cent of their monthly income. The labour force in Ahmedabad is not immigrant to the same extent as in Bombay and therefore remittances to dependants is not an important item in the worker's budget. It appears that nearly 7 per cent of the working class families in Ahmedabad remit money to their dependants living away from them. The average for only those families remitting money comes to Rs 6-6-9 per month. Solapur draws its labour force from the immediate neighbourhood and the labour there is not of the same cosmopolitan character as in Bombay. Of the total number of families whose budgets were collected during the family budget enquiry at that centre only 6 per cent reported that they had to remit money every month to their dependants in villages. The average of the amount remitted by such families comes to Rs 4-12-7.

EXTENT OF STANDARDISATION

In spite of a good scope for effecting standardisation of wages in certain important industries in India, few attempts appear to have been made in this direction. Wages are not standardised in different industries or in the same industry. Besides, it is found that different rates are prevalent in the same industry in the same locality and even for the same type of work performed in a unit. In the Tata Iron and Steel Company a standardisation of rates has been carried out as far as could be done in order to minimise complaints which are frequently made that men when engaged are promised certain rates and eventually they find that they get somewhat less. Under this standardisation scheme each job is rated and every employee understands what his minimum and maximum rate will be in that grade and what he can expect when promoted from it to other grades. This has the advantage of rating all men doing the same work so as to yield the same or about the same remuneration irrespective of the Department in which employees are working. Standardisation of wages has been effected in the Indian Cable Company in those cases particularly where men perform the same kind of work with the exception that some mechanics who are more efficient receive higher rates than others and some old workmen are still receiving higher rates than the rate of the job. Prior to the proposal made by the Bombay Millowners Association during the general strike of the year 1928 to standardise wages in all the cotton mills in

Bombay City there was nothing like standard rates of wages in any industry or centre in the Bombay Presidency except to a limited extent in the case of basic time rates for process operatives in the spinning sections in the Ahmedabad cotton mills. There exists no standardisation or similarity in rate whatever in the Ahmedabad mills with regard to piece rates. These vary from mill to mill for the same class of production although two or more mills may give similar rates. Proximity plays an important part in the fixing of time and piece rates in all industries at all centres. There is little similarity between the rates of different workers of the same class even in the same mill; the rates depending on the degree of individual skill, industry and experience. The question of standardisation of wages in the cotton mills in Bombay City has been under consideration by the Bombay Millowners Association for several years. The advantage of standardisation was perceived by the Association as far back as 1891 when the late Honourable Mr N N Wadia had prepared a draft scheme. The attempt was, however, not successful. Several attempts were made subsequently, but for one reason or another the old system was allowed to continue. In January 1927 the Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry) definitely recommended standardisation of wages.

In accordance with this recommendation the Bombay Millowners Association appointed a sub-committee to "investigate and report as

to the industries which might reasonably be taken towards the standardisation of muster rolls and wage rates." The sub-committee called for information from all the mills affiliated to the Association regarding the rates of wages paid and the number of men required for stated operations for a certain number of machines in each mill. This was classified and tabulated and averages of the rates of wages were arrived at. All bonuses like the good attendance bonus, weekly bonus, electric light bonus etc were consolidated in the rates proposed. The main principles on which the standardisation scheme was based were as follows—

- (1) There should be no variation between mill and mill in the rates of wages of operatives of the same class doing the same amount of work with the same skill and similar machinery and material and that variations in the earnings of individuals should depend on their individual labour and skill as tested by production
- (2) Operatives should not suffer owing to defects in machinery or material
- (3) All the operatives except the weavers should get at least the same average wages that they have been hitherto getting provided they work with reasonable efficiency

It was proposed, however, to effect a cut of 7½ per cent in the average wages of weavers during standardisation. This scheme as put forward by the Bombay Millowners Association was considerably modified as a result of discussions that took place between the Sub-committee of the Association and the Joint Strike Committee which was formed during the General Strike of the Bombay cotton mills in 1928. The scheme was considered by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee whose findings on it are given in the Section on Conciliation and Arbitration. The scheme has not, however, yet been put into practice.

Application of a Minimum Wage Principle—One of the main objects of minimum wage legislation is the prevention of sweating or the prevention of the payment of unduly low wages to the workers and the elimination of unfair competition between the employers with regard to wages. The payment of unduly low wages in any occupation or industry may be due either to depression in the industry or to an inefficient organisation of production or to exploitation of labour. With regard to the first two causes, minimum wage-fixing machinery is unable to change the economic condition of an industry while it is closely related to the third cause. Exploitation of labour may be defined as taking advantage of the inferior bargaining power of the workers to pay them a lower wage than that justified by the economic value of their work. This weakness in bargaining power is due to insufficient organisation, but minimum wage-fixing machinery, by establishing greater equality or bargaining power can ensure the payment of a wage "adequate to maintain a reasonable standard of life." It can also indirectly help to develop organisation amongst the workers. Besides this, minimum wage legislation, like any other piece of social legislation, goes a long way in promoting industrial peace.

Minimum wage laws differ considerably with regard to the basis adopted for fixing wage rates. The three main bases of fixing minimum wages are (1) the fixing of minimum wages in any trade in relation to the wages paid to workers in the same trade in adjoining districts, (2) the living wage and (3) the capacity of an individual industry to pay what is regarded as the minimum wage. When the bases of legislation to be framed are decided upon there are various methods of applying these principles. By the first method different minima may be fixed for different industries by ad hoc boards appointed to deal with each industry as is done under the Trade Board system in England and by Wage Boards in certain Australian States. By the second method, national minima may be fixed for various industries as is done in certain parts of Canada, the United States of America etc. The third method aims at enacting a minimum wage for general application to the country as a whole. The Minimum Wages Act of New South Wales of 1908 is an illustration of this.

The importance of Minimum Wage Legislation can be better judged when it is stated that 'the provision of an adequate living wage' is mentioned among the problems of urgent importance in the Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty of Peace. The International Labour Conference at its Eleventh Session held at Geneva in 1928, adopted a draft Convention and a recommendation concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery. The Convention contemplates the creation of such machinery only in the case of trades or parts of trades (and in particular homeworking trades) in which no arrangements exist for effective regulation of wages by collective agreements or otherwise and in which wages are exceptionally low. A State Member ratifying this Convention is placed under an obligation to create such a machinery and to communicate annually to the International Labour Office a general statement giving a list of trades or parts of the trades in which it has been applied and certain other particulars. The nature and form of the machinery and the trades to which it should apply are considerations which are left to the discretion of the State concerned.

The acceptance of this Convention by India would mean the creation of an extensive machinery for fixation of wages in several trades as labour is for most part unorganised in this country. But the fixation of a minimum wage in India is itself a problem beset with great difficulties. In many countries, even in those with advanced labour legislation, minimum wage regulation has received little consideration. This question is quite new to India and has not been considered in any province except probably in Bengal where a resolution was moved in the Legislative Council of that province, but it was lost. Wages in India are not standardised and until in practice wages in the same or similar industries are more or less on the same level, it will be very difficult to introduce or to operate successfully any scheme of minimum wages. A further difficulty arises from the fact that the cost of a suitable standard of living varies from province to province and as between different parts in a province. It is also doubtful whether the fixation of a minimum wage would be very

beneficial to labour in its present unorganised state in India as there is always a tendency for wages to gravitate towards the minimum fixed by law.

The only instances in which minimum rates of wages were fixed by statute in India was in connection with indentured labour on tea estates in Assam. But with the abolition of such labour the law is no longer in operation. The recent occasion on which this question of a minimum wage was considered in India was in relation to the Bombay cotton mills. The observations of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee who considered this question are significant. No definite standard for a minimum wage was suggested by them as it was not within

the scope of the terms of their reference, but they said: "In the present case, we have material for safely saying that any considerable increase in the wages bill would hamper the industry to an unjustifiable extent, in the existing circumstances of trade depression, but we may well decline to go further and say that the state of the trade does not permit of even a small increase in the lowest wage proposed to be paid. If it is shown that that wage does not enable the worker concerned to maintain a suitable standard of living." Discussing the question whether the minimum wage should apply to female as well as male operatives the Committee however arrived at the conclusion that a woman can maintain herself in Bombay on Rs 18 per month.

DEDUCTIONS.

In June 1926 the Government of India requested Local Governments to make enquiries in their respective administrations, as to the extent to which fines and other deductions were being realised by employers in India from their workpeople. The views of Local Governments were also invited on the desirability of taking any action legislative or otherwise to counter any abuses which might be found to prevail. The information given below is based mostly on the various Provincial enquiries made for the purpose, but there is no reason to believe that the conditions have changed materially since then.

The system of making deductions from wages in respect of fines is general in the textile industry, and other industrial concerns. With regard to factories the system exists in almost all Government and Local Fund factories and in the majority of the more organised and larger

workshops. It is also associated with municipalities, factories and establishments working regularly throughout the year. It does not appear to be the general practice in seasonal establishments such as gins and presses. In offices the system is almost wholly limited to the fining of peons and messials in the establishments where the system exists although in a few cases clerks are also occasionally fined. Fining is general in the large hotels, clubs and restaurants but it can be said to be almost absent in most of the larger commercial organisations such as shops, stores, etc. The only notable concerns in which fines are very rarely imposed are the tea gardens in Assam and Bengal and the coal-fields in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. The abuse is said to be limited by the consideration that the shortage of labour compels the employers to treat their employees with every consideration.

COST OF LIVING AND STANDARD OF LIFE

A large number of strikes and lockouts in India since the war were due to wage disputes and in the absence of any reliable data regarding the movements of prices and their effect on the cost of living of the working classes it was found extremely difficult to arrive at any satisfactory conclusions about the comparative relation between wages and cost of living. The Government of India took up the question of constructing cost of living index numbers for the working classes and after a Conference held in Delhi at the beginning of 1921 they addressed Local Governments on the subject of index numbers.

The chief difficulty in the preparation of a satisfactory scheme designed to measure movements in the cost of living of industrial classes throughout India was the absence of any estimate of the comparative expenditure of the industrial workers on different items that could be regarded as even moderately correct. The basis for calculating such expenditure is usually furnished by the collection of budgets showing the actual monthly expenditure for typical families. But no budgets on which reliance could be placed were then available. An alternative method of ascertaining the comparative expenditure is to estimate the exports, imports and production of different commodities for a particular area, and then arrive at the average quantity consumed

by the inhabitants of that area. The only area for which it is possible to obtain statistics of exports, imports and production is India as a whole so that an index number for India or for any part of India constructed on these lines is open to criticism on two grounds apart from any inherent errors in the statistics used. In the first place it assumes that the differences between one province and another are not such as to vitiate the application of averages based on All-India figures to particular industrial centres. Secondly, it ignores differences between the mode of living of the industrial classes and that of the population of India as a whole. The Government of India recognised the possibility of constructing index numbers by the aggregate expenditure method, but cast doubts on the appropriateness of this method as applied to India, and suggested that, while it might be used in the first instance, the results should be checked by a collection of family budgets.

The majority of Local Governments were willing to co-operate but the most important exception was Bengal where financial stringency was making itself felt. But the investigations led the Government of India to the conclusion that the construction of an All-India index number should not be undertaken. The publication of a cost of living index number on a pro-tem

base for the working classes in Bombay City was started in the *Labour Gazette* from September 1921 and the scope and method of its compilation are described in the issues of the *Labour Gazette* for September 1921, September 1923 and April 1925. The index number is based on what is

known as the aggregate expenditure method and includes in all 24 items representing food, fuel and lighting, clothing and rent. The table below gives the Bombay working class cost of living index numbers month by month from January 1915

Bombay working class cost of living index numbers by months
(July 1914=100).

Month	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
January	107	110	120	134	182	183	169	173	156	109	157	106	150	154	149	147
February	107	109	117	134	176	181	162	165	155	156	157	154	155	148	148	145
March	106	108	113	136	172	177	180	165	154	154	160	153	155	145	149	142
April	104	106	112	144	167	172	180	162	156	150	158	153	153	144	148	141
May	103	105	111	147	168	173	167	163	153	150	156	153	152	147	147	141
June	104	107	116	148	174	181	173	163	152	153	154	155	154	146	147	141
July	104	108	118	149	186	190	177	165	153	137	157	167	156	147	148	140
August	106	109	120	153	179	191	180	164	154	161	152	155	157	146	146	137
September	110	109	120	165	172	192	186	165	154	161	151	155	154	145	149	137
October	118	109	121	175	174	193	183	162	152	161	153	153	151	146	146	132
November	112	113	127	175	173	186	182	160	153	161	152	154	150	147	150	128
December	113	116	129	183	174	181	179	161	157	160	155	156	151	148	150	122
Annual Average	107	110	119	154	175	183	173	164	154	157	155	155	154	147	149	138

The Labour Office conducted in the year 1926 an enquiry into working class budgets in Ahmedabad and the results of this enquiry have been used in the construction of a cost of living index for that centre. The Ahmedabad working class cost of living index number has been compiled on a post-war base and has been

published in the *Labour Gazette* since January 1930. Items representing food, fuel and lighting, clothing, house-rent and miscellaneous groups have been included in the index. The following table gives the index numbers from August 1927 to November 1930 —

Ahmedabad working class cost of living index numbers by months
(Average prices from August 1926 to July 1927=100)

Months.	Index No	Month	Index No	Month	Index No
1927		1928—contd.		1929—contd.	
August	101	October	97	December	95
September	101	November	97		
October	100	December	99	1930	
November	98	1929,		January	98
December	96	January	99	February	91
1928		February	99	March	89
January	92	March	96	April	89
February	90	April	94	May	89
March	91	May	96	June	90
April	91	June	93	July	88
May	95	July	96	August	87
June	97	August	97	September	85
July	96	September	96	October	82
August	96	October	96	November	81
September	96	November	96		

A cost of living index number based on the results of the enquiry into family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur conducted by the Labour Office in 1925 is also under preparation. In the Central Provinces cost of living index numbers with January 1927 as the base have been prepared from January 1925 for the industrial workers at Nagpur and Jabalpur and published in the Department of Industrial Bulletin No 3.

Standard of Life—Very little information is available regarding the standard of living of the working classes in India. The most satisfactory method of obtaining this information is by means of a family budget enquiry in which information is collected regarding the composition income and expenditure of the family. To enable general conclusions to be drawn from investigations of this type it is always necessary to conduct the enquiries by what is known as the extensive method an attempt being made to secure the information from a large number of families so as to minimise the effect of the peculiarities of exceptional cases. The sampling method is often resorted to in conducting extensive family budget enquiries because of the impracticability of collecting data by the census method. It is essential that the sample should be representative in order to yield reliable results.

At the Third International Labour Conference of Labour Statisticians held at Geneva in October 1926, the Committee on family budgets passed a resolution that in order to provide adequate information with regard to actual standards of living, enquiries should be conducted generally at intervals of not more than ten years into the income, expenditure and conditions of living of families representative of large homogeneous sections of the population. It was also decided that for a complete enquiry information should be collected as to the district in which the family resides, the composition of the household, the industries and occupations of members of the family, the nature of the housing accommodation and the amount of each important item of family income and expenditure together with quantities of purchases, where practicable. It

was agreed, however that a less detailed investigation omitting the particulars of the family income would be sufficient where the sole object of the enquiry is to provide weights for the calculation of cost of living index numbers.

Family budgets were collected by the Labour Office for 3,076 working class families in Bombay City in 1921-22 and the report based on the results thereof was published in 1923. It has been decided to undertake a new family budget enquiry when industrial conditions become normal in Bombay City and to use weights based on the results of that enquiry in compiling a fresh cost of living index number for Bombay on a new base period. The Labour Office collected 985 budgets of working class families in Ahmedabad in 1926 and 1,133 budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur in 1925. The reports based on the results of these enquiries were published in 1928. A small family Budget investigation for cotton mill workers in Bombay city was also conducted by the Labour Office in 1930 but the results of this investigation have not been published so far.

In the United Provinces a number of budgets were collected at Cawnpore with the object of compiling a cost of living index number. But the results of the enquiry were not found to be satisfactory and the province has not been compiling any cost of living index number.

The Labour Statistics Bureau, Rangoon, which was established by the Government of Burma in 1926, has made an extensive enquiry into the Standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon and the report based on 4,809 budgets was published in 1928. The results of this enquiry have been separately analysed for Burmese, Telugu, Tamil, Uriya, Hindustani, and Chittagongian workers. Separate index numbers for each of the different classes of workers have also been published at the end of the report. 1,002 budgets for the working class families in Nagpur and 507 budgets for working class families at Jabalpur were collected between September 1926 and January 1927 for compiling cost of living index numbers for these two centres.

TRADE UNIONS.

The history of trade unionism in India is a history of recent years. It was not until 1918 that labour had begun definitely to organise itself. Previous to that year very little effort appears to have been made to establish organisations of labour. The earliest association of workers in India was the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma which had been registered under the Indian Companies Act and its main activities were in connection with the provision of various benefits to its members, such as Legal Defence, Sickness Insurance, Life Assurance, etc. After the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, came into force this Association registered under it as a Trade Union with the new name of the National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma. The Bombay Postal Union, founded in 1907, mainly

for the clerical classes employed in the Bombay Post Office, a Union of warpers in the Ahmedabad cotton mills formed in 1917, the Clerks' Union, Bombay, established in April 1918 in order to organise the various classes of clerical labour employed in commercial and other offices in Bombay city, and the Madras Labour Union formed in 1913 for the textile workers in the three mills in the city of Madras, were the main labour organisations in existence at the end of the year 1918. In addition, there existed certain benevolent social institutions such as the Kanger Hitwardhak Sabha and the Social Service League, whose activities were directed towards the betterment of the condition of the working classes. But these Societies were not composed of workers themselves.

The year 1918 may be said to be a landmark in the history of the Indian Trade Union movement for from that year onwards there has been a more or less steady growth of trade unions despite the inevitable fluctuations in their prosperity. The economic circumstances of the time must be regarded as the dominant factor contributing to the establishment of trade unionism in India. As a result of the Great War the prices of all commodities, including the necessities of life soared high. The remarkable rise in prices was due partly to world factors and partly to factors peculiar to India. The intensive competition by belligerent countries for commodities of all kinds the diversion of huge numbers of those formerly engaged in production to the Army and supply services, and the creation of a huge additional volume of credit and currency to finance the war resulted in India with the following two main results: (1) the demand for her products was increased and consequently industries flourished making huge profits, and (2) labour was in greater demand than ever before. The unprecedented rise in prices coupled with the comparatively slow movement of the level of wages tended to reduce the real value of the workers' income. The general economic unrest that followed the Armistice affected the Indian labourer also who like his prototype elsewhere began to demand from his employer more wages, better housing conditions more leisure and increased opportunities for bettering himself. A period of industrial strife followed and a few strikes were quickly successful. These successes taught the labourers in India, as nothing else could the efficiency of organisation. Indeed, to many workmen, concerted action in the nature of strikes, attended by rapid and unvarying successes seemed almost infallible. This was the period during which a-tive trade unionism in India may be considered to have begun. In the two years following 1918, the epidemic of industrial strife assumed serious proportions and reached a climax towards the close of the year 1920. The number of labour unions also increased very rapidly and unions were formed of workers in all possible industries and occupations. Most of these Unions were however, merely Strike Committees brought into existence either before or after particular strikes in order either to engineer or to conduct them. These Committees were either dissolved as soon as their purpose was served or remained dormant until another strike in the trade broke out. Most of the remaining Unions formed during the period 1918-20 were unstable and nearly 75 per cent of them died an early death in the following year. There was a definite check to the progress of the trade union movement in India during the next two or three years. But although individual Unions collapsed as rapidly as they were formed the movement itself showed signs of permanence and vitality.

Obstacles to rapid growth.—The difficulties in the way of organising permanent trade unions in India were almost insuperable. Most of the earlier Unions had no regular constitution or a definite basis of revenue, no system of auditing or publishing accounts and no funds for providing help to women and children in times of distress. The membership of the Unions became effective when the workers possessed definite and real grievances and parti-

cularly when there was a marked gap between nominal wages and the cost of living. But when the economic stringency passed away, the bond which united the workers constituting all but the few really well organised Unions, tended generally to weaken.

Further labour in India is still migratory. The average Indian labourer who is an agriculturist by tradition is domiciled in a locality remote from that in which he works. His love of home makes him return constantly to his native village only to retrace his steps to the industrial centre as soon as he feels the pinch of want. During his absence away at his home, he does not feel inclined to continue his membership of any trade union with which he might have been associated. The want of a steady working class population was thus an important factor which stood in the way of the growth of the movement. The difficulties arising out of the widely differing social customs of the several castes and creeds that make up the Indian labouring classes were also contributing factors militating against the progress of trade unionism in India. Ignorance and illiteracy were and still are to a large extent, serious obstacles in the way of labour organising itself. The general poverty of the working classes is yet another factor to be reckoned with. Many labourers disliked the idea of regular contributions and were not amenable to Union discipline, with the result that a Union could rarely embrace more than a small percentage of the men employed in any establishment. The authority which could be exercised by the smaller Unions over the men as a whole, was consequently very restricted. The paradox of Trade Unionism in India was that the persons who most needed organisation were those who were unable, on account of their poverty and ignorance, to combine.

Notwithstanding the reasons given above, perhaps the most important factor which retarded the growth in the movement immediately following the successes which met the earlier formations or Strike Committees which they really were, was the definitely hostile attitude of the employers to all combinations of their employees. It was not until the passage of the Indian Trade Unions Act which made it morally obligatory on employers to recognise those Unions of their employees which had registered under the Act, that a change in the angle of vision was noticeable.

Misera of leadership.—The Indian Trade Union movement, in its early beginnings, was essentially an economic one, and to regard labour unions as being engineered solely by politicians as the result of their propaganda is to misread the origin of this movement. The Indian workman is predominantly illiterate and has even now few leaders from his own class to whom he can turn for guidance. In consequence trade unions in India have been led by middle class men especially professional lawyers and others, who have not perhaps in all cases made a distinction between economic and political considerations. In the words of Mr A. B. Burnett-Hurst, social workers did not take the initiative but 'allowed the lawyer politician class to capture and control these bodies'. Many of the so-called leaders of Indian Labour who were drawn from the lawyer-politician

class often exploited the ignorance and credulity of the labour force for their own material advantage, or for the propagation of their pet political doctrine, in addition to looking after the welfare of the labourers. There were, however, several notable exceptions. Leaders like Mr N M Joshi, Dewan Chaman Lal, the Rev O F Andrews, Mr M. K. Gandhi, Mr V V Giri, Mr B Shiva Rao and Miss Anasuya Sababhai endeavoured to create Unions for the benefit of the workers and for the general improvement in the conditions of life and work of the labouring classes. During the last two years however the principles of communism have been disseminated amongst the masses of India by the members of the Workers and Peasants Party which is an agent in India of the Communist International. The Communist agents took advantage of the economic unrest prevalent in the country early in the year 1938 and usurped the leadership of the working classes within a short period of time and were able to assume control over the executive of the principal textile and railway unions in Bombay, Madras and Bengal. The Communists captivated the minds of the workers by painting the existing conditions as black as possible and contrasting them with a supreme state of wealth and happiness which is promised under the regime of a dictatorship of a workers proletariat. The discontentment amongst the workers over conditions of work has been aggravated by the incessant preachings of revolutionary doctrines. The credulity of the Indian labourer has been of great advantage to these emissaries of revolution in creating in him a class hatred against the employers and also instilling in his mind an abhorrence for the Government established by law in the country. These agitators, occupying positions of vantage, have instigated disastrous strikes in pursuance of purely political ends often with a callous disregard of the subsequent sufferings and losses inflicted on their ignorant and hapless dupes. The hold which the Communists have over the labour movement in India to-day shows no signs of abatement. The sanity and sobriety of moderate leadership have no great attraction for the large majority of the labourers. The moderate leaders have, however, been fighting their battles for leadership with the extremist revolutionaries, and were for a time successful in keeping the latter under control. At the

moment of writing, it has become impossible for the moderates and the avowed Communists to work shoulder to shoulder in the labour movement, and a split has occurred between the two, the Unions standing for constitutional progress rallying under the banner of the Moderates while those in favour of Communist principles accepting the leadership of the Red Flag Organisations.

Progress of Trade Unions since 1918.—The trade union movement spread to various industries and occupations in India during the years following the Armistice, but a number of them passed out of existence very soon after they were started. The more stable Unions were of clerks, railway workers, postal employees and seamen. The peculiar feature of the trade union movement in India is that it did not in the early stages of its progress make much headway in the more important manufacturing industries and this constituted a weak point in the movement. Whereas in other countries, the clerical employees organised themselves on the model of the industrial workers long after the latter had well organised themselves in strong Unions, in India the former have come up if not first, at least simultaneously with industrial unions and have established themselves more permanently.

The following figures illustrate the growth of Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency.—

Year	No of Unions	No of Members
1922	22	51,472
1923	19	48,087
1924	36	52,227
1925	38	49,818
1926	56	74,875
1927	72	87,840
1928	94	108,072
1929	99	196,748
1930	98	119,791

The distribution of the membership as at 1st September 1930 by classes of industries is as follows.—

Class of Industry	No of Unions	Membership	Percentage of membership to total
Textiles	11	24,695	20.6
Railways (including railway workshops)	15	20,233	32.7
Seamen	3	20,206	33.3
Post and Telegraphs	81	8,815	7.4
Municipal	7	7,823	2.4
Miscellaneous	26	12,991	11.0
Total	98	119,791	100.0

There are in addition two federations of Postal Unions, one of Railway Employees Unions and a fourth which is a Central Union governing a number of individual Unions of textile workers in Ahmedabad. (For the constitution, membership and other particulars regarding these organisations, reference may be made to the issue of the Bombay Labour Gazette). The Central Labour Board and the Bombay Trades Council which had been included in the list of Federations in the Bombay Presidency are now defunct.

The Punjab has no heavy concentration of industrial labour and consequently the extent of organisation among both employers and employed is up to the present little. There is, however, a vague striving among the employed towards co-operation and combination especially for the purpose of demanding better remuneration and considering the question of resorting to direct action for enforcing their demands on their employers. No Communist influence has been noticeable in the Punjab where industrial disputes have been stated to have occurred as a result of the normal antagonism between employers and employed. The only large employers of labour in the Punjab are the N.W. Railway Administration, and four out of the 16 registered Unions are of the employees of the various departments of the N.W. Railway and cover, in all, 6,436 members.

In the United Provinces the number of Associations of workers is rather small, compared to its industrial importance. There are in all about 8 Unions, all of recent growth. Some of the Associations formed during the general upheaval following the War and especially during the days of Non-Co-operation have since died or become moribund. Organised labour forms a very small proportion of the total Organisation of labour outside Cawnpore is almost non-existent and even in Cawnpore only about 10 per cent of the labour is organised. There has been a growing interest of labour in trade unionism which appears to have the prospect of a rapid development in the future.

The Central Provinces and Berar have six trade unions and four branches of outside organisations. The classes of workers who have been embraced by the Trade movement in this part of India are (1) Textile workers, (2) Press employees, (3) Scavengers, (4) Motor drivers, (5) Railway workers, (6) Postal employees and (7) Clerks. Trade unionism is stated to be yet in its infancy in this Province and the Labour Unions appear to have done little to improve the conditions under which their members work.

The trade union movement in Madras received a setback in 1921-22 as a result of the failure of the strike in the Buckingham and Carnatic mills. During the year 1922-23 most of the Unions were dormant and the only Union which showed signs of activity was the M. and S. M. Railway Workshop Employees' Union, Forambur. The trade union activities were revived in 1923-24 and the following Unions became once more active—(1) The Madras Labour Union (2) The Madras Tramwaymen's Union, (3) The Corporation Scavengers Union, (4) the S. I. Railway Employees Union and (5) the Coimbatore Labour Union. The Madras Harbour Port Trust Workmen's Union was revived in 1925-26. A section of the workmen of the Buckingham and Carnatic mills organised a separate Union in 1925-26 called the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills Employees Union, as a rival to the Madras Labour Union which is an old organisation in the same industry. The Cordite Factory Labour Union, Aruvankudus came into prominence during 1926-27. Unions were newly formed for the employees of the Public Works Department workshops and the Government Central Press, Madras, while the Diocesan Press Employees Union which had remained dormant was revived. The labourers working in the cotton ginning and pressing factories in Tiruppur, Coimbatore District started a Union for their benefit. Most of the Unions included in their programme a demand for separate representation for Labour in the Legislative Council. The Old Workers Union and certain other Unions came into prominence only when there was an impending labour dispute.

RAILWAYS.

There are four Railway Associations of an All-India character with the following membership—

	Membership
The All India Railwaymen's Federation	100,000
The Anglo Indian and Domiciled European Association (This is not a Trade Union)	10,000
The All India and Burma Covenant-ed Non-Gazetted Railway Servicos Association	265
The National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma	2,000

In addition there are over 20 individual Unions distributed over the principal Railways in India. The following nine Unions on the principal Railways have each a membership of about 2,000 and over—

Name of Railway	Name of Union	Membership.
N. W. Railway	(1) The N. W. Railway Union Lahore	5,000
	(2) The General Workers Union, Lahore	8,500
E. B. Railway	(3) The Eastern-Bengal Railway Indian Employees Association, Calcutta	11,167
E. N. Railway	(4) The Bengal-Nagpur Railway Indian Labour Union.	14,000

Name of Railway	Name of Union	Membership
M & S M Railway	(5) The Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Employees Union, Perambur	8,800
G I P Railway*	(6) The G I P Railway Staff Union Bombay	2,949
	(7) The G I P Railwaymen's Union, Bombay	22,000
B B & C I Railwaymen*	(8) The B B & C I Railway Employees Association Ahmedabad	4,453
	(9) The B B & C I Railway Employees Union, Bombay	6,818

* As at 1st September 1930

The main characteristics of the trade unions of Railway employees are that (1) they embrace in one Union all the varied classes of railway employees, (2) several of them are connected with workshop employees who by reason of their concentration in one place afford the best field for organisation (3) the leaders are often of the lawyer class (4) the membership increases during times of unrest and decreases at other times, and, (5) the funds of the Unions are consequently uncertain. Communist agitators have worked their way into the executives of some of the more important trade unions of railway employees especially on the G I P, E I and S I Railways. In the case of these Railways they

have pursued their revolutionary policy and instigated the workers to go on strikes which were at once disastrous to the public, the railway administration and to the workers. Unions conducted on sound trade union principles are encouraged by the Railway authorities who are also disposed to recognise Unions which are registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act. Representations and deputations from recognised Unions are received and sympathetically treated by the authorities. Freedom of action is granted to the Unions for the enrolment of members and collection of subscriptions so long as there is no interference with the duties of the railway staff.

ALL INDIA LABOUR ASSOCIATIONS.

The All-India Railwaymen's Federation.—Twelve Unions of Railway workers are affiliated to it and its total membership amounts to nearly 1,00,000. It is growing in influence and popularity and in May 1929 a deputation waited on Sir George Rains, the Railway Member of the Government of India, to discuss the grievances of railway employees in general. No less than 25 subjects were included for discussion but the more important of them related to wages and the position of daily-rated men, hours of work and the weekly rest, insecurity of service and appeals, medical facilities, fines, extension of provident fund benefits and quarters. The Railway Board have indicated enquiries with a view to taking the necessary action in the matter.

The National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma was started by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma which came into existence as a sequel to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Guards' strike in 1897. It was at first registered under the Indian Companies Act, but after the Indian Trade Unions Act came into being it altered its name, re-drafted its constitution and registered as a Trade Union. It has a membership of over 2,000 employees.

The All-India and Burmah Covenanted Non-Gazetted Railway Service Association.—This Association, whose membership is limited to covenanted Europeans employed as foremen in railway workshops in India was started in October 1928 with the object of securing for its members the benefits of the Lee Commission's recommendations. It submitted a memorial to the Viceroy on this question in

November 1929. It has a membership of about 300 employees scattered all over India and has its Head Office in Bombay. The Association registered with the Registrar of Trade Unions Bombay Presidency, in March 1928.

The All-India Trade Union Congress.—This organisation was inaugurated in 1920 for two main purposes: (1) to co-ordinate the activities of the individual Labour Unions in India which till then remained inchoate and were unable to take concerted action and (2) to recommend workers delegates to the International Labour Conferences. When the Government of India had to select a Labour representative to attend the Washington Conference in 1919 there was no representative body of labour in India to be consulted and they therefore appointed Mr. N. M. Joshi as the Workers Delegate. In order therefore that responsible Labour opinion in India might have a voice in the selection of the delegates to the International Labour Conferences, the All India Trade Union Congress was organised and the first session of the Congress was held in Bombay on the 31st October 1920. Eight hundred delegates from different parts of India were present and sixty Unions were affiliated and 43 others expressed their sympathy with the Congress. It became a central organisation of the trade union movement in India but from the beginning it had a strong political colour. Its presidents and secretaries have all been politicians, first and labour leaders next, with the exceptions of a few persons like Mr. N. M. Joshi. The Congress appointed itself a permanent body to meet once a year. It has a definite constitution, an elected

Executive to carry on its work, and Provincial Councils which, under the Executive are responsible for co-ordinating the work in the respective provinces. The main object of the Congress is to co-ordinate the activities of all the labour organisations in all the provinces in India and generally to further the interests of Indian labour in matters economic, social and political. It may also co-operate and federate with organisations of labour having similar objects in any part of the world.

Every organisation of labour in India is entitled to be affiliated to the Congress on the following conditions —

- (a) That the Union seeking affiliation shall pay to the All India Trade Union Congress an annual contribution on the basis of Rs 10 for every 1,000 members or part thereof
- (b) That the Union seeking affiliation shall pay to the All India Trade Union Congress the amount of a special levy of a contribution approved of by a majority of two-thirds of the members of the Executive Council in the same proportion as (a).
- (c) That the Union seeking affiliation shall agree not to act in any manner prejudicial to the collective interests of the All India Trade Union Congress
- (d) That the applications for affiliation shall be forwarded through the Provincial Committee to the General Secretary, with the decisions arrived at by it, but no application for affiliation shall be withheld by the Provincial Committee
- (e) That no Union shall be affiliated to the Congress without being first affiliated to the Provincial Committee. That no Union shall be affiliated which has not been in existence at least for one year and has not had its accounts and statement of paying members audited by a qualified auditor or an authorised representative of the All India Trade Union Congress.

The Executive Council of the Congress consists of a Chairman, the Vice-Chairman or Vice-Chairmen, the Treasurer, the General Secretary or General Secretaries, the Secretary or Secretaries and the Assistant Secretary or Assistant Secretaries as ex-officio members and not more than ten additional members including the ex-Presidents of the All India Trade Union Congress, elected at the annual session of the Congress and the representatives elected by the affiliated unions on the following basis —

- 1 Representative for unions with a membership upto 1,000
- 2 Representatives for unions with a membership between 1,000 and 3,000.
- 3 Representatives for unions with a membership between 4,000 and 5,000
- 4 Representatives for unions with a membership above 5,000

The individual Unions affiliated to the Congress are conceded full autonomy with regard to the management of their own affairs according to their rules.

The second Session of the Congress was held in 1921 at Jharia under the Presidency of Mr Joseph Bapista. The third session was held at Lahore in 1923 with Mr C. R. Das as President. The fourth Session held at Calcutta in 1924 was also presided over by Mr C. R. Das. Out of the 43 resolutions passed at this Session some dealt with the recruitment of Seamen and their eligibility for securing compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act. The fifth session was held in Bombay in 1925 with Mr Dhundiraj R. Thengdi of Nagpur in the chair. Mr V. V. Giri of Berhampur was the President of the Sixth Session held in Madras in 1926. Delhi was the centre where the Seventh conference of the Congress was held in 1927 and the President was Rai Sahab Chandrika Prasad Dewan Chama. Lall M. L. A. was the President of the Cawnpore Session of the Congress held in 1927. The ninth session was held in 1928 at Jharia with Mr M. Dand in the chair. It is significant that at this Conference Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru moved a resolution protesting against imperialism.

The tenth assembly of the Trade Union Congress which met at Nagpur in 1929 under the presidency of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru will remain as the most important landmark in the history of organised labour in India. It marked the culmination of a long period of mischievous activity inspired by Moscow and fomented by Communist Agents in India resulting in a split between the genuine trade union leadership on the one hand and the votaries of communism on the other. The fundamental issue upon which the split in the Trade Union movement occurred was whether the labour movement in India shall be inspired and conducted for the betterment of the industrial workers or whether it shall be utilised as a means to promote and bring about revolution in the country. The proceedings at the Session made it impossible for the rival forces to carry on any longer under a common organisation. The reasons contributing to the ultimate split were as follows — The Bombay Girni Kamgar Union and the G. I. P. Railwaymen's Union applied for affiliation the former with a membership figure of 54,000 and the latter 45,000. The Bombay Girni Kamgar Union could produce no audited documents as required. However it was admitted a member on the basis of a membership of 48,000. The G. I. P. Railwaymen's Union was affiliated on a strength of 30,000 members. This meant that a large part of the voting power was vested in the representatives of these two Unions which were of communist persuasion. The Executive of the Congress was also captured by the revolutionaries, and resolutions for the boycott of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour, affiliation of the Congress to the League Against Imperialism, the appointment of the Workers' Welfare League, a Communist organisation in England and Agents of the Congress for Great Britain and the boycott of the International Labour Conference at Geneva were passed both by the Executive Committee and the open session of the Congress.

The moderate leaders of labour, including Memna, N. M. Joshi, V. V. Girdi, B. Shiva Rao, B. B. Bhatnagar and Dewan Chaman Lal, seceded from the Congress and set up a separate federation under the name of the "All-India Trades Union Federation" in order to co-ordinate the activities of non-communist Trade Unions in India. Endeavours made to draw the seceders back into the fold of the All India Trade Union Congress have not met with any success. The Labour Unions in Ahmedabad which draw their inspiration entirely from Mr. M. K. Gandhi have not during the ten years of the Trade Union movement in India shown any desire to become affiliated to the Congress.

The Trade Union Congress in 1925 brought out a Directory of Trade Unions in India which is the book of reference for those interested in Indian Trade Unionism. The utility of this publication will be by far enhanced, if the Central organisation makes it a point to bring the Directory up to date each year. The Congress also started publishing from 1924 a bulletin called the All-India Trade Union Bulletin which contained notes on vital questions concerning the trade union movement in India. Since the Nagpur split the All-India Trade Unions Federation has been publishing a new journal entitled the Trade Union Record.

Trade Union Legislation

Article 427 of the Peace Treaty (to which India was a signatory) defines certain methods and principles relating to Labour. The second of these principles lays down the right of Association for all lawful purposes by the employed as well as by the employers. This right could not be exercised by Trade Unions in India where it came into conflict with the laws of the land in regard to agreements in restraint of trade, tortuous acts and criminal conspiracy. This drawback was well brought out in consequence of a suit which arose out of a trade dispute in Madras. In 1920 a Company owning a mill whose workmen were on strike brought a suit against the leader of the local labour union which was conducting the strike and others seeking to restrain them from inducing the plaintiff's workmen to break their contracts, and suing for damages for their actions in this respect. The Madras High Court to whom the suit was referred gave their decision granting an *interim* injunction restraining the defendants from inciting the plaintiff's employees to continue the strike. The case was eventually withdrawn but the proceedings suggested that, in the absence of legislation, even legitimate trade union activity was attended by considerable peril. As a result of a resolution moved by Mr. N. M. Joshi and accepted by the Legislative Assembly in March 1921, Government were committed to take steps as soon as practicable to introduce such legislation as might be necessary for the registration and protection of Trade Unions. The Government of India, accordingly, formulated certain tentative proposals and circulated them for eliciting public opinion. The opinions expressed were by no means unanimous—some considered the proposed legislation premature, while some others

realised that legislation was necessary but at the same time considered Trade Unions as a pernicious and dangerous growth which should be rigidly controlled, and others again urged that sufficient protection should be granted to them. In August 1921, the Government of India circulated a draft Bill for opinion. The Bill conferred certain privileges only on registered Trade Unions and left the question of registration at the option of Trade Unions themselves. Provision was also made to ensure that the funds of a registered Trade Union are not expended on causes in which the bulk of the members have little interest. A regular audit of the funds was proposed to be made compulsory and the manner in which the executive should be composed was also provided for.

A number of amendments were made by the Select Committee and in the Legislative Assembly. A clause permitting registered Trade Unions to maintain funds for political purposes was added. The provision was on the model of the British Law on the subject and those members who contracted out of the liability to subscribe should not be compelled to contribute to the Political Fund nor would failure to contribute involve any disability or disadvantage except in so far as the control and management of the Political Fund was concerned. The Bill was passed on the 8th February and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 25th March 1926. It came into effect from the 1st June 1927.

Mr. N. M. Joshi introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 9th February 1928, a Bill to amend Section 43 of the Indian Penal Code in order to extend to the officers and members of unregistered Trade Unions the protection afforded by Section 17 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, which lays down that no officer or member of a registered Trade Union shall be liable to punishment under sub-section (2) of section 120B of the Indian Penal Code, in respect of any agreement made between the members for the purposes of furthering any such object of the Trade Union as is specified in Section 16, unless the agreement is an agreement to commit an offence. The Assembly, however, threw out the Bill.

A Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 6th September 1928 with a view to amending Section 11 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. It was pointed out in the Statement of Objects and Reasons that the existing section 11 of the Act admitted of doubt in two respects namely (1) It did not indicate clearly whether the first appeal lay to the judge appointed for the area within which the Registrar's office is situated or to the judge appointed for the area within which the head office of the trade union is situated. The amendment is intended to make it clear that the latter is the competent court. (2) It did not indicate clearly what judge might be appointed to hear appeals in the Presidency towns and in Bangalore. The amendment is designed to make it clear that in such areas the appeal lies to the High Court and there is no second appeal. The opportunity has also been taken to define clearly the powers of the High Court in second appeals.

The Bill was passed and received the assent of the Governor-General on 25th September 1928

Working of the Act.—The Act has now been in operation for more than 2½ years. Full information regarding the total number of

Unions registered in all Provinces in India is not available. The following table however, shows the number of Unions registered and the character of the membership as at 1st April 1929 for those provinces for which information is available

	Total No of Unions registered	Membership of registered Trade Unions		
		Male	Female	Total
Bombay *	40			70,173
Bengal	9	37,455	190	37,645
Burma	1	148		148
Central Provinces and Berar	8	1,914	600	2,514
Madras	10	16,393	220	16,613
N W F Provinces	1	2,190	4	2,194
Punjab				
United Provinces	4†	8,518		8,518

* The figures are for 1st September 1930 † Two Unions did not furnish figures for membership

No association of employers has yet applied for registration. No Trade Union was registered in the provinces of Assam, Ajmer Merwara, Baluchistan Coorg and Delhi up to the end of March 1929. The great inducement to register has been the predisposition of employers generally to recognise Unions that are registered. In the case of Associations of Government Servants one of the conditions of their recognition by Government was that they should get themselves registered when the Trade Unions Act was

brought into force. In view of the fact however, that certain difficulties have arisen in connexion with the application of the Act to Government servants the question is under the consideration of the Government of India who have not yet formulated any definite conclusions. Pending the consideration of this question Government have relaxed the provision contained in the existing rules for the recognition of Associations of Government servants which requires them to register under the Act.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

The weapon of the strike in industry first came into prominence in India during the period immediately following the close of the War when the majority of the strikes as shown in the Introductory Section were designed to secure increases in wages commensurate with the rise in the cost of living. The epidemic of industrial strikes which characterised the period 1919-20 reached a climax in the winter of 1921. During this period strikes took place purely from economic causes and most of them ended successfully from the view point of the workers, after a short struggle. After this period, however they tended to be more prolonged and less successful and, partly owing to political causes, there were a number of fairly serious disputes in public utility services. In more recent years the machinations of the Communists have been increasingly responsible for the calling of general strikes and their undue prolongation.

Certain characteristics common to most of the strikes in India, in the words of the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in 1924, are—

- The frequency of the strike without notice,
- The absence of any clearly-defined grievance before striking,
- The multiplicity and sometimes the extravagance of the claims put forward after the strike has begun,
- The absence of any effective organisation to formulate the claims of the operatives and to secure respect for any settlement which may be made,
- The increasing solidarity of employers and employed and the capacity of the operatives to remain on strike for considerable periods despite the lack of any viable organisation.

Extent of Disputes.—All-India statistics of industrial disputes for each quarter and for each year have been compiled and published since 1920 by the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour.

The following tables show the number of disputes which occurred during the six years 1924-29 in each province and in each class of industry respectively —

Provinces,	No of disputes in					
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929
Bengal	55	43	57	34*	60	35
Bombay	51	69	57	54	111	70
Madras	16	4	2	19*	7	12
Central Provinces & Berar	3	6	4	2	1	2
United Provinces	4	6	3	3	2	4
Bihar & Orissa	1	2	3	4*	8	2
Burma	3	3	1	3	7	4
Punjab		1			2	
Assam			1	12	5	9
Total	133	134	128	129	203	141†

* One strike extended to three provinces.

† Includes 3 disputes in Delhi

Industries.	No of disputes in					
	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929
Cotton and woollen mills	55	69	57	60	110	78
Jute Mills	20	15	38	11	19	13
Engineering Workshops	8	7	4	6	11	7
Railways including Workshops	4	6	3	3	9	4
Others	46	37	31	49	54	39
Total	133	134	128	129	203	141

The peak in respect of the number of industrial disputes (203) was reached in the year 1928. More than 50 per cent. of these disputes occurred in the Bombay Presidency while only about 30 per cent. occurred in Bengal. In none of the

other provinces was there an average of at least one dispute per month during that year. The industry which was hit hardest was the cotton and woollen mill industry in which no less than 118 disputes took place during the year.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION MACHINERY

Prior to the passing of the Trade Disputes Act as an all India measure early in the year 1929 there was, with the exception of a conciliation panel in Bengal, which will be dealt with lower down, no official machinery for conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes in India. The Employers' and Workmen's (Disputes) Act which was passed in 1860 to make provision for the speedy termination of certain disputes between workmen engaged in railway and other public works and their employers and which was extended, in case of the Bombay Presidency, to the districts of Ahmednagar, Broach, Ahmedabad, Kaira, Poona, Sholapur, Surat and Thana in 1866 and 1881 and to Sind in 1873 deals with individuals and does not provide any machinery for the settlement of disputes in other trades or industries. No records are available to show the extent to which this Act has been made use of in India. The only provinces in which ad hoc Committees have been appointed during the previous ten years either in require

into the question of providing machinery for the settlement of disputes or to deal with specific strikes are the Bengal and the Bombay Presidencies.

Bombay Presidency.—The first Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed on the 18th November 1921 with Sir Stanley Reed as Chairman to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes. This Committee made several recommendations with regard to the standardization of wages, trade unions, the attitude employers should adopt towards Unions of their workers and the recognition of such Unions, Works Committees, Welfare Work, Co-operative Societies, Housing of Labour, etc. Their recommendations were in the nature of measures that might contribute to the prevention of industrial disputes. With regard to the

methods of settlement when such disputes either develop irreconcilable differences between capital and labour or else become a menace to the community, the Committee recommended the formation of an Industrial Court of Enquiry to be followed, if necessary, by an Industrial Court of Conciliation. They were of the opinion that no outside agency and in particular the agency of the State should be used until all other means had been employed and failed or unless it was invited by one or other of the parties to the dispute or unless the situation was such that peace order and good government were prejudiced. The placing of the function of enquiry first and separate from the role of conciliation was done deliberately in order to avoid too facile opportunism which seeks to patch up an industrial dispute by proposing a compromise between the views of the two parties without going down to the economic principles which are at stake. The Committee appended to its Report a draft for a Bombay Industrial Courts Act.

In pursuance of the recommendations made by the Industrial Disputes Committee the Government of Bombay published a Bill to provide for enquiry into and settlement of trade disputes in the *Bombay Government Gazette* in May 1924. It was intended to introduce this Bill in the Bombay Legislative Council at the Poona session in July of the same year but, in the meanwhile the Government of India asked the Local Government not to proceed with this measure because they themselves intended to introduce similar legislation for the whole of India. This, however, was not the first occasion on which the Government of India considered the question of the advisability of introducing legislation to provide for the settlement of disputes. In 1922 they circulated all Local Governments asking their opinions as to the advisability of providing legislation on the lines of the Industrial Courts Act 1919. The opinions obtained by provincial Governments were almost unanimous that labour was not properly organised and that therefore no useful purpose would be served by such legislation. The majority of the provincial Governments adopted the same view.

Bombay Dispute Enquiry Committee.—The next Committee to be appointed by the Government of Bombay was the Committee of Enquiry with Sir Norman Macleod as Chairman to enquire into the general strike of the Bombay cotton mill workers of the year 1924 in connection with the non payment of an annual bonus for the year 1923 by the Bombay mills. The terms of reference were —

- (1) to consider the nature and basis of the bonus which was granted to the employees in the cotton mills of Bombay since 1919 and to declare whether the employees had established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable, and
- (2) to enquire into the profits made in each year since 1917 with a view to comparing these profits with the profits made in the year 1923, and to report on the contention of the millowners that the grant of a bonus

such as was given in previous years was not justified by the profits of the mill industry as a whole in 1923

The findings of the Committee on these points were —

- (1) That the mill workers had not established any enforceable claim, customary legal, or equitable to the annual payment of a bonus, and
- (2) that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923 were such as to justify the contention of the millowners that the profits did not admit of the payment of a bonus

Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee.—The third *ad hoc* Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was the Bombay Enquiry Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir Charles Fawcett, Judge of the Bombay High Court in connection with the general strike of the cotton mill workers in Bombay City of the year 1928 in pursuance of the agreement arrived at between the *Bombay Millowners Association* and the *Joint Strike Committee* at a conference held under the Chairmanship of the Hon Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah, General Member of the Government of Bombay on the 4th October 1928. The terms of reference to the Committee were —

- (a) whether the amended scheme of a standardised schedule of rates and of a standardised muster prepared by the *Millowners Association* and also the scheme prepared by the *Joint Strike Committee* was fair and reasonable
- (b) whether the Seventeen Demands advanced by the *Joint Strike Committee* were fair and reasonable and to what extent, if any, they should be met and
- (c) whether the Standing Orders as amended and presented by the *Millowners Association* on the 4th October 1928 were fair and reasonable

This Committee sat for a continuous period of five and a half months and its Report was published on the 26th March 1929.

The main conclusions and recommendations of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee were as follows —

- (1) The proposals of the *Millowners Association* (a) for standardisation of wages, duties and numbers of operatives in a mill and (b) for Standing Orders for the operatives about the conditions of their employment were in the main fair and reasonable
- (2) While there was justification for the Association's proposal to make a cut of 7½ per cent in weavers wages, that were reasonable objections to be urged against its adoption in the present circumstances, and it was recommended that it should be dropped by the Association provided the Labour leaders undertook to co-operate in working the scheme for the standardisation of wages.
- (3) That part of the standardisation scheme which is called the "Rational" or "Efficiency" system and which aims at

reducing the number of operatives employed in mills while raising their wages and providing conditions favourable for the extra efficiency expected from the operatives was fair and reasonable

- (4) Although the principle at the back of the standardised Standing Orders was considered to be fair and reasonable, it was recommended that alterations should be made in the proposed rules in connexion with the following matters —

(a) The finality of the order of a Manager or the Managing Agents should be without prejudice to any right of an operative affected by his or their decision to resort to legal proceedings in a court of law,

(b) The Standing Orders should not be altered without the previous consultation of, and consideration of objections by, the operatives or their representatives,

(c) A rule should be added about granting leave,

(d) A rule should be inserted as to the method of calculating wages,

(e) The right to play off for trade purposes should be restricted to a period of two days at a time

(f) An operative who is played off for a period longer than a week may be permitted to leave the Company's service on intimation of his intention without further notice

(g) A rule should be added entitling an operative to compensation for detention in a mill for over an hour in the event of stoppage of work owing to breakdown of machinery etc.

(h) The period of notice for the termination of employment should be reduced to fourteen days

(i) A rule should be added as to the payment of unclaimed wages

With regard to some other important matters raised from the discussions of the Standing Orders the Committee found as follows —

(a) As to the advisability of an extra morning recess they agreed with the Tariff Board as to its advisability and suggested that it should be tried as an experiment in suitable mills with a reduction of the working hours to 9½

(b) As to exempting weavers from taking out and presenting Attendance tickets it was held that there was no sufficient reason to exempt them

(c) As to the liability of operatives to be searched it was held that this was reasonable.

(d) As to payment of wages being made earlier than at present, it was recommended that an attempt should be made to pay them by the 10th of each month.

(e) As to the legality and fairness of playing off, it was held that there is no objection to this in the case of stoppages due to causes for which the employer is not responsible, but that it should be restricted to a period not exceeding two days at a time in the case of playing off for trade purposes.

(f) As to the legality and fairness of forfeiture of wages for leaving without due notice the question was answered in the affirmative

(g) As to the legality of operatives striking work without notice or inducing others to do so it was held that this could rightly be treated as misconduct rendering an operative liable to dismissal

(h) As to the proposed abolition of fines, the proposal was rejected pending the decision of the Indian Legislature on the subject on the Bill proposed to be framed in this matter by the Government of India.

(i) As to the compulsory purchase by weavers of spool cloth, it was held that its compulsory purchase is objectionable and a rule was suggested on the subject to restrict this present practice within reasonable limits.

- (5) With regard to the Seventeen Demands submitted by the Joint Strike Committee the following demands were considered to be fair and reasonable—

(a) That the Millowners shall not vary any of the present conditions to the disadvantage of the workers before securing the approval of the workers through their organisations

(b) That the Millowners Association shall not permit its individual members to vary the conditions of service to the disadvantage of the workers without the sanction of the Association

(c) The rates of new varieties shall be fixed by the Millowners Association in consultation with the representatives of the Workers organisations

(d) Notices in vernacular showing the rates of piece work in detail should be posted in the Departments for the information of the workers

(e) The rules regarding the forfeiture of wages remaining unclaimed for certain periods should be done away with.

(f) The conditions of employment, work and payment should be standardised

(g) The present high piece allowances should be consolidated with the original wages

(h) One month's notice must be given by either side before terminating the contract of service, (As a result of mutual agreement between the

- parties, the period of notice was reduced during the discussions before the Committee to fourteen days)
- (f) The Millowners' Association should make standard rules for the guidance of its members regarding the grant of leave to their employees
 - (g) All the rules that are usually posted in the mills or departments should be standardised by the Millowners Association so that they shall be uniform in all the mills.
 - (h) That none of these rules or regulations shall be such as may deprive the workers of their rights conferred on them by the existing law
 - (i) Employment in the Weaving Department of the mills should be opened to the members of the so called "Depressed Classes"
 - (m) That there should be no victimisation of men who had taken part in the strike or any Union activities
- All the above except (g) and (h) were eventually conceded by the Millowners Association
- (7) The following demands were held to be unfair and unreasonable—
 - (a) The wages of those workers whose average monthly wage is less than Rs 30 should be raised substantially
 - (b) The newly introduced system of compelling the workmen (1) to take out and present tickets of attendance and (2) to clean the machinery daily should be discontinued
 - (8) The following demands were held to be partly fair and reasonable and partly not—
 - (a) The present practices resorted to by some millowners which result in the reduction of wages should be stopped and reductions and altered conditions already effected since 1920 should be restored
 - (b) That where the daily hours of work of any class of workers were less than ten the hours should not be raised to ten without the consent of the workers concerned expressed through their organisations. When the hours are thus increased the workmen should be paid for the same at the usual overtime rates.
 - (c) The system by which each worker is required to look after three looms or the whole spinning frame (two sides) should not be introduced or continued without the consultation and free consent of the workers expressed through their organisations.
 - (9) The recommendations of the Committee for alleviating unemployment consequent on the introduction of efficiency methods of work were as follows —
 - (a) The millowners should set up some machinery for taking note of all cases where workers are discharged on account of reduction of staff and help them as far as possible to get suitable employment either in some other mill or in some other industry
 - (b) The Millowners Association should consider the advisability of a scheme for the payment of a gratuity to a worker, which may amount to say, four weeks or six weeks wages according to his length of service payable in suitable sums to charged employees who may need help during the waiting period while they are seeking employment. The formation of an Out-of-Work Donation Fund on a voluntary basis to be created by a system of setting aside a contribution by the Millowners of one anna per operative per month to which fund the operatives through their representatives should be invited to contribute one anna or at least half an anna per head per month was suggested
 - (10) The Trade Unions should combine to arrange for the assistance of an expert technical adviser in dealing with disputes arising under the Standardisation Scheme
 - (11) In view of the fact that several matters required adjustment in connexion with the scheme for wage standardisation after it had been brought into operation and with a view to avoiding strikes and lockouts, machinery was provided by Mediation Rules agreed to by both sides for setting up joint Committees to enquire into disputes arising under the scheme and to endeavour to arrange for their settlement. As these rules are the only rules of their kind yet framed in India they deserve to be reproduced in full

MEDIATION RULES.

Objects.—The object of these rules is to secure the consideration and settlement of trade disputes in their early stages, and thereby to preserve good feeling between Employers and Operatives. For the purpose of carrying out this object, it is agreed as follows—

1 In the event of a trade dispute arising between any member of the Millowners' Association, Bombay, and any operative (s), member or

members of a Trade Union registered in accordance with the provisions of the Trade Union Registration Act, 1927 in any mill or mills in Bombay City and Island, other than a trade dispute as to the correct interpretation of the Standard Orders or the Standardisation rates of wages laid down for Bombay Mills which are

members of the Bombay Millowners' Association the following course shall be taken —

- (I) Before any notice shall be given by either party to terminate employment for the purpose of a lockout or strike the dispute shall be brought forthwith before a joint meeting of not less than two and not more than six authorised representatives of the mill or mills concerned and an equal number of representatives of the Trade Union or Unions of which the operatives is a (are) member (s) and such meeting shall be called within four days from the date of a written application by either party for such a meeting and if a settlement of the dispute is not come to at such meeting or at an adjournment thereof, then
- (II) Before any notice shall be given by either party to terminate for the purpose of a lockout or a strike the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting consisting of two or more members of the Employers Mediation Panel and an equal number of the Textile Trade Union Mediation Panel and such meeting shall be called within seven days from the date of an application by either party for such a meeting and if a settlement of the dispute be not come to at that meeting, or at an adjournment thereof then
- (III) Before any notice shall be given by either party to terminate employment for the purpose of a lockout or strike, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting of the Committee of the Millowners Association, Bombay, and the representatives of the registered Textile Trade Unions of Bombay and such meeting shall be called within seven days from the date of an application by either party for such meeting and if a settlement be not come to at such meeting or at an adjournment thereof, then either party shall be at liberty to take whatever course it thinks fit.
- 2 In the event of a dispute arising as to the correct interpretation of the Standing Orders or the Standardisation Scheme of wages laid down for Bombay Mills which are members of the Bombay Millowners Association, the following course shall be taken —
- (I) The dispute shall in the first instance be investigated without delay by the management of the mills concerned who shall, after completing investigations, in those cases in which a settlement is not arrived at, submit a report within seven days in writing to the Secretary of the Millowners Association and to the Secretaries of the Textile Trade Unions registered in Bombay
- (II) Upon receipt of such communication by the Secretary of the Mill-

owners Association, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting consisting of two or more members of the Employers Mediation Panel and an equal number of the Textile Trade Union Mediation Panel, to be called within seven days from the date on which the Secretary of the Millowners Association received the notification referred to in sub clause (I) and if a settlement of the dispute be not come to at that meeting, or at an adjournment thereof then

- (III) Upon application of either party to the dispute, the dispute shall be brought before a joint meeting of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners Association and the representative of the registered Textile Trade Unions of Bombay to be called within seven days from the receipt of an application by either party for such a meeting and if a settlement be not come to at such a meeting or at an adjournment thereof then either party shall be at liberty to take whatever course it thinks fit

3 Whenever a settlement of any trade dispute shall not have been come to and the operatives are on strike, or have been locked out meetings shall be held periodically between the representatives of the Millowners Association and representatives of the members of the Trade Unions concerned in the dispute. The first of such meetings shall be called within four weeks after the commencement of the strike or lockout and subsequent meetings at monthly or shorter intervals thereafter. The exact date, time and place of the first of such meetings shall be decided at the last joint meeting previous to the commencement of the strike or lockout.

4 Upon an application from either the Millowners Association, or at least one half of the registered Textile Trade Unions, a joint meeting of the Committee of the Millowners Association and the representatives of the registered Textile Trade Unions shall be called within 28 days from the date of such an application to discuss any suggestions for altering or amending terms and/or conditions of employment affecting or likely to affect more than one quarter of the Cotton Textile Mills in Bombay

5 The Secretary of the Millowners Association Bombay shall record the decisions of any joint meetings held in accordance with the terms of Rules 1 (II), 1 (III), 2 (II) 2 (III) 3 and 4.

The scheme submitted by the Millowners Association to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee for the standardisation of wages was never intended to be final and it was understood that it would be subject to changes wherever it was found, from actual experience of its working, to be necessary to alter. At the joint conferences held after the publication of the Committee's Report between Sub Committee of the Association and the Joint Strike Committee which was in charge of the conduct of the general strike of the year 1928 on behalf of labour, the representatives of the Bombay

General Kamgar Union raised extraneous issues like victimisation and the discussions for which the Conference was called were abandoned and the general strike of 1929 declared on grounds which had nothing to do with the scheme as such.

Owing to the undue prolongation of the general strike in the Bombay Cotton Mills of the year 1929 and the consequent disruption of labour it has not been possible for the Bombay Mill owners Association to bring into operation the Mediation Rules recommended by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee for the simple reason that there are no recognised Unions representing Bombay Cotton Mill workers in the City. The Bombay Textile Labour Union of which Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A. is the President has barely 479 members. The recognition accorded by the Bombay Millowners Association to the Bombay General Kamgar Union which claimed a membership of over fifty thousand after its registration in May 1928 was withdrawn by the Association on the publication of the reports of the Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act to inquire into questions connected with the general strike of the year 1929 and the Riots Enquiry Committee. The Association has been giving anxious consideration to the practical steps which might be taken by mills to bring about better relations between employers and their workmen and for the prevention of accumulation of grievances. In a circular letter dated the 8th January 1930 addressed by the Association to all the mills affiliated to it they have issued instructions that all mills should take immediate steps when, by complaints and grievances of the workers may be attended to by the management concerned at once. For this purpose complaint boxes are to be placed in the compounds of all mills in which workers are invited to put in petitions regarding their grievances or suggestions for improvement of conditions of work. The mills have been requested to give sympathetic consideration to any complaints or suggestions made and to redress or give effect to them wherever possible. Further measures calculated to improve the relations between the employers and the employed are under consideration. The Association have also devised measures for joint discussions between managers of mills and the Association on general questions relating to the internal administration of the mills.

The next Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was a Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act in connection with the general strike of cotton mill operatives in Bombay City of 1929. This will be dealt with below under the heading Trade Disputes Act.

Bengal.—Several special Committees were appointed by the Government of Bengal during the period of intense industrial unrest during the years 1920-21.

(1) As the result of a strike of taxi-drivers and professional drivers of private cars in Calcutta which was caused by objections to certain rules, particularly (a) a new rule requiring medical examination of applicants for professional

drivers' license, and (b) another rule forbidding the currying of attendants in taxis, Government appointed a Committee of Enquiry into the existing licensing regulations and the control of taxi cabs generally. The strike lasted from the 12th to the 20th January 1921 and ceased as a result of the institution of the inquiry. The Committee made a number of proposals for amendments in the existing regulations. These proposals were ultimately accepted and brought into effect on the 12th October 1921.

(2) As the result of a strike of drivers and conductors of Calcutta and Howrah tramways which lasted from the 27th January to the 21st February 1921 Government appointed a Committee of Enquiry after the resumption of work by the strikers on the 8th March 1921. The men resumed work towards the end of February on conditions (a) that the Calcutta Tramways Company would investigate their grievances and announce their decision within a week and (b) that if the men were dissatisfied with the Company's decision Government would appoint a Committee of Enquiry. There was general agreement between the Company and the men's representatives in regard to the majority of the Committee's recommendations. Some however of the Directors of the Company did not accept the terms. Another strike of the tramway employees of a much more protracted character broke out in 1922. It lasted from 20th December 1922 to 27th January 1923. A Committee of Enquiry was appointed although the representatives of the men raised several points which arose from the previous inquiry. Work was resumed unconditionally.

(3) During a strike on the light railway of Messrs. Martin and Company in the 24 Parganas and Howrah which lasted from the 15th June to the 2nd July 1921 a special Conciliation Board was constituted by Government by a special resolution at the joint request of the employees and the employers concerned. The result of the Board's efforts was a compromise on most of the points raised by the workers, and as a result of the Board's recommendations it was agreed that joint works committees should be set up on the Howrah and Howrah-Sheekhkhala Lines. Works Committees were established soon after the Board's report was published, but they failed to function owing to the men's indifference.

(4) The Bengal Legislative Council passed a resolution on the 4th March 1921 to the effect that Government should appoint a Committee to enquire into the general causes of the prevailing unrest and to suggest remedial measures. The report of the Committee was published on the 18th June 1921. The main recommendations of the Committee were—

- (a) the establishment of joint works committees in industrial concerns
- (b) non intervention of Government in private industrial disputes which it was considered should be settled by voluntary conciliation.

- (d) the constitution by Government of a conciliation panel to deal with disputes in public utility services, and
- (e) the appointment by Government of special conciliation bodies in the case of private industrial disputes if both parties desired outside intervention

As the result of the recommendations of this Committee a conciliation panel was constituted under Government resolution dated the 26th August 1921. The panel contained thirty names, and was composed on a representative basis leading public bodies being asked to recommend persons to serve on it. The panel was reconstituted every year till 1929, when it was superseded by the Trade Disputes Act. Several applications for Government intervention were received during the period of the panel's existence but in no case did Government consider that intervention was justified.

The Government of Bengal agreed with the Committee's view that there was no reason why voluntary conciliation boards, which constituted, should not achieve a large measure of success in labour disputes affecting public utility services, where the parties had come to a dead-lock, and a solution of the disputes could only be found in the intervention of outsiders. The panel was intended to deal only with disputes affecting public utility services in Calcutta and its neighbourhood. In the settlement of ordinary labour disputes not directly affecting the public, the Committee held that it was not ordinarily the duty of Government to intervene in such disputes either directly or indirectly, but if both parties express a desire that their differences should be investigated by an impartial authority the Governor in Council should be prepared to establish a conciliation board to deal with the matter, or to take such other action as might be suitable in the circumstances of the case.

TRADE DISPUTES LEGISLATION.

The history of the various proposals for legislation providing machinery for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes in India covers a period of about ten years. The findings of the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in the year 1921 in pursuance of a Resolution moved in the Bombay Legislative Council for the appointment of a Committee to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes has already been dealt with above. Mention has also been made of the action taken by the Government of Bombay under circumstances which led to its abandonment owing to the Government of India circularising a draft Bill as an All India measure. The Bill circulated by the Government of India in August 1924 was very wide and comprehensive in scope and extent. It covered all workmen including the employees of the Government of India and of any Local Government. An important distinction was made in the general body of workmen by dividing them into employees in public utility services and other employees. In the case of public utility services and in those services to be specially notified as such by the Governor-General in Council it was provided that it would not be lawful for any employer to declare or force a lock-out or for any workman to take part in a strike on account of any dispute, unless due notice of the proposed lock-out or strike was sent to the prescribed officer. Such strikes or lock-outs were not permitted until the expiry of 30 days after notice had been served, in cases where no order had been made for the reference of the dispute to a Board and until the expiry of 30 days after notice had been served, in cases where such an order had been made or until the expiry of 7 days after the publication of a report by a Board whichever of the two dates might be earlier. There was no separate provision in the Bill for Courts of Enquiry or Boards of Arbitration or Conciliation. The functions of these two separate institutions in industrial disputes legislation were vested under the Bill in one body which was to be called the Board of

Investigation and Conciliation. The members of a Board were to be selected from permanent panels of (1) representatives of employers, (2) representatives of employees, and (3) persons to be appointed as Chairmen. Both the Government of India and each Local Government were to form their own panels. The functions of these Boards were to endeavour to bring about a settlement of any disputes by a thorough investigation of the circumstances and cause of each dispute. Nothing further was heard about this Bill until the end of 1925 when His Excellency the Viceroy in a speech at the Annual Meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, at Calcutta said: "The question of providing means of conciliation of trade disputes has been thoroughly explored but it would be premature to legislate on this question until the Trade Union Bill has become law." The Trade Union Act was passed in the Legislative Assembly in March 1926 and was brought into operation with effect from the 1st June 1927.

In August 1928 the Government of India published their second Bill making provision for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes and for certain other purposes. This Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly for a motion for circulation on the 21st September 1928. The Bill differed in several important respects in comparison with the Government of India's original Bill of 1924. The main part of the Bill falls into three parts. Clauses 3 to 14 of the 1928 Bill related to the establishment of tribunals for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes. This part of the Bill was based generally on the British Industrial Courts Act of 1919 and its detailed provisions were adopted for the most part from clauses in that Act. The main difference was that whereas the British Act sets a Standing Industrial Court, the Conciliation Boards which the Bill proposes to establish were intended to be appointed *ad hoc* like the Courts of Enquiry, in order to deal with particular disputes. The object of Courts of Enquiry which would ordinarily be composed of persons having no direct

interest in the disputes would be to investigate and report on such questions connected with the dispute as might be referred to them. The objects of Boards of Conciliation which would ordinarily include representatives of the parties to a dispute would be to secure a settlement of the dispute. Provisions were made so as to enable both Courts of Inquiry and Boards of Conciliation to enforce the attendance of witnesses and the production of documents. Neither party would be under any obligation to accept the finding of the Court or the advice of the Board and in cases where the dispute is not brought to an end during the deliberations of the tribunal that had been appointed, reliance was to be placed on the force of public opinion which would be enabled by the publication of the report of the tribunal to arrive at just conclusions on the merits of the dispute.

The second part of the Bill consisted of clause 1 in which related to public utility services. In accordance with the definition of "Public Utility Services" in clause 2 of the Bill Clause 1 would be applicable to such railway services as would be notified by the Governor General in Council. The clause made it a penal offence for workers employed on monthly wages in public utility services to strike without previous notice and also provided heavy penalties for persons plotting such an offence. The clause was based on the principle that persons whose work was vital to the welfare of the community generally should not be entitled to enter into a strike before sufficient time had been given to examine the merits of their grievances and to explore the possibilities of arriving at a possible settlement. Provisions of a somewhat similar type already exist in the Indian Post Office Act in a number of Municipal Acts in India, and the principle is one which is widely accepted in other countries.

Clauses 16 to 20 of the Bill contained certain special provisions relating to illegal strikes and lock-outs. These clauses followed closely the provisions of sections 1, 2 and 7 of the British Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act 1927. They were to be applicable only in the case of the strikes and lock-outs which satisfied both of two conditions in the first place the strike or lock-out must have other objects than the mere furtherance of a trade dispute within the industry to which the strikers or employers belonged and in the second place, the strike or lock-out must be designed to coerce Government either directly or by inflicting hardship on the community. If these conditions were satisfied, the strike or lock-out would become illegal. Persons furthering the strike or lock-out were liable to punishment and would be deprived of the protection granted to them by the Indian Trade Unions Act while persons refusing to take part in it would be protected from trade union disabilities to which they might otherwise be subjected.

The motion for circulation was adopted in the Legislative Assembly and the Bill was circulated to all Local Governments for opinion. Some Provincial Governments recommended that questions connected with picketing and intimidation of the type which were entirely responsible for the undue prolongation of the general strikes in the cotton mills of Bombay City of the years

1928 and 1929 and the rioting in Bombay in the year 1929 should also be covered. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee of the Legislative Assembly in February 1929.

The Select Committee decided to limit the duration of the Act to five years. In connection with the definition of the term "Public Utility Services" they were of the opinion that the wide power enabling the Government to declare any industry business or undertaking to be a public utility service was undesirable as well as unnecessary and the provision made for this in the draft Bill was omitted. Various proposals designed to lay upon the Government a definite obligation to convene a Court of Inquiry or a Board of Conciliation in cases where one of the parties so required were considered. But the Committee thought that unless both parties were agreed in desiring a reference it would be useless to fetter the discretion of the Government as to the time at which the matter was reported for action under clause 1. At the same time they held that no option should be left to the Government to refuse to appoint a Court or Board where the Government was satisfied that both parties were agreed as to the necessity as well as to the form which it should take. They therefore considered it necessary to provide that in every case a Court of Inquiry, where it consisted of one or more persons, should not include persons having no interest in the dispute or in any industry affected by it and in this connection the Committee proposed a further definition of the term. An independent person. The clause relating to the publication of the findings of Courts and Boards was maintained on the lines of the English Act so as to make it quite clear that every report of a Court or Board whether final or interim must be published, and that only the publication of such information or evidence as the appointing authority thought fit should be left to its discretion. It was considered inadvisable to forbid the representation of parties before Courts and Boards by legal practitioners subject only to exceptions and they re-drafted the clause in such a manner as to permit that such representation would ordinarily be permissible subject however to such conditions and restrictions as might be provided by the rules.

The Select Committee accepted the principle underlying the clause in connection with strikes in public utility services but they held that the clause as originally drafted was open to certain criticisms. For example it was pointed out that many persons are actually employed upon a daily wage which is in practice paid monthly also that the clause as provided would appear to penalise abstention from work on the part of a particular individual, and further that the clause was one-sided and inflicted no penalty upon an employer who locks out his workmen. The latter point was considered as one which should certainly be met as by the nature of his employment, a casual or day-to-day labourer must be entitled to cease work at any moment and be similarly liable to dismissal and it was agreed that he should therefore be excluded altogether from the operation of this clause. The Committee adopted a suggestion made by the Government of Bombay which made it clear that the cessation of work must be in the nature

of a strike as defined in the Bill and it was provided that in order to render it a penal offence the strike must be in breach of a definite contract between the employer and the workmen. The Committee added a collateral provision penalising an employer for locking out his workmen in breach of any contract. The Committee adopted the clause in connection with illegal strikes but with some amendments which in their opinion would restrict its scope without materially impairing its effectiveness. In sub-clause 2 of this section they made it clear that for the application of money to be illegal it must not merely tend to further or support the strike but have the direct effect of so doing. This was intended to exclude a case in which money is spent upon the relief of the dependants of strikers. A further sub-clause borrowed from a similar provision from the English Act of 1927 explaining the circumstances in which a group of workmen should be deemed to be within the same trade or industry was added. The penalties provided for the instigation of an illegal strike were modified. With regard to clause 20 of the draft Bill, the Committee held that there was no sufficient justification for giving an option to the Government to apply for injunctions restraining the expense of the funds of a Trade Union in connection with an illegal strike. It was considered that under clause 16 such expenditure had been declared illegal and the persons properly interested in seeing that the funds were not mis-applied are the members of the Trade Union concerned. The Committee were of the opinion that the Bill had not been so altered as to require republication and they recommended that it should be passed

as duly amended by them.

The Select Committee as such did not deal with the question of making provision for picketing and intimidation in their report but in a minute of dissent Sir Victor Sassoon Bart. stated that the alteration of the law relating to picketing was one for which, in his opinion the time was ripe. Picketing of any kind should be rendered illegal while a Court or Board is sitting and the law on picketing at any time should be altered to render it illegal at or near a workmen's house as under the English Law. There appeared to be some doubt as to whether legislation of this kind should take place in this Bill or by an Amending Bill to section 503 of the Indian Penal Code. It had been stated that if an amendment of this kind were passed in the Select Committee it would delay the Bill. As he did not desire to delay the acceptance of the provisions of this Bill he did not press the point which was raised by other members of the Select Committee. Sir Victor Sassoon however, thought that suitable action should be taken by Government either when the Bill came up before the House or by bringing out an amending Bill to the Indian Penal Code to deal with this most important and necessary point. The action taken by the Government of Bombay in connection with the passing of an Intimidation Act has been dealt with in the chapter on Industrial Disputes.

The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was passed by the Legislative Assembly on the 8th April 1929 without any change and received the assent of the Governor General on the 12th April 1929.

INDIA AND INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONVENTIONS

The Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles refers to the fact that the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries. In order to establish universal peace based on social justice, the Peace Treaty not only laid down general principles in regard to questions affecting labour which were recognised by the High Contracting Parties to be of special and urgent importance, but also brought into being the International Labour Organisation which was entrusted with the task of securing as far as practicable the observance of these principles. The International Labour Conference has been discussing various questions connected with industrial, agricultural and maritime labour since 1919 and has recorded its findings in conventions and recommendations. The Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference are not automatically binding on the State Members but they have to be submitted to the Legislature of each country and this secures the regular examination both by the Executive Governments and the Legislatures of schemes which international opinion considers necessary and desirable for the amelioration of labour conditions. During the fourteen Conferences that have been held, 31 Conventions have been adopted. Out of these eleven have been ratified by India. The following is a full list of the Conventions which have been adopted,

those ratified by India being marked with an asterisk

First Conference (Washington 1919)

- 1 Limiting hours of work in industrial undertakings *
- 2 Unemployment *
- 3 Employment of women before and after child birth
- 4 Employment of women during night *
- 5 Night work of young persons employed in industry *
- 6 Fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment

Second Conference (Genoa 1920)

- 7 Fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea
- 8 Unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of ships
- 9 Establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen

Third Conference (Geneva, 1921)

- 10 Age for admission of children to employment in agriculture
- 11 Rights of Association and Combination of agricultural workers *
- 12 Workmen's Compensation in agriculture
- 13 Use of white lead in painting

- 14 The application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings *
- 15 Fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers *
- 16 Compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea *

Seventh Conference (Geneva 1924)

- 17 Workmen's Compensation for accidents
- 18 Workmen's Compensation for the occupational diseases *
- 19 Equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards Workmen's Compensation for accidents *
- 20 Nightwork in bakeries

Fifth Conference (Geneva 1926)

- 21 Simplification of the inspection of emigrants on boardship *

Ninth Conference (Geneva 1926)

- 22 Seamen's Articles of Agreement
- 23 Registration of seamen

Tenth Conference (Geneva 1927)

- 24 Sickness Insurance for workers in industry and commerce and for domestic services
- 25 Sickness Insurance for agricultural workers

Eleventh Conference (Geneva 1928)

- 26 Creation of Minimum Wage fixing machinery

Twelfth Conference (Geneva 1929)

- 27 Weight of packages transported by vessels
- 28 Prevention of accidents in docks
- Fourteenth Conference (Geneva 1930)*
- 29 Forced or compulsory labour
- 30 Regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices

The Convention adopted in connexion with white phosphorus at the Berne Convention formed the subject of one of the Washington recommendations. This Convention has also been ratified by India, but as this Convention did not strictly speaking, originate with the International Labour Organisation it has not been included in the list of Conventions given above. Out of the eleven Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference which have been ratified by India only three involved no further legislation viz. items (2) (9) and (10) above. Two Conventions items (15) and (16) above have been ratified but the necessary legislation has not yet been undertaken. In some other cases, e.g. items (6) (9) (18) (23) & (30) above some action has been taken though the Conventions have not been ratified by the Government of India.

Recommendations

In addition to the Conventions dealt with above, the International Labour Conference have also adopted several Recommendations. These are shown below according to the years and at the Conferences at which they were adopted.

First Conference (Washington, 1919)

- 1 Unemployment
- 2 Reciprocity of treatment
- 3 Prevention of anthrax
- 4 Protection of women and children against lead poisoning
5. Government health services

Second Conference (Geneva, 1920)

- 6 Hours of work (fishing industry)
- 7 Hours of work (inland navigation)
- 8 National seamen's codes
- 9 Unemployment Insurance (seamen)

Third Conference (Geneva, 1921)

- 10 Prevention of unemployment (agriculture)
- 11 Maternity (agriculture)
- 12 Night work of women (agriculture)
- 13 Night work of children and young persons (agriculture)
- 14 Technical agricultural education
- 15 Living in conditions (agriculture)
- 16 Social Insurance (agriculture)
- 17 Weekly rest (commerce)

Fourth Conference (Geneva, 1922)

- 18 Migration statistics

Fifth Conference (Geneva 1923)

- 19 Factory inspection

Sixth Conference (Geneva, 1924)

- 20 Utilization of spare time

Seventh Conference (Geneva 1925)

- 21 Minimum scale of workmen's compensation
- 22 Jurisdiction in disputes on workmen's compensation
- 23 Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases
- 24 Equality of treatment (workmen's compensation)

Eighth Conference (Geneva, 1926)

- 25 Protection of migrant women and girls on boardship

Ninth Conference (Geneva 1926)

- 26 Internation of ship's masters and apprentices
- 27 Inspection of conditions of work of seamen

Tenth Conference (Geneva 1927)

- 28 General principles of sickness insurance

Eleventh Conference (Geneva 1928)

- 29 Minimum wage fixing machinery

Twelfth Conference (Geneva 1929)

- 30 Prevention of industrial accidents
- 31 Protection of machinery
- 32 Consultation with industrial organisations on regulations under Convention 28
- 33 Reciprocity (inspection certificates)

Fourteenth Conference (Geneva 1930)

- 24 Indirect compulsion to labour
- 35 Regulation of forced or compulsory labour
- 36 Hours of work (hotels, restaurants etc.)
- 37 Hours of work (theatres, etc.)
- 38 Hours of work (hospitals, etc.)

The Thirteenth Conference which was held at Geneva in October 1929 was a Maritime Session. No new draft Conventions or Recommendations were adopted and the Session confined itself merely to preliminary discussions of four questions relating to seafarers which might be susceptible of treatment by Conventions, or Recommendations at a special Maritime Session to be held this year. On each of these four items—hours of work, sickness or injury welfare in ports, and qualifications of officers—the

business of this Session was to determine after a general exchange of views, whether the question should be made the subject of a second and decisive discussion in 1930 and, if so, to indicate the points on which in the meantime the International Labour Office should collect the formal opinions of the States Members.

At the Twelfth Session of the Conference held in June 1929, two most important subjects

discussed under the double discussion procedure, were (1) hours of work of salaried employees, and (2) forced labour. The question of forced labour is being discussed in a separate section. At the 11th session of the Conference held in June 1930 two Conventions, one regarding the regulation of hours of work in commerce and office and another regarding forced labour were adopted.

GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

During pre-Reform days Labour was not a question to which the Central or provincial Governments in India gave the same attention as they did to such subjects as education, health or justice. After the amendment of the Indian Factories Act of 1891 in 1911, the appointment of the Indian Industrial Commission in May, 1916, may be considered to be the first milestone in the progressive interest taken by Government in questions connected with labour. The active participation of India in the Great War led to the creation of an unprecedented opportunity and the emergence of an unprecedented need for a definite industrial policy for India as a whole. The examination of various industrial questions by the Industrial Commission included to a certain extent, the examination of questions connected with labour as well. Previous to this date no provincial or All India inquiries of a general character were held into conditions of labour with the exception of some quinquennial censuses into agricultural wages. No information was available in 1919 as to the rates of wages which were paid in industry and for that matter, very little information in this direction is available even to-day. Indian labour secured its first opportunity with her participation in the signing of the treaty of peace and her becoming a live member of the international comity of nations. The participation by India, in the first International Labour Conference held at Washington in the year 1919 made it necessary for the Government of India and the Governments of the more industrialised provinces not only to consider the question of the representation of labour in the Central and Provincial Legislatures but also to allocate to special departments or offices the administration of labour questions.

Under the Devolution Rules (Schedule I, Part 2, Rule 26) industrial matters included under the heads factories and welfare of labour fall within the scope of the provincial legislatures. Under the same rules "regulation of mines and inter-provincial migration" are central subjects. A Labour Bureau was established by the Government of India in the year 1920 but it was abolished in March 1923 on the recommendation of the Indian Reformation Committee. The administration of labour matters since then has been in the hands of the Department of Industries and Labour with a Member of the Viceroy's Council holding the portfolio. Amongst Local Governments the Bengal and the Madras Presidencies were the first in the field for the creation of special Labour Offices.

Bengal.

The Government of Bengal appointed a Labour Intelligence Officer in the year 1930. Labour laws were to be administered in the Commerce

Department, but the Revenue Department continued the administration of the Assam Labour Immigration Act. The Labour Intelligence Officer was to keep a record of industrial disputes in the Presidency and also the number of labour organisations. From time to time as circumstances permitted, he was to conduct special inquiries. He was, however, not provided with an adequate staff for the purpose. The staff of his office consisted of only one clerk and one stenographer. The Labour Intelligence Officer is also the Deputy Secretary to the Government of Bengal in the Commerce Department and since the bringing into effect of the Indian Trade Unions Act 1926, he has also been appointed Registrar of Trade Unions. On his appointment as Registrar of Trade Unions the stenographer was replaced by an additional clerk. The Labour Intelligence Officer has made frequent inquiries into questions referred to the Local Government by the Government of India in connection with proposals for labour legislation but no special inquiries have been conducted or reports of such inquiries published.

Madras

The Government of Madras appointed a Labour Commissioner in the same year viz. 1920 to watch and study at all times the conditions of labour particularly industrial labour throughout the Presidency and to keep Government informed by periodical reports of its movements and tendencies and of the existence of any disputes between employers and employed. The settlement of labour disputes and prevention of strikes are features of his work but his interference in such disputes is limited to tendering his offices to settle them. In the case of disputes affecting the internal administration of a railway he may interfere only if both sides agree to his intervention but he must obtain the previous sanction of Government in each case. He is also the Protector of Depressed Classes in which work most of his time is occupied. On a par with the Labour Intelligence Officer, Bengal, the Labour Commissioner in Madras has also no special statistical office to deal with labour statistics and no reports have been published of any special inquiries into questions connected with industrial labour in the Presidency. Since the creation of the Office the conduct of periodic censuses into agricultural wages is, however placed in his hands.

The Bombay Labour Office

The real pioneer work in the field of labour information and statistics in India during the last nine years has been done by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay which was established in April 1921. In the Government resolution announcing the establishment of this

office the following were declared to be its functions.—

(1) *Labour Statistics and Intelligence*.—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages hours of labour, family budgets strikes and lockouts, and similar matters.

(2) *Industrial Disputes*.—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise and

(3) *Legislation and other matters relating to labour*.—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing laws.

When the Labour Office was first started it was placed in charge of Director of Labour. The post of the Director of Labour was however abolished in 1929 and at present the Officer in Charge of the Labour Office is styled the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence. He is also the Registrar of Trade Unions and the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation. In addition to the Director there are three other Gazetted Officers who are styled Investigators one of whom is in charge of the branch office at Ahmedabad. There are also three whole time lady investigators in Bombay. All investigators receive conveyance allowances. The office staff contains two Statistical Assistants three senior clerks eight junior clerks two stenographers, one typist, one cashier, one despatcher, one draftsman and five peons in Bombay, and one peon in Ahmedabad. The activities of the office comprise (1) prices and cost of living, (2) wages and hours of labour (3) rents (4) economic and social conditions of various communities (5) unemployment (6) industrial disputes (7) trade unions, (8) other industrial and labour intelligence (9) international labour intelligence, (10) labour legislation (11) the *Labour Gazette*, (12) library, and (13) office organisation.

The *Labour Gazette* has been published monthly from September 1921. It is intended to supply complete and up-to-date information on Indian labour conditions and especially the conditions existing in the Bombay Presidency, and to supply to local readers the greatest possible amount of information regarding labour conditions in the outside world. The *Labour Gazette* circulates to many different countries and is perhaps the only publication of this kind in India from which foreigners interested in labour and economic conditions in India can obtain accurate and up-to-date information. It has also hitherto been practically the only medium through which the work and publications of the International Labour Office have been made regularly available to people in India. A substantial grant is allowed by the Local Government to the Labour Office for the purchase of books and the Labour Office has accumulated a very useful and fully catalogued library on labour, industrial and economic matters. The Labour Office library is open to research workers in Bombay. In addition to books, the library contains bound copies of all the more important periodicals received from Labour Ministries, International organisations and research organisations in various parts of the world.

The Labour Office had conducted several special inquiries, the results of which have either been published in the form of special reports or as special articles in the *Labour Gazette*. Among the inquiries the results of which have been published in the form of reports are three inquiries into wages and hours of labour in the Cotton Mill Industry in the Bombay Presidency for the years 1921, 1923 and 1928 four reports of inquiries into family budgets three of which related to working class family budgets in Bombay Ahmedabad and Sholapur and the fourth to middle class family budgets in Bombay City. The remaining reports dealt with inquiries into agricultural wages in the Bombay Presidency an inquiry into deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines and an inquiry into middle class unemployment in the Bombay Presidency. Other special inquiries related to wages of peons and municipal workers, welfare works rentals in Bombay and Ahmedabad, maternity cases among women operatives, methods of wage payments creche, clerical wages in Bombay Presidency, incidence of sickness among cotton mill operatives, infant mortality, etc. In the *Labour Gazette* statistics are regularly published for a working class cost of living index number for Bombay wholesale price index numbers for Bombay and Karachi retail food prices for five important centres in the Bombay Presidency, for industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency and for Workmen's Compensation prosecutions under the Indian Factories Act, accidents in factories production of cotton yarn and cloth and the employment situation. A new working class index number has been compiled for Ahmedabad and statistics with regard to this have been published in the issues of the *Labour Gazette* since January 1930. A working class cost of living index number for Sholapur is also under preparation and will shortly be published. Quarterly information is also collected with regard to all known Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency and full information is published in the *Labour Gazette* every three months. The present staff of the Labour Office is as follows.—

Director of Information and Labour Intelligence.—Mr J F Gonnings, Barr-at-Law, J F

Senior Investigator.—Mr S R. Deshpande, A. Litt (Oxon).

Junior Investigator and Assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions.—Mr N A Mehrban, B.A.

Labour Investigator at Ahmedabad.—Mr A S Iyengar, B.A. LL.B.

Senior Lady Investigator.—Mrs. K Wagh.

Lady Investigators.—Misses G Pimpalkhare and S Dabholkar.

The Director of Information and Labour Intelligence has four offices under his charge (1) The Labour Office (2) the Information Office (3) the Office of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation and (4) the Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions. In the case of the Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions one Investigator of the Labour Office has been appointed as Assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions and the office work is being done

by a Statistical Assistant and a junior clerk from the staff of the Labour Office. The Information Office is under the administration of the Home Department. The Labour Office was under the administration of the Home Department till the year 1925 but it was transferred to the General Department and is now under the control of the Political Department. The Factories Office is under the immediate control of the Collector of Bombay and for administrative purposes under the Political Department.

Central Provinces

The Department of Commerce and Industry is the administrative authority which deals with all labour questions. The Revenue Department deals with mines. The Department of Industries under the Director of Industries is in immediate charge of all matters relating to labour. He is also Registrar of Co-operative Societies and Registrar of Trade Unions. The Factory Office is under the general supervision of the Director of Industries. There is no special Labour Office or Labour Officer in the Central Provinces but the factory staff is utilised for collecting such information on labour questions as may be required from time to time. A Board of Industries consisting of representatives of the employers and the employed has been in existence since the year 1914 and all matters affecting the interests of labour are considered by this Board. But the Board acts purely in an advisory capacity.

Other Provinces

In Burma a Labour Statistics Bureau with a Special Officer in charge was set up in 1923. This Bureau has conducted an extensive investigation into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon. The Report of which was published in 1928. In the Punjab the Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all acts concerned with labour. In the United Provinces almost all departments of the Local Government deal with labour questions. Labour as such is with the Home Member, electricity is with the Finance Member, the factory staff is under the immediate control of the Director of Industries who is under the Minister of Education and Industries and Boiler Inspection is under the Public Works Department. The Registrar of Co-operative Societies of the United Provinces has been appointed Ex-officio Registrar of Trade Unions in the Province. In Assam the main question connected with labour is that concerning the recruitment of labour for the tea plantations from other provinces. As inter-provincial migration is a Central subject, the Local Government are not very actively interested in the special considerations of other labour questions.

Representation on Legislatures.—The Government of India nominates one member for labour interests in the Legislative Assembly. Since the last reforms were brought into operation Mr. N. M. Joshi, of the Servants of India Society, has been continuously nominated as labour member in the Legislative Assembly in the Bombay Presidency. The Local Government had provided one seat for labour, and Mr.

S. K. Bole, was nominated as the labour member in the first two Councils after the reforms. In 1927 the Local Government increased the number of seats for labour to three but the principle of nomination was maintained. The three persons representing labour interests in the Bombay Legislative Council at present are Messrs. S. K. Bole, Syed Munwar and R. H. Bakhale. In the Central Provinces, Mr. H. W. Fulay, a Nagpur pleader has been nominated as a representative of urban factory labour. In Bengal there have been two nominated members to represent labour interests since the introduction of the reforms. The Assam Government reserves one seat for the nomination of a member to represent labour but it has been found impracticable to find any one who could adequately represent this constituency and therefore the seat is vacant in the present Assam Legislative Council.

Relation between Central and Local Governments.—It has already been stated above that under the Devolution Rules factories, settlement of labour disputes and welfare of labour are reserved subjects. These subjects are however subject to central legislation. The provincial legislatures are not debarred from initiating legislation on these matters but they can only do so with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council. The actual administration of the Acts passed by the central legislature under the above heads falls on the Local Governments who have to bear the entire cost of administration as it is not permissible under the constitution to incur any expenditure from central revenues on the administration of provincial subjects. This constitutional position is, perhaps, to some extent, responsible for the opposition shown by some of the Local Governments to labour measures on which their opinion have been invited by the Government of India during recent years. The Governor General in Council exercises control over the administration of the Acts passed by the legislature in two ways. In the first place, he is vested by Statute with the general power of superintendence, direction and control, and, secondly, these Acts in most cases either reserve certain powers to him to make the powers conferred on Local Governments subject to his control. The general principle observed by the Government of India has been to grant to the provinces as free a hand as possible in the administration of the various All India Acts.

Effect of differences in Law in Indian States and British India.—Few Indian States have any labour legislation but most of them are of little industrial importance. The only States which have more than 8,000 persons employed in factories and mines are Hyderabad, Mysore, Indore, Baroda, Jammu and Kashmir, Gwalior and Travancore. Most of these States have a Factories Act which, however, is much below the standard of the corresponding Act in British India. In recent years there has been a tendency on the part of certain capitalists to endeavour to evade the provisions of the Factory Law in British India by establishing mills or factories in the territories of Indian States.

Domestic Servants.

The relationship of master to servant in India is a subject to which attention is frequently directed in the Press by complaints about the alleged deterioration of domestic servants and the hardships to which employers are subjected by the boycotting action of discharged servants. The remedy most commonly propounded for misbehaviour on the part of servants is registration with a view to checking the use of false testimonials, or 'chits,' and to enabling masters to obtain certain information as to the character of the persons they employ. This mode of procedure is of German origin, for the old Prussian Servants Ordinances (*Gesindeordnung*) were supplemented in 1854 by a law, applying only to agricultural labourers and domestic servants, which punishes breach of contract, and since then various State laws dealing with domestic servants have been passed in Germany. The conditions are not, however, analogous for the servant keeping class in India is proportionately larger than in Europe, as also is the number of servants kept by each individual.

The first attempt in the East to deal with the problem by legislation was made in Ceylon. The act dealing with the registration of domestic servants in that Colony is comprised in Ordinance No. 29 of 1871. It extends to all classes of domestic servants, hired by the month or receiving monthly wages, and the word 'servant' means and includes head and under servants, female servants, cooks, coachmen, housekeepers and house and garden coolies. The Act came into operation in 1871 and empowered the Governor to appoint for the whole of the island or for any town or district, to which the Ordinance is made applicable, a registrar of domestic servants, who is to be under the general supervision and control of the Inspector General of Police. A registry is kept by the registrar of all domestic servants employed within his town or district and he has to enter therein the names of all the servants, the capacities in which they are employed at the time of such registration, the dates of their several engagements and such memorandum of their previous services or antecedents as they may desire to have recorded in the register. But the registrar must previous to his entering all these details, satisfy himself as to the credibility of the statements made to him. Any person, who may not have been a domestic servant before, but who is desirous of entering domestic service, has to submit an application to the registrar, and if the registrar is satisfied that there are reasonable grounds to believe that the applicant is a fit and proper person to enter domestic service he shall enter his name in the register, recording what he has been able to learn respecting the person's antecedents together with the names of any persons who are willing to certify as to his respectability. If the applicant is unable to produce satisfactory or sufficient evidence as to his fitness for domestic service the registrar may grant him 'provisional' registration, to be thereafter converted into 'confirmed' registration according to the result of his subsequent service. If the registrar is satisfied that the applicant is not a fit and proper person he should withhold registration altogether, but in such a case he must report his refusal to register to the Inspector-General of Police.

Every person whose name has been registered in the general registry is given a pocket register containing the full particulars of the record made in the general registry. No person can engage a servant who fails to produce his pocket register or whose pocket register does not record the termination of his last previous service, if any. On engaging a servant the master has to enter forthwith in the pocket register the date and capacity in which such servant is engaged and cause the servant to attend personally at the registrar's office to have such entry inserted in the general registry. Similarly, in case the master discharges a servant he must insert in the pocket register the date and cause of his discharge and the character of the servant. Provided that if for any reason he be unwilling to give the servant a character or to state the cause of his discharge he may decline to do so. But in such a case he must furnish to the registrar in writing his reasons for so refusing. If the servant on dismissal fails to produce his pocket register the master must notify that fact to the registrar. Whenever any fresh entry is made in the pocket register the servant is bound to attend the registrar's office to have such an entry recorded in the general registry. Every servant whose name is registered shall if he subsequently enters service in any place not under the operation of the Ordinance, attend personally at the nearest police station on his entering or leaving such service and produce his pocket register to the principal officer of police at such station in order to enable the police officer to record the commencement or termination of the service. The police officer has then to communicate it to the registrar of the town or district in which such servant was originally registered.

Various penalties of fine as well as of imprisonment are imposed for violation of any of the acts required to be done or duties imposed by the Act on the various persons mentioned below. As respects masters if they fail to fulfil any of the duties imposed on them by the Act they expose themselves to a liability of their being fined to the extent of Rs. 20. Similarly a servant, who fails to fulfil any of the duties imposed on him by the Act is liable to pay a fine not exceeding Rs. 20. But in case he gives any false information to the registrar or to any other person on matters in which he is required by this Ordinance to give information, he is liable to a fine not exceeding Rs. 50 or to imprisonment with or without hard labour not exceeding 3 months. A fee of 25 cents is charged to the master on engaging a new servant, a like fee of 25 cents is charged to the servant on his provisional registration or on registration being confirmed, or for registration of previous service or antecedents. But in case of loss or destruction of the pocket register the servant has to pay one rupee for the issue of a duplicate pocket register.

A similar Ordinance (No. 17 of 1914) has been introduced in the Straits Settlements, where its operation has been limited to such local areas as may be declared by the Governor in Council, and its application within such areas has been restricted to the class of householders who are expected to derive the benefit of the provisions

Sea Routes between India and Europe.

The Indian part for the direct journey to and from Europe is Bombay. There are ordinarily five lines of steamers by which the journey to and from the West via Bombay can be performed, either by sea all the way, or—and in some cases only—by sea part of the way and by rail across Europe. They are the P. & O. the Anchor Line, the City and Hall Line, the Lloyd Triestino and the British India Line. The latter line steamers are available for Western passages only, the steamers sailing round the Cape on their Eastward voyages. There are ordinarily other services between Calcutta and

the West, by steamers sailing round Ceylon, and several lines connect Colombo with Europe. Of the latter the Orient, the Messageries Maritimes, the Bibby Lines, A. Y. & Co., Australian Commonwealth, and Royal Dutch Lines are the chief. The Bibby and Henderson services extend to Rangoon. The new railway between India and Ceylon greatly increases the importance of the Colombo route for Southern India. The shortest time between London and Bombay is 16 days via Marseilles. The following are the fares which are convertible at approximately current rates of exchange—

Paninsular and Oriental S. N. Co

FARES FROM BOMBAY OR KARACHI

Free passages (single and return) are granted between Karachi and Bombay by British India Steamer
To Plymouth or London by sea, Single
To Marseilles, Single
To " Return
To " Malta or Gibraltar, Single
To London from Calcutta Return

	1st Saloon				2nd Saloon	
	A	B	C	D	A	B
£	£	£	£	£	£	£
72	82	54	46	42	36	
126	109	90	81	53	63	
84	74	68	58	52	46	
147	130	118	102	91	81	
90	80	70	60	54	48	
167	140	122	106	14	84	
92	82	72	62	56	50	
161	144	126	108	98	88	

By the British India S. N. Co fares to London by sea from Madras are—
Single 1st saloon £84, 2nd saloon £52. Return £116 and £91 Bombay to Marseilles (Steamers carrying one class of accommodation only) Single A £84, B £80, C £56 and Return A £112, B £106, C £88

By the Anchor Line fares to Liverpool from Bombay or Karachi are—1st saloon Rs. 800 single and Rs. 1400 return. To Marseilles—Rs. 747 and (return from Liverpool) Rs. 1,354

By Ellerman's City and "Hall Lines fares from Bombay or Karachi to Liverpool, are—

1st saloon single Rs. 853, return Rs. 1,493
2nd saloon single Rs. 640, return Rs. 1,120

From Bombay or Karachi to Marseilles

1st saloon single Rs. 800 return Rs. 1,447

2nd saloon single Rs. 610, return Rs. 1,068

Calcutta to London

1st saloon single Rs. 907, return Rs. 1,587

2nd saloon single Rs. 686, return Rs. 1,213

By Bibby Line fares from Rangoon to London

1st saloon single Rs. 1,015, return Rs. 1,710

Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon single Rs. 910
Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon return Rs. 1,600

The Bibby Line fares from Colombo are as follows—

Colombo Marseilles single Rs. 775 return

Rs. 1,340

Colombo London single Rs. 880 return

Rs. 1,535

The Bibby Line steamers carry 1st class passengers only

By Henderson Line fares from Rangoon to Liverpool, 1st saloon are—single £65 return (available for 4 months) £100, (available for 2 years) £117

By Lloyd Triestino Line fares from Bombay to Brindisi, Venice or Trieste are—

1st class £86, 2nd class £50. Return rates

available for 2 years at one and three-fourth

fares. 100 days return tickets 1st class, £86

and 2nd class, £72

To London 1st class, 100 and 2nd class

£82

Sailings from Bombay every alternative

Tuesday

INDIAN TRAIN SERVICE.

The distances and railway fares from Bombay to the principal centres of other parts of India are as follow—

	Miles.	1st Class	2nd Class
Dombivli B & C 1 Railway, via new Nagpur-Mumbai direct route	865	Rs. 4 0	Rs. 2 0
Delhi, G. I. P. Railway, via Agra	957	85 7 0	42 12 0
Mumbai, via Delhi	1,229	122 6 0	61 3 0
Calcutta, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Jabalpur & Allahabad	1,449	123 1 3	61 9 3
Calcutta, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Nagpur	1,223	115 3 3	57 10 3
Madras, G. I. P. from Bombay, via Raichur	794	79 8 0	39 9 0
Katzen, via Delhi	1,168	118 5 0	59 11 0

* Oct to April inclusive

May to Sept Rs. 115-4-0 & 67-11-0 only

CIVIL AVIATION.

Civil Aviation in India is under the control of the Director of Civil Aviation, whose newly instituted Department, like the Department of Posts and Telegraphs comes within the portfolio of the Member of the Executive Council of the Government-General for Industries and Labour. The present holder of the appointment is Lt.-Col. F. O. Sheldermine O.B.E. Eight Indians are now undergoing training in England with a view to their future employment in the Civil Aviation Department as Aerodrome Officers, Inspectors of Aircraft and Engines etc. Two more will be sent to England during 1930. These men are not being trained primarily as commercial pilots, but it is possible that some of them, if they show special aptitude and desire to adopt a pilot's career, may receive further training with this object in view. All of them receive a certain amount of training as pilots and they also go through a post-graduate course at the Imperial College of Science and Technology and periods of attachment to selected aircraft works and to the London Terminal Aerodrome at Croydon. The course lasts for two years and three months during which time the men receive scholarships amounting to £ 240 per annum. Condition of eligibility for these scholarships is that applicants must possess a B.Sc. degree in Engineering or Physics.

An Indian State Air Service between Karachi and Delhi was inaugurated as a weekly service in each direction on 30th December 1929. It is operated by aircraft chartered from Imperial Airways, Ltd., under an agreement which is operative for two years. It runs in connection with the air mail between Karachi and England. It is hoped to extend this service to Calcutta and to Rangoon in the near future. These extensions will be run with machines owned and operated by the Government of India and special regard will be paid to the training of Indians, both as pilots and as mechanics. It will probably be necessary to suspend the operation of the Calcutta-Rangoon section during the monsoon of 1931, as it is not anticipated that the new landing grounds which are to be constructed during 1930 on this section will by then be sufficiently consolidated to permit of their use after heavy rain.

Instruction in aviation is given in India only through Clubs founded for the purpose. These are the Karachi Aero Club, which at the end of 1929 had 173 members, the Bombay Flying Club, with 174 members, the Delhi Flying Club, with 204 members and the Bengal Flying Club, with 257 members. Above these is the Aero Club of India and Burma, which exercises control and general co-ordination of activities under the Director of Civil Aviation with the Government of India.

The movement dates from March, 1927 when as a result of the interest taken in the subject by Sir Victor Sassoon Bt., M.L.A. it was discussed by the Indian Legislative Assembly. An encouraging atmosphere was thus created and in the same month the Aero Club of India was formed, composed of about 40 members of the Assembly. Its first meeting was held in Simla in September of the same year and during the next three months 100 more members of the Assembly and 197 other

members joined. Strong committees were then formed in Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Allahabad, with the object of developing interest in the movement and in order to utilize the Government grants which were at this time proposed and the formation of local clubs followed. The Aero Club entered into an agreement with the Royal Aero Club of Great Britain and thereby became its official representative in India and Burma.

The Government of India in December, 1927 received from Sir Victor Sassoon a letter saying that subject to a grant of Rs. 10,000 to the Aero Club for the year 1928-29 and a grant of Rs. 20,000 to each club formed, he would bear any deficit between the Clubs' income and expenditure until the grants became available. This they agreed to and they further announced that they would provide for each club an initial equipment of two aeroplanes, a spare engine and a contribution towards the cost of a hangar where no hangar was already available. These grants commenced as from 1st April 1928 and were to continue for two years. Agreements were entered into between the Secretary of State and the Aero Club and between him and the provincial clubs, laying down the conditions of financial assistance. Most aeroplanes manufactured by the De Havilland Aircraft Co. were selected as the training machines. Eight of these arrived in December, 1928, and training with them began in January, 1929.

Particulars regarding the Provincial Clubs are as follow—

Each of the six Clubs was presented with two aeroplanes by the Government and their other machines and their performances up to the end of 1930 are—

Bombay Flying Club, 3 privately owned aeroplanes, 1,600 hours flown in 1930

Bombay Flying Club, 5 privately owned aeroplanes, 1,497 hours flown in 1930

Delhi Flying Club, 3 privately owned aeroplanes, 1,181 hours flown in 1930

Karachi Aero Club, 7 privately owned aeroplanes, 1,455 hours flown in 1930

Punjab Flying Club, 1 privately owned aeroplane, 706 hours flown during 1930

This Club commenced functioning on the 1st June

Madras Flying Club has no privately owned aeroplanes. 284 hours flown since its inception at the end of July, 1930

Total flying hours for all Clubs, 8,707. The number of hours flown by soloists are—Europeans 2,093, Indians 2,913. The number of pilots turned out during 1930 is 63 of whom 46 are Indians (5 being lady pilots).

The Officers of the Aero Club of India and Burma are—Chairman Sir Victor Sassoon, Vice-Chairman, Mr. H. A. Sarna, C.J.R. I.O.A. Director of Posts and Telegraphs Secretary, Wing Commander A. R. C. Cooper. The Pilot Instructors of the provincial clubs are—

KARACHI—Flight Lieut. W. Jones.

BOMBAY—Mr. W. H. Vetch.

BENGAL—Mr. W. F. Warner.

DELHI—Capt. A. J. Eiley.

MADRAS—Flight Lieut. H. N. Hawker.

PUNJAB—Capt. B. S. Leete.

THE SUEZ CANAL

At the General Meeting of the Suez Canal Company held in Paris in 1930 the Chairman said that the transit receipts for 1929 were 4 per cent higher than in the previous year, and a reduction of 25 centimes in the transit due on loaded vessels was therefore made from September 1930.

Record Traffic through the Canal.—The traffic through the Canal in 1929 showed by comparison with that for 1928 (which broke all previous records) an increase of 1,500,112 tons net—namely 4.9 per cent—to 34,468,014 tons. The number of transits was 6,274 against 6,064 in 1928. The average size of vessels slightly increased to 7,376 tons gross and the proportion of transits made by vessels of more than 10,000 tons gross increased from 11 to 11.7 per cent. The average stay of vessels in the Canal was 14 hours 57 minutes, which was the lowest figure yet recorded.

The total weight of goods carried through the Canal was 34,018,000 tons, exceeding by 1,894,000 tons the maximum recorded for 1928.

The progress noted in 1929 was not maintained during 1930. Since March 1930 the tonnage has fallen considerably below the figures recorded in 1929; at the end of April the difference was 407,351 tons.

Improvement Schemes.—It was announced in 1914 that from and after January 1st, 1915, the maximum draught of water allowed to ships going through the Suez Canal would be increased by 1 ft., making it 30 ft. English.

The maximum permissible draught of ships using the Canal was 24.4 feet in 1870. In 1880 ships drawing 25.4 feet could make the passage, and during the following 24 years the increase has been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorized to 29 feet.

The scheme of improvement adopted by the company on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which are Sir William Matthews and Mr. Anthony Lister, is a comprehensive one, and the details suggest that it will meet the needs of the big ship.

A 40 Feet Channel.—The declared policy of the Canal Company in regard to the deepening

of the Canal is to offer a slightly greater depth of water than that available in ports east of Suez. It is claimed that, with the exception of Sydney, there is no eastern port which at low tide has a greater depth of water than that now provided in the Canal throughout the full length of nearly 105 miles. In any case the work in hand should meet the needs of any ship likely to be built for the eastern trade during the next few years.

When the Canal was opened in 1869, the width was 72 feet and the depth about 25 feet 2 inches. In June, 1913, the width at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches had been increased to a minimum of 147 feet 6 inches over a length of about 85 miles, and to a width of 328 feet over a distance of about 20 miles. The latest scheme makes provision for a depth of 40 feet throughout and for a widening up to 198 feet 8 inches in the south section, and the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and central sections, where a minimum width of 147 feet 6 inches is believed to be sufficient for the requirements of the immediate future.

The work of enlarging the capacity of the Canal presents no special difficulty on the engineering side. A good deal of sand is occasionally driven into the channel at Port Said during storms, but a remedy for this will be found in extension of the west breakwater by about 2,700 yards at a cost of over £8,000,000. The construction of this extension, which has been in hand for the past two years, is making satisfactory progress. The Suez Roads are being adequately dredged in accordance with an agreement between the Egyptian Government and the Company.

Almost up to the end of 1915 the works for extending the jetty to the west of Port Said works of capital importance for the protection of the entry to the Canal, were pushed on uninterruptedly. In November, however, for want of hydraulic lime, the manufacture of artificial rocks for this jetty was interrupted. The submarine foundations in stone and rubble of the new jetty were, as a matter of fact, completed to a length of 2,500 metres, the protective blocks were laid for 1,040 metres, and cemented for over 800 metres. The protection of the Channel is thus secured, and there is no need of any apprehension as to its future.

Travel in India.

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Thirty years ago a tour in India was possible only to the wealthy, the learned and those who had friends in the country. The cost of the journey was very high, the methods of transportation were very slow and the facilities for travel were so indifferent that he was a bold man who committed himself to the mercies of the country without a sheet of letters of introduction. Now the mail which is posted in London on Thursday night, reaches Bombay in 14 days, and the passenger can travel by the same route and with the same speed as the mail. A dozen lines have covered the sea route between Europe and India and Ceylon with a plethora of regular services while Imperial Airways have a weekly service from Croydon to Karachi and from there the Indian State Air Service takes you to Delhi and before long it is hoped to Calcutta. The Indian Railways provide facilities on the trunk lines equal to many of the best services in Europe, and the Indian hotel has grown into a really comfortable caravanserai.

The traveller to India has a choice of many ports by which he may enter. To the majority of visitors from Europe and the West Bombay provides their first glimpse of India while others enter by Calcutta, Madras and Karachi and via Colombo.

Owing to its geographical position Bombay is known as the gateway of India through which for more than a century the import and export trade of India has largely passed. A purple against the dawn the spurs of the Western Ghats, thrones of mystery stand sentinel about the inner sanctuary of Bombay Harbour. Among and above these mountain heights Wellington fought the battles which earned for him his early military gratitude. Every schoolboy knows the story of the Marhatta campaigns, they are but one—the Marhattas—of the races within races that populate this vast country where two hundred and twenty two different vernaculars are spoken. There is never an end to the land of India. You will find life in its most up-to-date form and next to it the customs and habits of a nation which have not changed for hundreds of years. Life will surge past you in a picturesque procession. You will hear a medley of strange sounds—the tinkle of the temple bells, the throbbing of the drum, the chant of the mullahs announcing that God is Almighty and Mohammed is his Prophet, the song of the Sharmas, the cry of the wild beast in the jungle. The tropical sun blazing like a ball of molten gold in a turquoise sky, the silver moon sailing across the purple vault of heaven will awaken in you feelings which you have never known before. If the visitor seeks variety and picturesqueness there is no region in all the world so full of vivid colour, of populous cities, of buildings designed by master architects of bygone days of diverse races, of absorbing subjects for study and observation such as the customs, religious philosophy and art of one of the oldest civilisations.

To the true lover of nature, the botanist and the naturalist India can offer every charm in forest, mountain valley, cultivated plain, and wild waste.

To the sportsman it can furnish sport such as few countries can give, the tiger in the forest, the great mahseer in many rivers, the wily snipe on the shores, the strong winged duck, the finking pig and many another kind.

To the mountaineer, the Himalayas offer the highest mountains in the world and some of the few famous peaks which are still und climbed.

To the statesman, businessman or politician who seeks rest and change without idleness, India presents a scene of busy administration, a nation in the making and an experiment such as has never before been tried.

Bombay itself is cosmopolitan like many of the world's great ports and in it you will find justling, each other in the streets representatives of half the races of mankind. The Towers of Silence and the Caves of Elephanta are among the sights to be seen. Elephanta is one of those delightful islands which are freely scattered upon the waters over which Bombay reigns as Queen.

But Bombay is a gateway and through it many interesting trips await the visitor and northwards to Delhi he has the choice of two routes either by the G. I. P. Railway via the Mithan and Ajanta Caves, Sanchi, Gwalior, Agra and Mathura or by the B. B. & C. I. Railway via Baroda and through Rajputana with its famous cities of Mount Abu, Udaipur, Ajmer and Jaipur to Agra and Mathura. If you decide to go by the G. I. P. Railway route, you will find at Ajanta frescoes which rival many of the old frescoes found in Europe, while at Ellora are the most wonderful caves in the world, mountains cut into colossal sanctuaries. You will be able to compare the work of the Buddhists, the Jains and the Brahmins and learn more of Indian mythology than many hours of study will give you. At Sanchi are Buddhist buildings dating back to 150 B. C. The stone carvings are remarkable and are well worth a visit. As you proceed further north Gwalior is reached. The great Fort of Gwalior has been described by Ferguson as the most remarkable and interesting example of a Hindu palace of an early age in India. Seventy miles further on lies Agra and of all the romantic cities of India Agra must surely come first for it contains that crowning glory in marble, the Taj Mahal. Generations have come and gone since that far day when that most splendid of emperors Shahjahan bowed his head before his wife's coffin in the vault of the fabled Taj. The building is better known than any other in the world. Visit it by moonlight and later by daylight if you must. By moonlight its seduction is irresistible. Sit on the steps by the entrance gate and watch the moon drift above the trees and the ring of silver light stealing round the base of the dome and creeping gently upwards to the pinnacles. See it also in the fading evening, light when amber and rose and gold, the sun sinks in the west behind the crenelated ramparts of Agra Fort. If you must visit it in the broad light of noonday then forget the first view from the gateway and wander awhile about the gardens where you will find exquisite glimpses of snowy

structures so light and graceful that they seem to rest on air, of buoyant canopies and climbing champagne. Here is grandeur as well as beauty.

The Taj Mahal, however, is only one of the many interesting sights of Agra, and its Fort, Itmad-ud-Daulah's Tomb, Akbar's Tomb, 5 miles from Agra, and Fatehpur Sikri, the deserted city of Akbar about 23 miles distant are all well worth a visit. No other fortress in the world presents so great an appearance of knightly splendour, of proud and noble dignity or, with a more sovereign grace, crowns its red bastions with so wondrous a collection of palaces, mosques, halls of state, baths, kiosques, balconies and terraces as Agra Fort, a mile and a half in circumference, with walls 70 feet high faced with red sandstone. The vigorous style of decorative architecture that Akbar introduced into his red sandstone palaces was embellished by his grandson Shah Jahan who was largely responsible for the delicate inlay work and the low reliefs in white marble. There are no buildings to equal these except those found in the Palace in Delhi Fort which Shah Jahan built when he transferred his headquarters to Delhi. Akbar's vigorous but supremely attractive style appears at its best in Fatehpur Sikri which he built in his joy at the realisation of his fondest hopes when his son Jahangir was born.

There is the year 1600 A.D. on a lonely eminence Akbar founded his city and there began to rise as if by magic those great battlemented walls, the magnificent palaces and courtyards, the great mosque and the other superb specimens of the skill of the Moghul stone masons which stand to this day a source of endless wonder and admiration to visitors.

The traveller moves northward past Muttra and Brindaban, famous places of Hindu pilgrimages due to their association with the birth and early life of Lord Krishna, until Delhi is reached. Delhi, the capital of India, in days gone by and now the Imperial Capital of India, has no rival in greatness, as all men know that he who holds Delhi holds India. Here the visitor will find much that will interest and enthral him. Here he can trace the growth and fall of dynasty after dynasty, here he will find some of the best examples of the work of the Moghul Period at its zenith as he wanders with muffled feet in the great courtyard of the largest mosque in India, the Jama Masjid or in Shahjahanabad, the Fort and Palace of Shahjahan whose halls rival those of the palace in Agra Fort with their delicate inlay work in marble and their gardens. Here are crumbling memorials of the Mughal, Hindu Rao's house, the Kashmir Gate beneath which some still salute dead Home and Salkeed as they pass, the tree encumbered sites of redoubt and battery, Nicholson's grave, Asoka's pillar, the site of the great Durbār.

Kutab, the first of the so-called seven cities of Delhi with its Kutab Minar, 286 feet in height, erected in the 12th century A.D. of red and cream sandstone overlooks the plain where many of the pages of history were written. The Kutab Minar, tapering from the base to the summit is divided by five corbelled balconies

while on the fluting is carved an intricate design in which are introduced verses from the Koran. In the main courtyard stands the famous pillar of solid wrought iron devoid of rust and dating back to about 400 A.D. Visitors to Delhi should not miss seeing the Kutab for it is unique in India.

New Delhi, the eighth city of Delhi, is worthy to rank with its seven predecessors, Kutab Siri, Tughlakabad, Jahangabad, Fromabad, Farrukabad and Shahjahanabad the present day Delhi. Here you find an example of town planning carried out by some of the leading architects and engineers in the world on a site where they could start with a free hand.

If you decide to take the route northwards from Bombay via Rajputana, then you will see another but equally interesting side of India. Rajputana, the land of chivalry, attracts the visitor as few places do. Alone at Udaipur is there in its perfection the fairy palace of one's childhood, just such a long cataract of marble terraces and halls falling into the waters of a mountain encircled lake as the illustrator of an Andrew Lang fairy book delights to draw.

Mount Abu, the Rajput Olympus, combines the delights of a hill station with one of the historic homes of the gods. The Dilwara Temples, the masterpiece of Jain architecture, contain some of the finest carvings in India. Forests of marble columns, carved and polished till they resemble Chinese ivories are linked by flying arches that twist and twine from pillar to pillar like exquisite creepers softening outlines and producing the effect of a symphony of graceful movement.

Northwards from Delhi is the Punjab and the North West Frontier Province whence most of the recruits for the Indian Army come. Here you will find Amritsar, the home of the Sikhs, Lahore, one of the most ancient and famous cities of India, the Khyber Pass the historic gateway into India from the North, the flourishing cities of the Canal Colonies which have risen up since British Engineers have harnessed the waters of the Punjab, the Land of the Five Rivers which formerly ran to waste and many another city. Through the Punjab also you will travel to reach Kashmir famous since the days of the Moghul Emperors.

The glory of Amritsar is the Darbar Sahib (the Golden Temple). The pavements of the sacred tank are all of marble from Jaipur and the tank itself contains a sheet of water 510 feet square. In the midst approached by a marble canopy, rises the Golden Temple nearly cubical in form and decorated with wonderful richness.

Lahore grew in importance with the dawn of Moghul supremacy when Bahar, the founder of that dynasty, made it a place of Royal Residence reminiscent of which are to be found to-day in the pleasure gardens, tombs, mosques and pavilions of Moghul architectural beauty which have won undying fame for that dynasty here and elsewhere in India.

Khyber Pass, the great natural highway into India through the almost impenetrable

mountain barrier of the North West Frontier, which in historical association and has from time immemorial been the route by which conquering hordes have passed into India to disturb the peace of her people and continually alter their destiny. It is still the great trading route between India and the Central Asian States. On Tuesdays and Fridays when the continuous string of caravans of great shaggy raimen laden with merchandise accompanied by stern strong and picturesquely dressed men with their women and children from Central Asia are moving to and from Afghanistan, the pass presents a most interesting and unique sight.

Kashmir, described by poets as an emerald set in pearls is a land of rich forests and upland pastures of slow flowing rivers and glittering mountain torrents fringed with an almost unbroken garland of mountain snow capped all the year. If you can imagine Venice set in the heart of Switzerland that is Srinagar the capital of Kashmir. Life is good as you glide along the face of the lakes in a houseboat when the lotus flower is out and the banks are one mass of colour with the snow capped mountains in the background. When days are warm on the lakes a trip can be made up the valleys and you can live in Aruay and see the bear in his native haunts and the mountain deer on the hill tops.

For those who have arrived at Delhi via Bombay an interesting return trip can be made via Benares and Calcutta. Many visitors however, enter India via Calcutta and from here also many interesting tours can be made.

Calcutta one of the first trading ports of the British East India Company in India, was founded by Job Charnock. It is now the second city in the British Empire. Its public buildings the Indian museum the Fort the Jain Temple the Hindu bathing ghats along the river front, the Hindu shrines, are all worthy of attention.

Before winding your way towards Delhi trips should be made to Darjeeling to see the roof of the world and Mount Everest, the highest mountain and to Puri, the home of the famous temple of Jagannath. The ambition of every visitor to Darjeeling is to see Mount Everest the world's highest peak and, in order to do so they must travel some 7 miles away past Ghoom station to Tiger's Hill (834 ft.) as from Darjeeling the mountain is not visible. The best time to see sunrise on Mount Everest is in the early Spring or late Autumn. Then at the end you will find a view unequalled in any other part of the world. Twelve peaks over 80,000 feet with the awe inspiring Kan sheenjunga in the centre are spread out before you.

Puri also is an easy run from Calcutta. There in front of the gate of the temple is the famous black marble pillar one of the most beautifully worked things in India with a clay figure of the Dawn on its capital. Inconspicuous as it may seem, in Puri all caste vanishes. The real sense of this can be understood only by those who know India. Once a year the image of Vishnu is carried in procession upon the famous Jagannath cars to the Garden Temple

There are 45 feet high standing on solid wooden wheels, seven feet in diameter, are dragged along by the devotees.

Twenty miles north of Puri, along the sea coast, or 64 miles by motor road stands the Black Pagoda at Konarak the temple of the Sun God Surya.

On the road to Delhi the visitor will travel through the Gangetic plain one of the most fruitful areas of India. Here he will find cities sacred to the Hindus such as Bath Gaya and Benares, cities intimately connected with the mythology like Lucknow and Cawnpore and other flourishing cities.

Bath Gaya is one of the most famous and most interesting of all the sacred sites of the Buddhists for it is the scene of the Great Renunciation and the Enlightenment of Gautama afterward named Buddha. It marks the site of his long penance and his final victory over worldly desire.

Benares is reputed to be the oldest city in India but there is no authentic record how old it is except that it is mentioned in those two great Hindu epics the Mahabharata and the Ramayana which deal with events long before the Christian era. Benares is however one of the most holy cities in India for the Hindu and its spiritual significance is shown in the quotation: "Happy is the Hindu who dies in Benares for he is transported at once to Swa's Himalayan Paradise on Mount Kailash north of Lake Manasa where the great three-eyed ascetic seeing the past the present and the future sits in profound meditation."

Benares rests on the banks of the Ganges and floating down the river in a boat the sight of Aurangzeb's Mosque and the many picturesque temples and ghats recalls to one's imagination through the dim vistas of time the endless processions of devout people wending their way down the narrow lanes to the temples with fragrant garlands to hang round the necks of the gods or to wreath in solemn devotion the emblem of Shiva's divinity.

About 4 to 5 miles away from Benares lies Barnath where Buddha preached his first sermon after obtaining divine wisdom at Gaya and in the adjoining Deer Park is a Museum of Archaeology of vivid interest.

Lucknow is a city hallowed by memories of a grim struggle of heroic deeds and noble sacrifices its appeal to the Westerner is influenced by its historical connections, its beautiful buildings and the mysterious glamour so closely associated with the East. Legend connects the founding of the city with Lakshmana, son of King Dasaratha of Ayodhya and brother of Rama the mythical hero of the Ramayana the epic poem of the Hindus but Lakshmanpur or Lucknow as it is now called was at its greatest under the five Kings of Oudh (1722-1856).

All visitors wend their way to the Residency and pay homage to the gallant band who held it during the Mutiny against terrible odds until relieved by Sir Colin Campbell. The deeds of Lawrence who was in command until

he was killed and of Havelock who made his historic but unsuccessful attempt to rescue the garrison and was himself besieged are well known

Cawnpore is one of the most important industrial cities of India and here you will find up-to-date factories, a symbol of the West with the teeming bazaar where business is still carried on as it has been done for generations

Northern and Central India is however not the only interesting part of India and the South can show you sights unlike those in any other part of the World. South India is a land of temples full of the most wonderful carving while Mysore one of the most progressive Indian States can show you fine buildings, falls higher than Niagara and wonderful scenery

Madras is the capital of the Madras Presidency and the third largest town in India and the Presidency includes that part of India which was one of the first in which English and other foreign nations settled. The visitor will still find in the large houses belonging to the merchant Princes with their far spreading compounds in the conveyances still used by the local inhabitants and in the scenery, which is the India of the old picture books, traces of what India used to be when first the English settled there

Mysore commemorates in its name the destruction of Mahabharata a minotaur or buffalo headed monster by Chaturmudi, the form under which the consort of Shiva is worshipped as the tutelary goddess of the ruling family. Mysore State is a picturesque land of mountain and forest presenting the most diversified and beautiful scenery. The Capital which bears the same name as the state is a city with many fine buildings and a visitor to India who wishes to see the working of an up-to-date Indian States situated among wonderful scenery cannot do better than visit Mysore. Elephants range throughout the southern forests and from time to time keddah operations are undertaken when wild elephants are captured in stockades. Tigers, leopards and bears are numerous and lions are found in certain forests. The famous Gersoppa Falls present one of the most beautiful sights of wild untrammelled nature to be found in India. Many of the temples contain examples of the finest carving, and Seringapatam famous as the capital of Tippu Sultan and about nine miles from Mysore is well worth a visit. For those who are travelling from Bombay to Colombo an interesting trip can be arranged via Mysore.

At Madras and Trichinopoly will be found examples of some of the best and most interesting work in South India

Madras has been aptly described by European scholars as the Athens of South India and from time immemorial has been the abode of South Indian culture in all its aspects.

It contains one of the finest and largest temples in South India and unlike many other temples the tourist is allowed to wander without restrictions over most of it. Near Shiva's shrine and in the hall of Mantapam of a Thousand Pillars

can be seen some of the finest carving in stone in all the world. The workmanship is so fine, the chiselling so delicate that one is lost in silent admiration as one looks at the representations of the Hindu Pantheon and at the graceful figures of men, women and animals

Trichinopoly is noted for its rock temple and about three miles away is Srirangam with its famous temple which is claimed as the earthly abode of Vishnu the Lord of Creation

No one visiting India should miss the opportunity of seeing Burma for it is a country of extraordinary charm a country of contrasts. Whatever be your hobby whatever be your interest, be it sport history ethnology or botany or should you be merely fond of beautiful scenery you will find a greater variety in Burma than in probably any other country. You can see huge snowy ranges and alps spangled with rhododendrons and flowers unknown to science. You can find magnificent jungles almost impenetrable to man bordering rushing torrents or yet against you can see emerald green paddy fields and great winding rivers in the plains. Should you be adventurous and seek the wilder regions, you will find great gaps in the frontier unvisited by civilised men and peopled by head hunters, Chinthees, Jages and the fierce Black Men. Yet you will also find civilisation in the big cities like Rangoon and Maymyo. Rangoon, the capital is of special interest in that it possesses the famous Shwe Dagon Pagoda the Sacred Golden Pagoda visited by more pilgrims than any other Buddhist Temple in India China.

This short account of India is not intended to be comprehensive and does not even mention many of the interesting places to be visited but it is hoped that it will give some indication of the wonderful pageantry, the magnificent buildings of an older age the sport, and the many things of interest which India and India alone can offer.

December January and February are the most pleasant months for a visit to India. The days are pleasantly cool and except on the seaboard the nights are cold. India speaking broadly has no winter except in the far north. It is a land of sunshine and colour. But the traveller arriving before November or staying in the country beyond the month of March must expect to find the tropical sun asserting its sway unless he wends his way to fair Kashmir or to one of the hill stations of India. Simla, the summer capital of India Darjeeling the delightful or one of the many others situated among the hills of India.

Standard Tours.

The planning of an itinerary for an Indian or Burman tour will depend upon the port of arrival the port of departure, personal desires of the party and the time available. Any of the leading tourist agencies such as Thos Cook & Sons the American Express Co., Cox & King's (Agents) Ltd Army & Navy Stores, Grindlay & Co etc. and the Publicity Officers of all the more important Railways as well as the Manager Indian Railways Publicity Bureau, 57, Haymarket, London, and the Resident

Manager, Indian Railways Publicity Bureau
Delhi House 38 East 57th Street, New York,
will work out tours to suit the convenience of
individual parties. Many of the leading tourist
companies will also arrange for inclusive and
conducted tours. There are certain places,
which are very well known such as Delhi Agra
Benares Darjeeling Jaipur the Khivier Pass
Kashmir and Mysore but there are innumerable
other places almost as well known containing
sights which cannot be equalled in other parts

of the world. Puri Lucknow Amritsar,
Udaipur Mount Abu, Gwalior Bikaner and Ajanta
Caves and Madura are a few of them while in
Burma Mandalay and the famous old cities
of Ava and Amarapura nearly are well worth
a visit.

A selection of itineraries for long and short
tours in India and Burma is given below.
These show what can be seen in certain periods
of time but they can be varied to suit individual
parties or taken in the reverse direction.

Tour No 1—4 weeks—Bombay Udaipur Jaipur Peshawar Lahore, Amritsar Delhi, Agra,
Cawnpore Lucknow Benares Darjeeling and Calcutta

Alternative (a) Puri and Konarak in place of Darjeeling.

(b) Gwalior Santhi Pili and Ajanta in place of Jaipur and Udaipur

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate) on the basis of return tickets at 1½ single fares (Calcutta—Darjeeling, and Delhi—Peshawar)	Rs. 311 £ 21 \$ 121	170 11 62	5 3 21

Tour No 2—2 weeks—Bombay Udaipur Jaipur Delhi Agra Gwalior Santhi and Bombay
Alternative Benares in place of Gwalior and Santhi

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate)	Rs. 190 £ 14 \$ 69	111 7 31	11 2 11

If the alternative is taken the fares are increased by about one quarter

Tour No 3—1 week—Delhi Lahore Amritsar Peshawar and Delhi

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate) on basis of return tickets at 1½ single fares	Rs. 69 £ 5 \$ 25	31 3 11	10 1 4

Tour No 4—10 days—Bombay Poona Mysore Madras Trichinopoly Madura and Colombo

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate)	Rs. 161 £ 14 \$ 66	93 7 31	31 2 12

NOTE—If extra time can be allowed at Mysore and Srirangapatna (Channarayana Falls and Ootacamund
can be visited)

Tour No 5—2 weeks—Colombo Madura Madras Mysore, Ootacamund Trichinopoly and
Colombo

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare by train (approximate)	Rs. 173 £ 12 \$ 63	89 7 32	31 3 11

NOTE—An interesting trip can be made after leaving Ootacamund and Coimbatore where the white
Jews live, along the backwaters to Alleppey and Quilon by motor launch and motor car down to
Trivandrum the capital of Travancore by train and by motor car to Cape Comorin the southern
most point of India and, back via Trivandrum and Madura to Colombo. This would take about
seven days.

Tour No 6—1 week—Rangoon, Mandalay, Gokteik Viaduct, Mandalay—Rangoon.

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd
Total fare (approximate)	Rs 70 £ 5 \$ 25	35 8 13	12 1 4

NOTE—Many interesting trips off the beaten track can be made in Burma but special arrangements are necessary

For any visitor landing in Calcutta it is possible to visit Benares, Agra, Delhi Jaipur Bombay Mysore Madras Trichinopoly and Madras and still reach Colombo on the 14th day but this entails sightseeing by day and travelling most nights and is not recommended for the ordinary visitor. A very attractive tour can, however, be worked out for a similar trip over a period of four weeks either allowing more time at the more important places or including other of the places mentioned in Tour 1 and 4 such as Darjeeling Puri, the Khyber Pass, Lahore and Amritsar Udaipur, etc

Travelling in India is not expensive when

the long distances travelled are taken into consideration. The first second and Indian servants fares are shown at the end of each tour. Hotel expenses average about Rs 10 (22/6 or 54 dollars) per person a day except when special rates are charged during certain special periods while a motor car for the day can be hired for Rs 25 to Rs 30 (58/6 to 45/6 or 9 to 11 dollars) a day in most places, except where long distances have to be covered. Where the distances are short, tongas and two horned landaus can be used and the daily charges vary from Rs 3-8 to Rs 9 (5/6 to 13/6 or 14 to 34 dollars). Guides with a good knowledge of English can be obtained from Rs 5 to Rs 10 (7/6 to 15/6 or 2 to 4 dollars) a day

HOTELS IN INDIA, BURMA, CEYLON AND MALAYA.

AGRA—Cecil, Laurie's Great Northern, Metro
AMRITPUR—Grand
ALHABAD—Grand
BANGALORE—Cubbon West End, Lavender's
BARODA—The Guest House
BOMBAY—Apollo, Grand Majestic Taj Mahal, Regent
CALCUTTA—Continental, Grand, Great Eastern, Spencer's
CANBERRA—Olivand Military
COCHIN—Glenview
DARJEELING—Grand (Rockville), Mount Everest, Park
DELHI—Cecil Clarke's, Maidens, Swiss
GUWAHATI—Grand
GULSHAN (Kashmir)—Nedon's
JAIPUR—Jaipur, Kaiser-i-Hind, New
JERSEY—Jackson's
KARACHI—Carlton Bristol
KHANDALA—Khandala
KODAKANAL—Lakeview, Golf Links, Carlton
KUMBHONG—Clarendon
LAKSHMI—Valetti's, Nedon's
LUCKNOW—Carlton, Burlington, Hilton's
MADRAS—Connemara, Bosetto
MAHARAJGARH—Race View
MATWARRA—Bogby
MOUNT ABU—Rajputana
MURKIN—Vivian's
MURDOCH—Cecil, Charleville Hakma, Grand, Savoy
MYSON—Metropole
NAINI TAL—Grand, Metropole, Royal.

DOTACAMUND—Savoy
PESHAWAR—Deans Hotel
POONA—Majestic
PURI—D N Railway Hotel
QUETTA—Stanley's
RAJPOUR—Carlton
RAWALPINDI—Fishman's
SECUNDERABAD—Montgomery's
SHEKONG—Pinewood
SIMLA—Cecil Grand, Clerk's
SHIVAPUR (Kashmir)—Nedon's
SHIVAPUR—Shivapuri
UDAIPUR—Udaipur

Burma

BAIROON—Allandale, Minto Mansions, Royal
STRAND
MATMYO—Lizette Lodge
KALAW—Kalaw

Ceylon

ANURADHAPURA—Grand
BANDARAWELA—Bandarawela Grand
COLOMBO—Bristol, Galle Face, Grand Oriental
GALLE—New Oriental
HATTON—Adam's Peak
KANDY—Queen's, Suisse
NUWARA ELIYA—Carlton, Grand, Marjill
St Andrew's

Malaya.

IPON—Station
KUALA LUMPUR—Empire, Station
PERANG—Eastern and Oriental, Rannymede,
SINGAPORE—Adolph, Europe, Raffles, Sea View

The New Capital.

The transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 12, 1911. It had long been recognized as necessary, in the interests of the whole of India, to de-provincialise the Government of India, but this ideal was unattainable as long as the Government of India were located in one Province, and in the capital of that Province—the seat of the Bengal Government—for several months in every year. It was also desirable to free the Bengal Government from the close proximity of the Government of India which had been to the constant disadvantage of that Province to achieve these two objects the removal of the capital from Calcutta was essential. Its disadvantages had been recognized as long ago as 1888, when Sir Henry Maine advocated the change. Various places had been discussed as possible capitals, but Delhi was by common consent the best of them all. Its central position and situation as a railway junction, added to its historical associations, told in its favour, and, as Lord Curzon said in his despatch on the subject, to the races of India for whom the legends and records of the past are charged with so intense a meaning, the resumption by the Paramount Power of the seat of venerable Empire should at once enforce the continuity and promise the permanency of British sovereign rule over the length and breadth of the country.

The foundation stone of the new capital was laid by the King Emperor on December 15, 1911, the finally selected site being on the eastern slopes of the hills to the south of Delhi, on the fringe of the tract occupied by the Delhi of the past. The land chosen is free from liability to flood, has a natural drainage, and is not manured. It is not cluttered with monuments and tombs needing reverent treatment, and the site is near the present centre of the town of Delhi. A Committee consisting of Surgeon-General Sir C. P. Lucas, Mr. H. L. Keeling, C.I.E., A.M.I.C.E., and Major J. C. Robertson, I.M.S., was appointed to consider the comparative healthiness of the site and of an alternative one to the North of the existing city. Their report, dated 4th March, 1913, states that "the Committee, after giving full consideration to the various points discussed in the above note, is bound to advise the Government of India that no doubt can exist as to the superior healthiness of the southern site, the medical and sanitary advantages of which are overwhelming when compared with those of the northern site."

The Town Plan and Architecture.—A report by a Town Planning Committee, with a plan of the lay-out, was dated 20th March, 1913. Work was begun in accordance with it and its main lines have been followed throughout. The central point of interest in the lay-out, which gives the motif of the whole, is Government House, and two large blocks of Secretariats. The Government Centre has been given a position at Raisina Hill near the centre of the new city. Sir Edwin Lutyens is the architect for Government House and Sir Edward Baker

for the Secretariats. The former building is estimated to cost approximately Rs. 140 lakhs and the latter groups were originally estimated to some Rs. 134 lakhs. The provision made in the design of the Secretariats for extensions in case it used has already partly been utilized. The Secretariat personnel has largely increased in the past few years and numerous additional rooms had to be provided to make room for Army Headquarters which moved into the new capital at the end of the Simla season, 1929. To the east of the forum and below it is a spacious forecourt defined by an ornamental wall and linked on to the great main avenue or parkway which leads to Indraprastha. Across this main axis runs an avenue to the shopping centre. Other roads run in different directions from the entrance to the forum. The axis running north-east towards the Jama Masjid forms the principal approach to the new Legislature Chambers. They are officially described as the Council House and the road is named Parliament Street. The railway station for the new city finds its place about half way between the old and new cities off the road through Pabarganj, which lies to the west of Old Delhi in the direction of the Ridge. The main roads or avenues range from 70 feet to 140 feet in width with the exception of the main avenue east of the Secretariat buildings where a parkway width of 1,175 feet has been allowed. The principal avenues in addition to the main avenues are those running at right angles to the main east to west axis.

For a temporary capital, for the use of the Government of India during the period of the building of the new capital an area was selected along the Allipur Road, between the existing civil station of Delhi and the Ridge. The architectural and method of construction were similar to those adopted in the exhibition buildings at Allahabad in 1910, but the buildings have outlasted the transitional period for which they are intended. Army Headquarters were still housed in them in the winter until the month 1929-30 and others are occupied for various purposes including the temporary accommodation of Delhi University.

In October 1912, by proclamation, there was constituted an administrative enclave of Delhi under a Chief Commissioner. This enclave was entirely taken from the Delhi district of the Punjab and its total area is 578 square miles. On the basis of the Census of 1911, the population of the area originally included in the Province was 395,240 and of the new area 14,562, or a total of 413,801. The population of the Municipal town of Delhi was 2,29,144. The plans of the New Capital allow for a population within it of 70,000. Its present population is approximately 40,000. Sites have been allotted for forty Ruling Princes and Chiefs to build houses for their own occupation during their visits to the new city, and several of these habitations have been erected.

There was, as regards architecture, a prolonged "battle of the styles" over Delhi. Finally, to use the language of the architect, it has been the aim "to express within the spirit

of the medium and of the powers of its users, the ideal and the fact of British rule in India, of which the New Delhi must ever be the monument. The inspiration of the designs is manifestly Western, as is that of British rule, but they combine with it distinctive Indian features without abandoning the architects' aim to avoid doing violence to the principles of structural fitness and artistic unity.

Cost of the Scheme.—It was at first tentatively estimated that the cost of the new capital would be four million sterling and that sum was given in the original despatch of the Government of India on the subject. Various factors have since then increased the amount, the chief of these being the immense rise in prices since the war, and the Legislative Assembly were informed by Government on 23rd March 1931, that the revised estimates then amounted to 1,307 lakhs of rupees. This amount includes allowances for building new Legislative Chambers and Hostels for Members of the Indian Legislature, which were not allowed for in the earlier estimates. The New Capital Enquiry Committee in its report published in January 1933 estimated the total expenditure at Rs 1,292 lakhs including Rs 42 lakhs for loss by its change. Actual expenditure upto approximately the end of 1930 was Rs 14 crores. This may be taken as the figure for the completion of the main project.

The Project Estimate contains certain items such as land, residences, water supply, electric light and power, and irrigation on which recoveries in the form of rate or taxes will, in addition to meeting current expenditure, partially at any rate cover the interest on the capital outlay whilst there are other items on which some return on account of the sale of leases, general taxes and indirect receipts may be expected.

Progress of the work.—The construction of New Delhi was made at satisfactory speed, having regard to the curtailment of the Budget allotment in consequence of the war and the absence of officers and other establishments at the war. The Secretariats were so far advanced that there were transferred to them from Calcutta in October, 1924, the offices of the Accountant-General Central Revenue, and the headquarters of the Royal Air Force in India were also housed in them in the winters of 1924-25 and 1925-26. The residential buildings for Government officers and staff of various grades were then nearly completed. The whole of the civil side of Government moved from Old Delhi into their quarters in the new Secretariats on coming down from Simla in November, 1926. The present position is that all Government Departments including the Army Departments and Army Headquarters and R. A. F. Headquarters have their offices in the new City buildings on which the builders are completing the final details. The Members of H. E. the Viceroy's Executive Council including H. E. the Commander-in-Chief, live in their new official residences in the new capital. H. E. the Viceroy took up his residence in the new Government House there on 23rd December 1929. His Excellency until then resided in the Delhi season at Viceregal Lodge in Old Delhi. The

Government of India have recently devoted special consideration to the question whether their ordinary annual 5 months residence in Delhi should be extended each year to 7 months and early in 1928 decided in consultation with the India Office to endeavour to stay in Delhi for half of each year the new order being introduced for trial in 1928 by keeping the Secretariat in New Delhi till mid April and bringing it down from Simla again in mid October. The experiment was not very successful and has not been repeated.

Art Decorations.—The Government of India in 1927 approved a scheme for the encouragement of Indian artists by providing facilities for the decoration of certain buildings in New Delhi. The outlines of the scheme are briefly as follows. A certain number of domes and ceilings in the New Secretariat Buildings at Delhi suitable for decoration were selected. The various schools of art in India, as well as individual artists were invited through local Governments, to send in by the beginning of March 1928 small scale designs for approval by a Committee. After approval by the Committee both as regards the design and colour the picture was to be drawn out and painted to full size on canvas, and if finally approved by the Committee fixed according to the marouflage process *in situ*. Other techniques such as fresco or tempera, were optional. Artists or schools of art who sent in small scale drawings, had to bear the initial expense of preparing them. When these were approved by the Committee the out-of-pocket expenses paid in addition to a suitable honorarium Government undertook to pay for the finished pictures done from approved sketches but gave no guarantee that the finished paintings will permanently be preserved. Government intimated that historical or allegorical subjects would be given preference over religious ones and English artists living in India were barred from competition the work being strictly reserved to Indian artists. Numerous artists submitted designs especially those of Western India and with such satisfactory results that the specially appointed expert Committee approved of nearly all. A great deal of painting has now been completed and the work is continually progressing. Government meanwhile, launched a scheme for sending selected artists to Europe for finishing studies to enable them the better to join in the work and under the scheme students are now in England.

Opinion of the Legislature.—Considerable discussion regarding the new works took place in the Assembly in 1921. The following unofficial resolution was carried:—“The Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that in the interests of economy and of general convenience alike the execution of the programme of New Delhi works may be expedited and the necessary funds provided or raised so that the Secretariat and Legislative buildings and connected works including residences may be completed as early as practicable.”

A non-official Member in the Legislative Assembly on 28th September, 1921, at Simla,

moved a recommendation to Government to appoint a Committee to inquire into the possibility of establishing a permanent Capital of India in a place possessing salubrious and temperate climate throughout the year. This proposal was ridiculed by several of his non-official colleagues and was eventually rejected without a division.

H. R. the Duke of Connaught, on 12th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of a large group of parliamentary buildings on a site close to the south-east of the Secretariat. The building is an imposing pile circular in shape consisting in the main of three horse shoe shaped Chambers for the Chamber of Princes, Council of State and Legislative Assembly respectively and surmounted by a large dome over a Central Library connecting all three Chambers.

H. E. the Viceroy (Baron Irwin) proceeded in state to the new Legislative buildings henceforward to be known as the Council Buildings and formally declared them open on 18th February 1927. The Indian Legislature began its sessions in them next day.

During 1923 official and public attention became focused on the need to effect drastic improvements in some of the crowded areas of the old city and to provide for its expansion and for suburban developments. This led to the examination of the possibilities of the area lying between the old and new cities and of the desirability of driving connecting roads through the City walls in order to give access outwards in this direction. The old city is now rapidly expanding in a westerly direction i.e. towards and up the Ridge which runs behind both cities and the spaces between the two cities are being developed and utilised.

All India War Memorial—H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught on 10th February 1921 laid the foundation stone of an All India War Memorial at the southern end of the Central Vista. The place chosen is a fine position in the centre of the circular Princes Park and the construction of the building was for economy's sake proceeded with slowly. It is now practically complete.

The Memorial takes the form of a triumphant arch spanning Kingsway the avenue running down the centre of the Vista. It is generally similar to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris but is simpler in a way which will probably increase its grandeur and dignity. The monument reaches a height of 180 feet and the inner height of the arch is 87 feet 6 inches and its breadth 70 feet. Over the arch on both fronts appears in capital letters the single word INDIA and this is flanked on each side by the initials MCM (i.e. 1900) whilst immediately below them on the left hand are the initials XIV (i.e., 14) and on the opposite side the figures XIX (i.e. 19) above

the Arch is a circular stone bowl 11½ feet in diameter. This is intended to be filled with burning oil on great anniversaries and other occasions so that there will be shining fire by night and a column of smoke by day. The memorial is solely Indian in purpose and bears the names of Indian regiments only.

Public Institutions.—It was proposed during 1914 that a higher college for Calcutta should be established at Delhi and in this connexion a conference of Chiefs and Political Officers was held at Delhi at which the Viceroy presided. The proposal is still under consideration. To implement it would require an estimated capital outlay of Rs. 12½ lakhs.

The Government of India further in the Spring session of their Legislature in 1922 introduced and carried a Bill for the establishment of a unitary teaching and residential university of India the buildings for which would be erected in the new capital. The plan was to provide a local university on the model recommended for Darwa University by the Calcutta University Commission. The provision of funds for the complete realisation of the university must be a matter of time and it was therefore decided to commence work with the existing colleges in their present buildings and to permit them gradually to modify their organisation. The initial work of organisation was quickly effected by the Executive Council. Unfortunately the inability of the Government of India to allot considerable funds was a severe handicap. It was hoped that H. E. the Viceroy would be able to lay the foundation stone of the university buildings in November 1922, but this proved impracticable. The site for the new buildings required has not yet been settled. Government and the University Authorities are examining this point in consultation particularly with reference to the question whether to build in the new capital or to utilise buildings that may become available elsewhere. The general question of the finances of the University was in 1927 the subject of inquiry by a special Committee appointed by Government. For the present the University is housed in the temporary buildings in old Delhi occupied by the Civil Secretariat until last year.

H. E. the Viceroy on 10th January 1930 laid the foundation stone of a large European and Indian General Hospital to be built in the course of the next few years at a cost of Rs. 75 lakhs for the services of both old and new cities. A portion of the scheme will at a cost of Rs. 40 lakhs be executed as a first stage during the ensuing two years. This will provide 224 beds and the necessary laboratories and administrative and residential quarters. The second stage will provide another 110 beds. The hospital is situated between the old and new cities.

Freemasonry in India.

In 1728 a dispensation was granted by the Grand Lodge of England to Geo. Pomfret, Esq., authorising him to "open a new Lodge in Bengal. Of this dispensation nothing further is known but under Capt. Farwinter, who in the following year succeeded him as Provincial Grand Master of India, Lodge was established in 1730, which in the Engraved Lists is distinguished by the arms of the East India Company, and is described as "No. 72 at Bengal in the East Indies." The next Provincial Grand Masters were James Dawson and Leok. Gee, who held office in 1740 after whom came the Hon. Roger Drake, appointed 10th April 1755. The last named was Governor of Calcutta at the time of the attack made on the settlement by Surajah Dowlah in 1756. Drake missed the honours of the Black Hole by escaping and was accused of deserting his post, but, though present at the retaking of Calcutta by Admiral Watson and Oliva, it is improbable that he resumed the duties of his masonic office after the calamity that befell the settlement.

The minutes of the Grand Lodge inform us that William Mackett, Provincial Grand Master of Calcutta, was present at the meeting of that body, November 17th, 1760, and we learn on the same authority that at the request of the "Lodges in the East Indies" Mr. Oullin Smith was appointed P. G. M. in 1762. At this period it was the custom in Bengal "to elect the Provincial Grand Master annually by the majority of the votes of the members present, from amongst those who passed through the different offices of the (Prov.) Grand Lodge and who had served as Dep. Prov. Grand Master." This annual election as soon as notified to the Grand Lodge of England was confirmed by the Grand Master without its being thought an infringement of his prerogative. In accordance with this practice, Samuel Middleton was elected (P. G. M. circa) in 1767 but in passing it may be briefly observed that a few years previously a kind of roving commission was granted by Earl Ferrers in 1763-64 to John Bluvitt, Commander of the "A. J. and W. Watson," Indianman "for East India where no other Provincial Lodge is to be found." Middleton's election was confirmed, October 31st, 1768, and, as the dispensation forwarded by the Grand Secretary was looked upon as abrogating the practice of annual election, he accordingly held the office of P. G. M. Unfortunately the records of the P. G. L. date back only to 1774 and thus much valuable information is lost to us. This Grand Lodge continued working until 1792 when it ceased to meet. It seems that the officers were selected from only two Lodges much to the dissatisfaction of the other Lodges, and resulted in most of the dissatisfied bodies seceding and attaching themselves to the Athol of Ancient Grand Lodge. In 1818 at the Union both the Ancients and Moderns in Calcutta combined and gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge of England and have since been working peaceably under the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which was revived in that year and in 1840 created a District Grand Lodge.

Madras.—The earliest Lodge in Southern India (No. 233) was established in Madras in 1753. Three others were also established about 1768

In the same year Capt. Edmund Pascal was appointed P. G. M. for Madras and its Dependencies and in the following year another Lodge was established at Fort St. George. In 1768 the Athol (or Ancients) invaded this District and in 1782 established a Provincial Grand Lodge and both these Provincial Grand Bodies continued working peaceably side by side until the union. Indeed, though not generally known, these two Grand Bodies made an attempt at coalition long before any such movement was made by their parent bodies, the Grand Lodge of England, and the Ancient Grand Lodge, and Madden in his History of Freemasonry in Madras states that in a great measure they succeeded. At the Union in 1818 all the bodies in Madras gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge. One event worthy of note was the initiation in 1774 of Trichinopoly of the eldest son of the Nawab of Arcot, Umdat-ul-Umra who in his reply to the congratulations of the Grand Lodge of England stated "he considered the title of English Mason as one of the most honourable that he possessed. This document is now stored in the archives of the United Grand Lodge.

Bombay.—Two Lodges were established in this Presidency during the 17th century, Nos. 234 at Bombay in 1758 and 569 in Surat in 1768, both of which were carried on the lists until the union when they disappeared. A Provincial Grand Master, James Todd, was appointed but there is no record that he exercised his functions and his name drops out of the Freemasons' Calendar in 1769. In 1801 an Athol Warrant was granted (No. 523) to the 78th foot which was engaged in the Maratha War under Sir Arthur Wellesley. In 1816 Lord Morley was asked to constitute a Lodge to be known by the name of St. Andrew by eight Masons residing there and also to grant a dispensation for holding a Provincial Grand Lodge for the purpose of making the Hon. Mountstuart a Mason, he having expressed a wish to that effect. The Petitioners further requested "that his name might be inserted in the body of the warrant, authorising them to install him after being duly passed and raised a Deputy Grand Master of the Decan." Of the reply to this application no copy has been preserved. Lodge Benevolence was established in Bombay in 1822.

In 1828 a Military Lodge 'Orion-in-the-West' was formed in the Bombay Artillery and installed at Poona as No. 15 of the Coast of Cochin. It seems from Lane's records that in 1830 it was discovered that this Lodge was not on the records of the United Grand Lodge of England. A Warrant was subsequently issued bearing date 19th July 1833. According to the early proceedings of this Lodge, members were examined in the Third Degree and passed to the chair in the Fourth Degree for which a fee of three gold mohurs was charged. In the following year a second Lodge was established at Poona by the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which however left no trace of its existence. In 1825 the civilian element of "Orion" seceded and formed the "Lodge of Hope" also at Poona No. 802.

Here "Orion" unrecognized at home, alien in the opinion of some of its members, who obtained a warrant, on the recommendation of the parent Lodge, from the Grand Lodge of England two years later it was discovered that no notification of the existence of "Orion-in-the-West" had reached England, nor had any fees been received, although these including quarterages had been paid into the Provincial Grand Lodge, Coast of Coromandel. It was further ascertained that in granting a warrant for a Bombay Lodge the Provincial Grand Master of Coromandel had exceeded his powers. Ultimately a new warrant No 598 was granted as already stated in 1883. Lodge "Perseverance" was started in Bombay No 818 in 1828. Up to this time the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of England in India had not been invaded but in 1830 Dr James Burnes was appointed by the Grand Lodge of Scotland, F G M. of Western India and its Dependencies No Provincial Grand Lodge however was formed until 1st January 1838. A second Scottish Province of Eastern India was started which on the retirement of the Marquis of Tweeddale was absorbed within the jurisdiction of Dr Burnes, who in 1846 became Provincial Grand Master for all India (including Aden) but with the proviso, that this appointment was not to act in restraint of any future sub-division of the Presidencies. Burnes may be best described as being in 1836, in ecclesiastical phrase as a Provincial Grand Master "in partibus infidelium" for whatever Lodge then existed throughout the length and breadth of India were strangers to Scottish Masonry. But the times were propitious. There was no English Provincial Grand Lodge in Bombay and the Chevalier Burnes, whom nature had endowed with all the qualities requisite for Masonic Administration, soon got to work and presented such attractions to Scottish Freemasonry that the strange sight was witnessed of English Masons deserting their mother Lodges, to such an extent that these fell into abeyance, in order to give support to Lodges newly constituted under the Grand Lodge of Scotland. In one case, indeed, a Lodge "Perseverance" under England went over bodily to Scotland, with its name, jewels, furniture and belongings, and the charge was accepted by Scotland. This Lodge still exists in Bombay and now bears No 338 on the Register of Scotland. From this period, therefore, Scottish Masonry flourished, and English Masonry declined until the year 1846 when a Lodge St. George No 807 on the Rolls of the Grand Lodge of England was again formed at Bombay, and for some years was the solitary representative of English Masonry in the Province. In 1844 Burnes established a Lodge "Rising Star" at Bombay for the admission of Indian gentlemen the result of which is seen at the present day. Thus the seed planted at Frichinopoly in 1774 by the initiation of Umdat-ul-Umara has borne fruit, resulting in the initiation of thousands of Indian gentlemen of all castes and creeds, and which has gone far to establishing that mutual trust between West and East, a distinguishing characteristic of Speculative Freemasonry. A Provincial Grand Lodge was re-established in Bombay in 1860, and converted into a District Grand Lodge in 1861.

The Grand Lodge of England.—All three Constitutions of the United Kingdom, the United Grand Lodge of England, the Grand Lodge of

Ireland and the Grand Lodge of Scotland hold jurisdiction in India. By far the largest is the first the next largest is the third and the number of Lodges under Ireland is as yet small. The Grand Lodge of England divides its rule under Five District Grand Masters independent of each other and directly subordinate to the Grand Master of England by whom they are appointed.

Bengal.

81 Lodges Rt Wor Bro Sir Keith Studd P.G.D.,
Dis C Master Dy D G M Edward A R
Blunt C.E. O.R.E., I.C.S. Asst
D G M A Altkro

Madras

25 Lodges Dis G M Rt Wor Bro A Y G
Campbell C.E. I.C.S. O.R.E. I.C.S.
P G D Dy D G M P M Sivangnanam
Mudalliar I G D

Bombay

18 D G M Rt Wor Bro Sir Reginald A Spencer,
Kt P.D., Dy D G M W A C Brom
ham

Punjab

34 Lodges. Rt W Bro C A Barron C.S.I.,
C.E. O.V.O. I.C.S. District Grand Master,
Holland C.E., Dy D G M

Burma

30 Lodges Rt W Bro Mr Leo Ah Yain
P A G Reg District Grand Master

The Grand Lodge of Scotland exercises its rule through a Grand Master of all Scottish Freemasonry in India, who is elected by the Brethren subject to confirmation by the Grand Master Mason of Scotland. The Hon. Mr J E B Hotson C.E. O.R.E. I.C.S., is the present incumbent of the office, and controls 73 Lodges. Under him the several districts are in charge of the following Grand Superintendents.—
Lt-Col E W Castle G Supdt., Northern India.
Capt G R White " " Central "
The Hon. Mr I Col " " Southern "

T H Keyes " Eastern "
A Briggs " Eastern "
The Grand Secretary is Mr W Bro J C. Whistler,
J P, 17, Marsehan Road, Fort, Bombay

The Grand Lodge of Ireland granted a warrant to establish a Lodge at Kurnal in 1837, but it was short lived. An attempt was made in 1869 to establish a Lodge in Bombay, but on the representation of the Grand Secretary of England, to the Deputy Grand Secretary of Ireland that it would be objectionable to create a third masonic jurisdiction in the Province, there being two already, viz. English and Scottish, the Grand Lodge of Ireland declined to grant the warrant. In 1911, however, a warrant was sanctioned for the establishment of Lodge "St. Patrick" and since that year two other Lodges have sprung into being.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland has no District Grand Master in India at present, the Lodges corresponding direct with the Grand Lodge in Dublin. There are ten Lodges, 4 in Calcutta 3 in Ceylon and 3 in Bombay.

Royal Arch Masonry.—Under England, the District Grand Master in any District is nearly always created also Grand Superintendent, his Deputy as Second and another Companion as Third Principal.

Under Ireland there is no local jurisdiction and under Scotland the office is elective subject to confirmation.

The five English Districts are constituted as under —

Bengal

30 Chapters Grand Supdt Most Ex Comp-
Eric Studd.

Madras

18 Chapters, Grand Supdt A Y G Campbell,
C.B.I., C.I.E., C.B.E., V D, I.O.S.

Bombay

28 Chapters M Ex Comp Sir Reginald A
Spence, Kt., Grand Superintendent.

Punjab

21 Chapters, Most Ex Comp C A Barron,
C.B.I., O.I.E., C.V.O., I.C.S., Grand Su-
perintendent.

Burma

7 Chapters Most Ex Comp Sir Loc Ah Yain
Grand Superintendent.

Royal Arch Masonry under Scotland has a separate constitution to Craft Freemasonry. The District Grand Chapter of India is at present ruled by M E Camp A. M. Kaji under whom there are about 80 Chapters in India. The Grand Secretary of all Scottish Freemasonry in India is also District Grand Scribe E of Scottish E A Masonry.

There is one Irish Chapter in Calcutta.

Mark Masonry.—Under England Mark Masonry is worked under the Grand Mark Lodge of England and Wales, and divided into separate Districts, but in most cases the District Grand Master is also District Grand Mark Master.

Bengal

27 Lodges H R Nevill, C.I.E. O.B.E., I.C.S.,
D.G.M.

Bombay

18 Lodges Rt W Bro Sir Reginald Spence
District Grand Master

Madras

14 Lodges A Y G Campbell, C.I.E., C.B.E.,
V D, I.O.S., District Grand Master

Punjab

18 Lodges. Rt W Bro. H L. O. Garrett,
District Grand Master

Burma

5 Lodges. Rt W Bro. Nasarwanjee Nowrojee
Parakh M D District Grand Master

The Mark degree is incorporated with the Royal arch degree in Irish Chapters. Mark degree is worked in some S O Lodges, but mostly in R. A Chapters, in which the Excellent R. A. M. and other degrees can be obtained. S O Chapters insist upon candidates being Mark Master Masons before exaltation. Mark degree in Craft Lodges is conferred by the Rt Wor Master in S O. Craft does not recognise the ceremony of R. A. W Mark Master. This is confined strictly to Chapters. Each Chapter has a Lodge of M M M working under its charter. Separate chapters for Mark Lodges are only issued by the G Chapter of Scotland.

Other Degrees.—There are many side degrees worked in India, of the Ancient and Accepted Rite, no degree higher than the 18° is worked in India under England, but under Scotland the 30° is worked. The Knight Templar Degree is also worked in several places under both English and Scottish jurisdiction. There are fourteen 18th Degree Chapters working in India.

Roman Eagle Conclave No 43, Bombay

St. Mary's Commandery No 43, Bombay

R. A. Mariner, 72, 514 602, Bombay, and 468,
Jubbulpore

R. A. Mariner, 61, 81, 82 and 104, Madras

R. A. Mariner, 98, 198, 219, 279 and 420, Punjab

Secret Monitor, 14, 21, 34, 37, 40 and 42,
Madras.

Benevolent Associations.—Each District works its own benevolent arrangements which include the Relief of Distressed Masons, educational provision for the children of Masons and maintenance provision for widows in poor circumstances.

All information will be given to persons entitled by the District Grand Secretary in each District. The names and addresses of District Grand Secretaries are given below —

D G S, Bengal

J H Simpson, 19, Park Street, Calcutta

D G S, Bombay

Khan Bahadur Palanji N Datar P A G R,
P D G W, Freemasons Hall, Ravelin Street
Fort Bombay

D G S, Burma

E Meyer D G S, E C, Rangoon

D G S, Madras

S T Srinivasa Gopala Chari Freemasons
Hall, Egmore, Madras

D G S, Punjab

G Reeves Brown, Freemasons' Hall, Lahore
Scottish Constitution.—For information regarding the Benevolent Funds application should be made to Jehangir C Mistree, J.P., 17
Munaban Road Bombay

Scientific Surveys.

Zoological Survey—A scheme for the formation of a Zoological Survey on the basis of the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, came into force in July, 1910. The proposals as sanctioned by the Secretary of State mainly are as follows:—The headquarters of the Survey will be the Indian Museum. The scheme regarding the Zoological Survey entails the breaking up of the organisation now known as the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum into two parts, one of which will become a Government Department under the title of the Zoological Survey of India, and will be primarily concerned with zoological investigation and exercise such advisory functions as may be assigned to it by Government, while the other part will remain as the office of the Trustees of the Indian Museum and will be organised for the present on the lines laid down in the existing by-laws of the Museum. It will be the duty of the Zoological Survey to act as guardians of the standard zoological collection of the Indian Empire, and as such to give every assistance in their power both to officials and to others, in the identification of zoological specimens submitted to them, arranging, if requested to do so, to send collections to specialists abroad for identification in cases in which no specialist is available in India. The Zoological Survey is also responsible for the Anthropological and Ethnological collections in the Indian Museum and in 1927 the additional appointment on the Staff of an anthropologist was created. The Director of the Survey was Dr. Anandale until April 1924 when he died—within a month of receiving the honour of Fellowship of the Royal Society. Dr. Balmi Prasad was appointed Acting Director in his place and continued in that capacity until July, 1925, when Lt.-Col. R. B. Sowell, M.S. M.A., F.R.S. F.L.S. F.E.S., was made Director.

Mammal Survey—The Survey was instituted in the year 1912 with the object of making as complete a study as possible of the occurrence and distribution of Mammals in India, Burma and Ceylon and with the further object of supplementing the collection of Indian Mammals at the Bombay Natural History Society's Museum and at the British Museum as well as at the Natural History Museums in India, the primary object of the Survey being the furtherance of our knowledge of Indian Mammalian Fauna. Up to 1891 Naturalists in India had to rely for information on Dr. Jerdon's 'Mammals of India' published in 1874. In 1884 E. A. Steudale published his 'Natural History of Indian Mammals' a purely popular work which did not add much to Jerdon's book. In 1891 a memorial prepared by Dr. Slater, Hon. Secretary to the Zoological Society and signed by Darwin, Hooker, Huxley and other well known scientists, was presented to the Secretary of State for India. The memorial recommended that a series of Volumes dealing with the Fauna of India should be prepared and Dr. Blanford should be appointed its Editor. The memorial resulted in the publication in 1898-1899 of the Volume on Mammals in the 'Fauna of British India' Series and since 1891 this volume has been

the standard work on Indian Mammals. Blanford's book was however based on the information then available and the shortcomings of the book have been revealed in the light of more recent research. Further knowledge in regard to distribution and classification and the discovery of new species have rendered Blanford practically obsolete.

To remedy this defect, at the instigation of the authorities of the British Museum, the Bombay Natural History Society decided to institute what is now known as the Mammal Survey, Mr. W. B. Millard, then Hon. Secretary of that Society issued in an appeal to its members to enable the Society to engage the services of trained European collectors so as to make a systematic collection of the mammals of India, Burma and Ceylon. The response to the appeal resulted in over a lakh of rupees being raised between 1911 and 1920 partly by subscriptions from the Society's members, contributions from Indian Princes and grants from the Indian Government, the Government of Burma, Ceylon, Malay States, and the Provincial Governments. Subscriptions were also received from a few Learned Societies and Institutions in England and America. By the outbreak of the war the Survey had been carried on over large areas of the country, the districts covered being—in Western India a portion of Sind, the whole of Gujarat, Kutch and Kathiawar, the Southern Maharatta country and Kanara in Southern India, in Coorg and Mysore, in the centre large tracts of the Central Provinces and some districts of Bengal and Behar. In Northern India the Society's collectors had worked over Kumaon, Darjeeling and Sikkim and the Bhutan Duars. In Burma, collections were made along the Chindwin river in Central Burma and in the Shan States, Pegu and a portion of Tenasserim. The whole of Ceylon was also systematically surveyed.

The material which up to the outbreak of War comprised some 17,000 specimens, was forwarded to the British Museum where the collections were scientifically worked out by the late Mr. R. C. Wroughton, formerly Inspector General of Forests, Mr. Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Curator of Mammals at the British Museum, Mr. Martin C. Hinton and others. The results of their researches were published in a series of scientific papers in the Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society. The enormous mass of material then collected resulted in the discovery of large numbers of new forms and species and by increasing our knowledge of the distribution of Indian Mammals has enabled the revision of Blanford's Mammals to be undertaken and early in 1921 the Secretary of State for India commissioned Mr. R. C. Wroughton, since deceased, and Mr. M. C. Hinton to undertake the work.

When demobilisation rendered it possible the work of the Survey which had been in abeyance during the war was resumed and a collector Mr. O. Primrose, was sent to Assam and the Mergui Archipelago and Mr. Oldfield Thomas has written very appreciatively of his work among those islands. Mr. Primrose then began

working inland but owing to the impracticability of continuing his work in Burma during the monsoon, he was transferred to Gwalior where II H the Maharaja kindly accorded permission to work in his territories.

After working a portion of the Eastern Ghats the next move was to the Kangra District in the North West Himalayas and then on to the Punjab Salt Range. Two other collectors worked in Southern India. Permission was once more obtained from the Nepal Government for a collector to resume the Survey work in that country. The work in Nepal was brought to a successful close early in 1928 with a representative collection of interesting mammals and birds.

The Survey now has only one collector who is collecting in the foot hills of Himalayas and the Pindari Valley.

Botanical Survey.—The Botanical Survey Department of the Government of India is under the control of a Director who is also Superintendent of the Royal Botanic Garden Calcutta. There is a staff at headquarters of two officers for systematic work and at the Indian Museum a curator who is engaged in the development and maintenance of the Industrial Section. The Director holds administrative charge of the Government of India's cinchona operations in Burma of quinine manufacture in Bengal and of the distribution of cinchona products to the Government of India's area of distribution in Upper India. The question of the extension of cinchona cultivation in the Indian Empire has of late years formed a subject of interest to several bodies including the League of Nations Health Section. The Royal Commission on Agriculture recommended that India should be made self-sufficient in the matter of quinine production. Attempts are now being made to overcome the financial and other difficulties hindering the ready use of quinine through India. The cinchona operations directly under the Government of India are for the present confined to the Tenasserim district in Lower Burma, where a large tract of country is held in reserve. Considerable success has already been achieved with the crop and it has been established that cinchona will grow in this area and that it can be grown at some profit but indications here, as elsewhere in India, point to the inadvisability of leaving production subject to the vagaries of the climate in one area and, generally, of localising effort. Other areas in Burma and in Assam seem suitable for this cultivation and await experimental proof, when the present financial and other obstacles to cinchona development have been overcome.

The actual demand for the drug in India is difficult to estimate. Eight million cases of malaria fever go to the hospitals and dispensaries every year. If each of these is treated with 110 grains of quinine, which may be taken as the minimum for the cure of a paroxysm, the demand for hospital and dispensary treatments alone would be 125,000 pounds a year. Patients do not get as much of the drug as they ought, because the cost of quinine is prohibitive. It is estimated that there are 100,000,000 sufferers from malaria who do not attend the hospitals. The potential demand is therefore somewhere between 125,000 pounds and 1,500,000 pounds.

When the Italian Government, in 1908 made quinine a State industry and cheapened its retail price consumption in that country enormously increased and malaria mortality was reduced from 15,000 to 8,000 a year. The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India says in a recent report that 'it may be said that there is no question of the effective treatment of malaria in India until consumption of quinine approximates 500,000 pounds'.

Survey of India.—The work of the Survey of India falls under various heads, namely trigonometrical, topographical and forest surveys, special surveys and explorations, and map reproduction. Cadastral surveys are now chiefly carried out by the Provincial Land Records and Settlement Department but are in some cases supervised by Survey of India officers.

The land survey and mapping of British India have advanced with the acquisition of territory they commenced when the first battalions were fought, and the first province gained James Rennell who distinguished himself as a midshipman at the siege of Pondicherry and afterwards rose to the rank of Major in the army may be said to be the father of Indian geography and he was made Surveyor of the East India Company's Dominions in Bengal by Lord Clive on the 1st January 1767. The Great Trigonometrical Branch now termed the Geodetic Branch, was originated by Col W. Lambton, who was first Superintendent—from 1800 to 1823. He was followed in that capacity by one of the best known Surveyor Generals of India viz. Sir George Everest who was head of the Department from 1830 to 1843.

In 1904 a Committee was appointed to examine the methods and working of the Survey of India with special reference to the preparation or revision and reproduction of the topographical maps of the country to overtake the errors of revisional survey and to secure that the map of India should be brought up to date and revised at proper intervals. A considerable increase of establishment was recommended and a programme for 25 years work was drawn up. Certain scales were determined, which however were from time to time modified, but the scale of 1 to 1 mile as the general standard or the whole of India was accepted. The work of the department has in recent years greatly been hampered by the general need for retrenchment and expenditure, and owing to the fact that a very large proportion of the members served throughout the Great War in various capacities on various fronts little more than half of the programme which it was hoped would be completed by 1930 has been done and this in spite of the reduction of the scale of Survey for less important areas. Thus although new surveys covering an area about equal to that of England are carried out every year, the maps of one-third the country are still very old and only roughly kept up to date by means of rather perfunctory information supplied by local officials. The old maps are also about 2 miles out of position, being based on a longitude of Madras determined in 1816. On the other hand, the department's organization has recently been improved by the creation of a new North-West

Frontier Circle under a separate Directorate, the special functions of which are to deal with the requirements of the Army for operations in that area. This is in addition to the four already existing Circles for all India and Burma.

The Department is responsible for all topographical survey, for explorations and the maintenance of geographical maps of the greater part of Southern Asia for geodetic work including the main trigonometrical framework which extends in some cases far beyond the frontiers of India, and control networks of precise levelling based on tidal observations, tidal predictions and the publication of Tide Tables for nearly 40 ports between Bues and Singapore. The Magnetic Survey, astronomical observations with seismographs and meteorological records at Dehra Dun, and geodetic investigations of an international character, in regard to which India enjoys a unique position between the greatest highlands of the world and a deep ocean extending to the Antarctic. Indian geodesy has thus disclosed by far the largest known anomalies of gravitational attraction in the earth's crust, which have led to some of the most important developments of modern geodetic research.

While expending on topographical and geodetic work all funds allotted by Imperial Revenues the Departments is steadily developing the policy of aiding local surveys in various ways, on payment by those concerned. These miscellaneous operations include all forest and cantonment surveys and work for Boundary Commissions, many riverain irrigation railway and city surveys and surveys of tea gardens, mining areas etc with a great deal of control levelling for them. Miscellaneous administrative assistance and officers are given to the revenue surveys of various Provinces and States. The Printing offices do much work for other Government departments, such as printing special maps, illustrations for Archaeological Reports, all diagrams for Patents &c. The Mathematical Instrument Office gives valuable aid to all Government departments by ensuring a high standard of instrumental equipment especially in connection with optical work, and by the manufacture and repair of high-class instruments, which would otherwise have to be imported from abroad.

The Department is also responsible for all survey operation required by the Army and has rapidly been developing measures to meet the greatly increased complexity of modern military requirements, especially in connection with air survey. The development of air surveys for various civil purposes is also receiving all possible encouragement and assistance while the latest methods of stereo-photograph are being studied experimentally.

Administration is by the Surveyor General under the Education Health and Lands Department of the Government of India. Headquarters offices are at Calcutta under the Assistant Surveyor General.

There are seven Directors, including the Director Map Publication who is in administrative charge also of the Photo Litho Office and the Mathematical Instrument Office, at Calcutta, and the Director, Geodetic Branch,

at Dehra Dun. For topographical purposes India is divided into five Circles, each under a Director as follows:—Frontier Circle, which deals chiefly with the Army, has Headquarters at Simla. Central Circle Headquarters Mussoorie, Eastern Circle, Headquarters Shillong, Southern Circle Headquarters Bangalore and Burma Circle Headquarters Maymyo. Any inquiries regarding surveys may be addressed either to the Headquarters office or any of the Directors concerned, from whom also can be obtained the publications of the Survey of India as well as from the Map Sales Office, situated at 13 Wood Street Calcutta.

Indian Science Congress—The Indian Science Congress was founded largely owing to the efforts of Prof P. S. MacMahon and Dr J. L. Simonson. These two gentlemen worked jointly as Honorary General Secretaries of the Congress till 1921. The Asiatic Society of Bengal undertakes the management of the Congress finances and publishes annually the proceedings of the Congress. The objects are (1) to encourage research and to make the results generally known among science workers in India, (2) to give opportunities for personal intercourse and scientific companionship and thus to overcome to some extent one of the chief drawbacks in the life of workers in science in India, (3) to promote public interest in science, for this and the Congress is held at different centres annually, and evening lectures open to the public form an important part of the proceedings of each Congress.

The Congress which is progressive and vigorous, meets in January each year, the proceedings last for six days. The Head of the Local Government is Patron of the Congress, the Congress session is opened by a Presidential Address delivered by the President for the year. The President is chosen annually the different sections being represented in turn. The sections are (1) Agriculture, (2) Physics and Mathematics, (3) Chemistry and Applied Botany, (4) Zoology and Ethnography, (5) Botany, (6) Geology, (7) Medical Research, when the sections meet separately each section is presided over by its own President also chosen annually. The mornings are devoted to the reading and discussion of the papers, the afternoon to social functions and visits to places of interest, in the evenings public lectures are delivered.

The Indian Research Fund Association—This Association which is a much older body than the National Research Council in England, was constituted in 1911 with a sum of rupees five lakhs (£38 000) set aside as an endowment for the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge and experimental measures generally in connection with the causation, mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases. It can claim to be amongst the pioneers in organised medical research on a large scale and has been referred to by other countries in very complimentary language. Still better, it has been copied by several other nations.

During 1929 the constitution of the Governing Body was altered by the Government of India. It was considered that, in view of the largely increased activities of this Association, the

Governing Body which had hitherto most expeditiously and economically conducted the business of the Association should be now made more representative in character. It was accordingly enlarged by including two non-official members from the Legislative Assembly one from the Council of State, two from the Medical Faculties of the Universities and one non-medical scientist. The creation of a Recruitment Board in India for selecting the personnel employed by the Association and of a Consultative Recruitment Board in England also came under the consideration of Government. It was further decided that the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association should be the co-ordinating agency for the research activities of the All India Institute of Public Health which is being built at Calcutta and of the proposed Central Medical Research Institute.

The Conference of Medical Research Workers held its seventh annual meeting in Calcutta in December 1929. This Conference of Research Workers which is drawn from all parts of India and consists of experts in their particular lines of research, discussed yearly the general policy of research work in India as well as the detailed schemes which are proposed to be undertaken by the Indian Research Fund Association in the following year. The results of these discussions are available to guide the members of the Scientific Advisory Board of the Indian Research Fund Association in making their recommendations for the programme of the following year. The Advisory Board also met in December and examined all the proposals for research work and recommended a scheme of research for the guidance of the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association.

The control and management of the Association are vested in a Governing Body the President of which is the Member in charge of the Department of Education, Health and Lands, Government of India. The Governing Body is assisted by a Scientific Advisory Board of which not fewer than three members have seats on the Governing Body. The function of the Board is to examine all proposals for work in connection with the objects of the Association and to report on their importance and feasibility to the Governing Body.

The main income of the Association is an annual grant from the Government of India. The grant amounted to Rs 5,00,000 per annum up to the year 1922-23 when owing to financial retrenchment it was discontinued. This would have caused the cessation of the activities of the Association but for the fact that a portion of the annual grant had been placed in a capital account which at that time was yielding interest sufficient to continue the Association on a much reduced scale. With a renewed grant in 1925-26 of Rs 8,00,000 and later a restored grant of Rs 5,00,000, the activities of the Association again came into full swing. Owing to a revised method of showing the grant in the budget of the Government of India, the figure has been raised to Rs 74 lakhs so as to include the pay and allowances of ten officers of the Medical Research Department who ordinarily work under the Association.

A donation of Rs 5,000 entitles the donor to a permanent seat on the Governing Body, while every subscriber of Rs 100 per annum can be a temporary member. Members of the Association are entitled to attend and take part in the annual general meeting of the Association and to receive copies of reports and other publications issued from time to time by the Association.

The official organ of the Association is the Indian Journal of Medical Research which has a wide international circulation. The Association also publishes Indian Medical Research Memoirs which are supplementary to the Journal.

Since its inception a great number of inquiries have been carried out under the auspices of the Association and great expansion of its activities has taken place from small beginnings. The Association in 1920-30 financed 48 enquiries in the field of medical research at an estimated cost of Rs 10,50,824. These included investigations into various aspects of malaria, plague, cholera, anti-rabic vaccines, kala-azar, leprosy, helminthological and nutritional diseases, tuberculosis, bacteriophage and its uses for the treatment and prevention of dysentery and cholera, maternal mortality, morbidity in child birth, anaemia of pregnancy in India, determination of haemoglobin in health and in anaemia, causation of foetal and maternal dystocia in India, sprue, indigenous drugs, drug addiction, skin diseases, diabetes, the blood changes occurring in certain tropical diseases, spirochaetosis, transmission, study of the histology of the spleen and the bone marrow, filariasis, guinea-worm disease, relapsing fever, osteomalacia, secretion and composition of gastric juice in Indians, anthropological inquiry regarding determination of age for medico-legal purposes and several minor inquiries on other diseases.

The principal inquiries are the Malaria Survey of India, which is a Central organisation, located at Kasauli and Karnal, plague research at the Haffkine Institute, Bombay, kala-azar by a commission in Assam, bacteriophage by Dr. Asheshov at Patna, nutritional research by Colonel McCarrison at the Pasteur Institute, Concor and indigenous drugs and drug addiction by Lt Col Chopra at Calcutta.

The Malaria Survey of India, which now enjoys international recognition, is constantly called upon to advise as to the best methods for malaria prevention in India. As part of the activities of this organisation and in commemoration of Sir Ronald Ross' intimate association with India, an experimental malaria station was opened in Karol in January 1927 and is known as The Ross Field Experimental Station for Malaria. Besides carrying out experiments in connection with the prevention of malaria, annual classes are held at which candidates from all over India are shown the latest methods for dealing with the malaria scourge and are instructed how these methods should be applied. In connection with the Malaria Survey of India and in order to assemble all facts relating to malaria, a new publication has been started known as the Records of the Malaria Survey of India of which up to date four numbers have been issued.

The programme for 1930-31 consisted of 44 enquiries chiefly on the diseases above enumerated. It is proposed that the work of the Kala-azar Commission in Assam should be carried on as an enquiry into the cause, method of transmission, cure and prevention of kala-azar conducted by Dr. Napier of the School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, Calcutta. It is also proposed to institute a Cholera Commission which will investigate the various aspects of the disease.

Owing to the generosity of the Rajah of Parikshmed, who gave a lakh of rupees as a donation for the purpose, the Parikshmed Trust was constituted during the year. This Trust establishes two scholarships for training in nutritional work under the Director of Nutritional Research, Calcutta. The Trust itself will be administered with the help of a committee, by the Indian Research Fund Association. The Rajah of Parikshmed was elected a life member of the Governing Body of the Association.

The Rock-feller Foundation generously offered \$648,000 to meet the non-recurring cost of building and equipping an All India Public Health Institute at Calcutta, provided that the Government of India placed its management under the control of the Governing Body of the I. R. F. A. and guaranteed to provide adequate financial support for its maintenance by an annual recurring grant of about 3½ lakhs. The Government of India agreed to these conditions and the Indian Research Fund Association under whose control the money was placed have made arrangements for the acquisition of the land. The building is now being constructed and it is expected that the Institute will be opened early in 1932.

Geological Survey—The ultimate aim of the Geological Survey of India is the preparation of a geological map of India upon the accuracy of which the solution of most geological problems ultimately depends. Maps accompany the reports on the various areas in the publications of the Department and a large amount of

information is made available to the public. Such maps represent pioneer work which enables prospectors and mining engineers to cut short their preliminary investigations and to start where the Geological Survey has left off. During the preparation of the geological map and the general survey of the country, mineral deposits of importance are sometimes discovered. Such discoveries are published without delay and every endeavour is made to induce private firms to take up the exploitation of the mineral. discovered. Collections of minerals, rocks and fossils are accumulated and exhibited in the public galleries of the Indian Museum, situated in Calcutta. Some of the most interesting and scientifically valuable additions to the collections in recent years have been the remains of an anthropoid ape of great age discovered at different places in the Siwalik Hills, a range which for hundreds of miles runs parallel to the Himalayas at a short distance below the foot hills of the latter and is largely composed of Himalayan detritus. The Geological Survey helps in the spread of geological education in India by the presentation of mineral rock and fossil specimens to educational institutions. The knowledge gained concerning the geological structure of India and the composition of the rocks that compose the strata enables the department to help in the solution of engineering problems connected with the selection of sites for dams, for reservoirs, the safety of hill slopes and the suitability of particular building stones for particular purposes. The Department is also often able to advise on problems connected with the supply of water. As a result of the knowledge gained concerning the structure and disposition of the mineral deposits of India, the Department is also in a position to give advice concerning the conservation of the natural resources of the country. The Geological Survey also undertakes the examination and identification without fee, of any minerals, rocks and fossils sent in by private observers. The publications of the Survey include the Memoirs, Records and Palaeontologia Indica. The Survey headquarters are in Calcutta.

Posts and Telegraphs.

POST OFFICE.

The control of the Posts and Telegraphs of India is vested in an officer designated Director General of Posts and Telegraphs who works in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself consists on the postal side of three Deputy Directors-General, and six Assistant Directors-General (whose status is similar to that of Deputy Postmasters-General).

For postal purposes, the Indian Empire is divided into nine circles as shown below, each of the first eight is in charge of a Postmaster-General and the Sind and Baluchistan Circle is controlled by a Director Posts & Telegraphs, Bengal and Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, Central Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Sind and Baluchistan. The Central Circle comprises roughly the Central Provinces and the Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The Postmasters-General are responsible to the Director General for the whole of the postal arrangements in their respective circles, including those connected with the conveyance of mails by railways and inland steamers. All the Postmasters-General are provided with Deputy and Assistant Postmasters-General. The nine Postal Circles are divided into Divisions each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be and each Superintendent is assisted by a certain number of officials styled Inspectors.

Generally there is a head post office at the head quarters of each revenue district and other post offices in the same district are usually subordinate to the head Office for purposes of accounts. The Postmasters of the Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras General Post Offices and of the larger of the other head post offices are directly under the Postmaster General. The Presidency Postmasters indeed, have one or more Superintendents subordinate to

them. When the duties of the Postmaster or a head office become so onerous that he is unable to perform them fully himself a Deputy Postmaster is appointed to relieve him of some of them, and if still further relief is required, one or more Assistant Postmasters are employed. The more important of the offices subordinate to the head office are designated sub-offices and are usually established only in towns of some importance. Sub-offices transact all classes of postal business with the public, submit accounts to the head offices to which they are subordinate incorporating therein the accounts of their branch offices, and frequently have direct dealings with Government local sub-treasuries. The officer in charge of such an office works it either single-handed or with the assistance of one or more clerks according to the amount of business.

Branch offices are small offices with limited functions ordinarily intended for villages, and are placed in charge either of departmental officers on small pay or of extraneous agents, such as school-masters, shopkeepers, landholders or cultivators who perform their postal duties in return for a small remuneration.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, who is an officer of the Finance Department of the Government of India and is not subordinate to the Director-General. The Accountant-General is assisted by Deputy Accountants-General, all of whom, with the necessary staff of clerks, perform at separate headquarters the actual audit work of a certain number of postal circles.

In accordance with an arrangement which has been in force since 1883, a large number of sub-post offices and a few head offices perform telegraph work in addition to their postal work and are known by the name of combined offices. The policy is to increase telegraph facilities everywhere and especially in towns by opening a number of cheap telegraph offices working under the control of the Post Office.

The Inland Tariff (which is applicable to Ceylon and Portuguese India except as indicated below) is as follows —

	When the postage is prepaid	When the postage is wholly unpaid	When the postage is insufficiently prepaid.
<i>Letters</i>	<i>Anna.</i>		
Not exceeding two and a half tolas	1	Double the prepaid rate (chargeable on delivery)	Double the deficiency (chargeable on delivery)
Every additional two and a half tolas or part of that weight	1		
<i>Book and pattern packets</i>			
Every 5 tolas or part of that weight	1		

Post Office Tariffs.

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Postcards.

Single	1 anna.
Reply	1 "

(The postage on cards of private manufacture must be prepaid in full)

Parcels (prepayment compulsory)

(a) Parcels not exceeding 440 tolas in weight —

Not exceeding 20 tolas	Rs 2
Exceeding 20 tolas but not exceeding 40 tolas	0 2
For every additional 40 tolas or part of that weight	0 3
	3 annas

(b) Parcels exceeding 440 tolas in weight —

Exceeding 440 tolas but not exceeding 480 tolas

Rs 3 0

4 annas for every additional 40 tolas or fraction thereof up to 800 tolas

Registration is compulsory in the case of parcels weighing over 440 tolas

These rates are not applicable to parcels for Portuguese India

In the case of parcels for Ceylon a registration fee of 2 annas is chargeable on each parcel in addition to the rates shown above

Registration fee

Rs 2
For each letter, postcard, book or pattern packet, or parcel to be registered 0 2

Ordinary Money Order fees

On any sum not exceeding Rs 10 0 2

On any sum exceeding Rs 10 but not exceeding Rs 25 0 4

On any sum exceeding Rs 25 up to Rs 600 0 4

for each complete sum of Rs 25 and 4 annas for the remainder, provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs 10, the charge for it shall be only 2 annas

Telegraphic money order fees — The same as the fees for ordinary money orders plus a telegraph charge calculated at the rates for inland telegrams for the actual number of words used in the telegram advising the remittance, according as the telegram is to be sent as an 'Express' or as an 'Ordinary' message.

In the case of Ceylon the telegraph charge is calculated at the rates shown below —

Express — Rs. 2 for the first 12 words and 3 annas for each additional word

Ordinary — Rs. 1 for the first 12 words and 2 annas for each additional word. Telegraphic money orders cannot be sent to Portuguese India

Value-payable fees — These are calculated on the amount specified for remittance to the sender and are the same as the fees for ordinary money orders

Insurance fees — For every Rs 100 of insured value 2 annas

As regards Portuguese India see Foreign Tariff

Acknowledgment fee — For each registered article 1 anna.

The Foreign Tariff (which is not applicable to Ceylon or to Portuguese India except in res-

pect of insurance fees for parcels and parcels postage) is as follows —

Letters

To Great Britain and Northern Ireland and other British Possessions and Egypt, including the Sudan.

2 annas for the first ounce and 1 anna for each additional ounce or part of that weight.

To other countries, colonies or places.

3 annas for the first ounce and 1 anna for every additional ounce or part of that weight

Postcards, Single 1 anna.

" Reply 3 annas.

Printed Papers — 1 anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight

Business Papers — For a packet not exceeding 12 ounces in weight 2 annas

For every additional 2 ounces or part of that weight 1 anna

Samples — 1 anna for first 1 ounce and 1 anna per 2 ounces thereafter

Parcels

(1) Parcels not exceeding 20 lbs in weight and addressed to Great Britain and Northern Ireland are forwarded as mails to the British Post Office, the rates of postage applicable to such parcels being as follows. —

Via Over

Gibraltar land

For a parcel —

Rs a p Rs a p

Not over 3 lbs 1 5 0 1 13 0

Over 3 lbs, but not over 7 lbs 2 12 0 3 3 0

" 7 " 11 " 3 15 0 4 5 0

" 11 " 20 " 5 3 0 7 0 5

These parcels are delivered by the post office and the postage paid carries them to destination

(2) Parcels which exceed 11 lbs but which do not exceed 50 lbs (the maximum allowed) in weight are forwarded from India through the medium of the P & O S N Co and are delivered at destination under arrangements made by that Company. The postage charge applicable to such parcels is twelve annas for each pound or fraction of a pound. The parcels are delivered free of charge within a radius of one mile from the Company's Head Office in London, if addressed to any place beyond that radius, carrier charges are levied from the addressee on delivery. Parcels thus forwarded through the P & O S N Co cannot be insured during transit beyond India, but must, if they contain coin, etc be insured during transit in India. No acknowledgment of delivery can be obtained in respect of these parcels, nor can such parcels be transmitted to Great Britain and Northern Ireland under the value-payable system.

Limits of Weight.

Letters.—1 lbs. 6 oz

Printed Papers and Business Papers.—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, British Australasian Colonies, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, Togo (British), the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—5 lbs.

To Ceylon—No limit.

To all other destinations—4 lbs. 6 oz.

Samples.—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, Togo (British), the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—5 lbs.

To Ceylon—500 tolas.

To all other destinations—1 lb 2 oz

Parcels.—11 lbs. or 20 lbs

Limits of Size

Letters.—1½ feet length by 1½ feet in width or depth. If in form of roll, 2½ feet in length and 4 inches in diameter

Printed Papers and Business Papers.—To Ceylon—2 feet in length by 1 foot in width or depth.

To all other destinations—1½ feet in length by 1½ feet in width or depth.

If in form of roll, dimensions in all cases are 80 inches in length and 4 inches in diameter

Samples.—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, Ceylon, Hong kong, the Straits Settlements, the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—2 feet in length by 1 foot in width or depth.

To all other destination—1½ feet in length by 8 inches in width and 4 inches in depth.

If in form of roll, dimensions in all cases are 1½ feet in length and 6 inches in diameter

Money Orders.—To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in rupee currency, the rates of commission are the same as in the case of inland money orders.

To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in sterling, the rates are as follows:—

On any sum not exceeding £1	Rs 0 3
" , exceeding £1 but not exceeding £2	" 2 6
" £2	" 2 6
" £3	" 3 0

On any sum exceeding £3	Rs 4
but not exceeding £4 0 10	" 4 0 10
" " £4 " " £5	" 5 0 12
" " £5	" 5 0 12

for each complete sum of £5 and 12 annas for the remainder, provided that if the remainder does not exceed £1, the charge for it shall be 3 annas, if it does not exceed £2, the charge for it shall be 5 annas, if it does not exceed £3, the charge for it shall be 8 annas, and if it does not exceed £4, the charge for it shall be 10 annas.

Insurance fees (for registered letters and parcels only)

For insurance of letters and parcels to Mauritius, Iraq, British Somaliland, the Seychelles, and of parcels to Zanzibar and Portuguese India

Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 180 Annas 4½ |

For every additional Rs 180 or fraction thereof 4½ |

For insurance of letters and parcels to Great Britain and Northern Ireland and to British Possessions and Foreign countries (other than those mentioned above) to which insurance is available.

Where the value insured does not exceed £12 Annas 4½ |

For every additional £12 or fraction thereof 4½ |

Adm. solely sent fee.—8 annas for each registered article.

Magnitude of business in Post Office.—

At the close of 1929-30 there were 114,813 postal officials, 23,888 post offices, and 168,114 miles of mail lines. During the year, 1,392 million articles, including 56 million registered articles were posted stamps worth Rs. 66 millions were sold for postal purposes over 40½ million money orders of the total value of Rs. 941 millions were issued, a sum of Rs. 287 millions was collected from tradesmen and others on V P articles, over 56 million insured articles valued at 1,599 millions of rupees were handled Customs duty, aggregating over 84 million rupees was realised on parcels and letters from abroad, pensions amounting to Rs 158 millions were paid to Indian Military pensioners and 14,562 lbs. of quinine were sold to the public. On the 31st March 1930, there were 2,304,904 Savings Bank accounts with a total balance of Rs. 371 millions and 71,479 Postal Life Insurance policies with an aggregate assurance of Rs. 186½ millions.

TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT

Telegraphs.—Up to 1912 the telegraph system in India was administered as a separate department by an officer designated Director-General of Telegraphs who worked in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Commerce and Industry. In that year it was decided to vest the control of Posts and Telegraphs in a single officer as an experimental measure with a view to the eventual amalgamation of the two Departments.

In pursuance of this policy an experimental amalgamation of the two services was introduced in the Bombay and Central Circles from the 1st July 1912. The fundamental principle of this scheme which followed closely the system in force in the United Kingdom and several other European countries was that the traffic and engineering work of the Telegraph Department should be separated, the former branch of work in each Circle being transferred to the

Postmaster-General assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable number of attached officers and the engineering branch being controlled by a Director of Telegraphs in charge of the two Circles. Subordinate to this officer there were several Divisional Superintendents who were assisted by a number of attached officers.

In 1914 the complete amalgamation of the two Departments was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and introduced from 1st April. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the engineering side of a Chief Engineer Telegraphs, with one Dy Chief Engineer. For traffic work there is a Deputy Director-General, with an Assistant and an Assistant Director General. On the 27th March 1920 a Controller of Telegraph Traffic was appointed to assist the Deputy Director-General in the inspection of offices and in controlling telegraph traffic in the Circles the scheme which has been introduced follows closely on the lines of the experimental ones referred to above. For telegraph engineering purposes India was divided up into five Circles, each in charge of a Director. For Burma special arrangements were considered necessary and the engineering work is in charge of the Postmaster General who is a Telegraph officer specially selected for the purpose. These six Circles were divided into twenty one Divisions each of which is in charge of a Divisional Engineer. On the 1st July 1922 Sind and Baluchistan circle was formed with its headquarters at Karachi. This circle is in charge of a Director of Posts and Telegraphs. On the 31st March 1924 there were 7 Circles and 20 Divisions. With a view to complete fusion of the three branches of work on the lines of the Burma Circle the engineering work of the Bombay and Central Circles was brought under the control of the respective Postmaster General in 1924 and this unification proved an unqualified success and was gradually extended to other circles. The fusion was completed in March 1930.

The telegraph traffic work is under the control of the Postmaster-General, each of whom is assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable staff of attached officers.

The audit work of the Telegraph Department is, like that of the Post Office, entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs assisted by a staff of Deputy and Assistant Accountants-General.

Inland Telegrams and Tariff—Telegrams sent to or received from places in India or Ceylon are classed as Inland telegrams. The tariff for inland telegrams is as follows—

	For delivery in India		For delivery in Ceylon	
	Private and State		Private and State	
	Ex- press.	Ordinary	Ex- press	Ordinary
	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a	Rs. a
Minimum charge	1 8	0 12	2 0	1 0
Each additional word over 12	0 2	0 1	0 3	0 2

The address is charged for

Additional charges.	
Minimum for reply-paid telegram	Minimum charge for an ordinary telegram.
Notification of delivery	Minimum charge for a telegram of the class (ordinary or Express) prescribed by the sender
Multiple telegrams, or less	each 100 words 4 annas.
Collation	One half of the charge for an ordinary telegram of same length
	Rs.
	{ If both the offices of origin and destination are closed 2
	{ If only one of the offices is closed 1
For acceptance of an Express telegram during the hours when an office is closed	{ If the telegram has to pass through any closed intermediate office an additional fee in respect of each such office 1
Signalling by flag or semaphore to or from ships—per telegram	{ The usual inland charge plus a fixed fee of 8 annas.
Boat hire	Amount actually necessary
Copies of telegrams, words or less	each 100 words 4 annas.
Press telegrams	For delivery in India For delivery in Ceylon.
	Ex. press. Ordinary Ex. press.
	Rs. a. Rs. a. Rs. a.
Minimum charge	1 0 8 1 0
Each additional word over 48 in respect of India, each additional four words over 32 in respect of Ceylon	0 2 0 1 0 2
The address is free	

Foreign Tariff—The charges for foreign telegrams vary with the countries to which they are addressed. The rates per word for private and state telegrams to countries in Europe are as follows—

	Ordinary	Deferred	State (British Govt)
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
All countries in Europe (except France)	3 0	1 0	0 8
via Eastern	3 0	1 0	0 8
Great Britain and Northern Ireland via I.R.T.	—	0 12	0 6
Most other countries in Europe via I.R.T.	—	1 0	0 8

Radio-Telegrams.—For radio-telegrams addressed to ships at sea from offices in India or Burma and transmitted via the coast stations at Bombay, Calcutta, Karachi, Madras, Port Blair or Rangoon the charge is ten annas per word in nearly all cases.

The following are the charges excluding supplementary charges for radio-telegrams from Offices in India or Burma transmitted to ships at sea from the coast stations mentioned in the preceding paragraph—

	Total charge per word
	Rs. a.
(1) All Government or Private Radio-telegrams, excepting those mentioned in (2) to (4) below	0 10
(2) British, Indian or Colonial Government Radio-telegrams to His Britannic Majesty's Ships of War or Royal Indian Marine Ships	0 6
(3) Private Radio-telegrams to His Britannic Majesty's Ships of War	0 6
(4) Radio telegrams to Spanish or Swedish ships	0 9

The sender of a radio-telegram may prepay a reply. He must insert before the address, the instruction R P followed by mention in Rupees and annas of the amount prepaid e.g. R.P. 7-8 This expression counts as one word.

DAILY LETTER-TELEGRAMS

Daily Letter-Telegrams in plain language, which are dealt with telegraphically through out are accepted on any day of the week excluding Sundays and telegraph holidays, and are ordinarily delivered to the addressee after forty-eight hours. They are subject to the conditions prescribed for Deferred Foreign Telegrams with certain exceptions as stated below.

The charge for a Daily Letter-Telegram is ordinarily a quarter of the charge for a full rate telegram of the same length and by the same route subject to a minimum charge equal to the charge for 20 words at such reduced rate including the indication DLT.

The late fee system does not apply to Daily Letter-Telegrams and such telegrams are not accepted during the closed hours of an office.

On Indian lines Daily Letter-Telegrams are transmitted after Deferred Foreign telegrams.

In the Daily Letter-Telegram service the special instructions relating to prepayment of replies are admitted other special services are inadmissible in DLT Telegrams.

Packed messages, i.e., messages intended to be communicated to different persons are not accepted in the text of Daily Letter-Telegrams.

The charge for a week-end letter telegram to Great Britain and Northern Ireland is 3 annas a word via Eastern and 2½ annas a word via I.R.T. subject to a minimum charge for 20 words per telegram including the indication WLT.

TELEGRAPHS

ABBREVIATED LIST OF RATES "via I R T"

	Ordry	Defd.	D L T	
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	
Europe—				
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	0 12	0 6	0 3	
Irish Free State	0 13	0 6½	0 3½	
Belgium	0 13	0 6½	0 4½	
Holland, France	0 14	0 7	0 4½	
Germany	0 15	0 7½	0 4½	
Switzerland	0 15	0 7½	0 5	
Italy Norway	0 15	0 7½	0 5½	
Spain	0 15	0 7½		
Other Countries in Europe	1 0	0 8½		
South Africa—				
Union of South Africa and S W Africa	1 7	0 11½	0 6	
America—				
Ontario Quebec, Nova Scotia, etc.	1 4	0 10	0 5½	
Manitoba	1 9	0 12½	0 6½	
Vancouver B.C.	1 10	0 13	0 7	
New York, Boston etc.	1 4	0 10	0 5½	
Philadelphia, Washington etc.	1 8	0 11	0 6	
Chicago	1 8	0 12	0 6	
San Francisco Seattle etc.	1 10	0 13	0 7	
Buenos Aires—via I.R.T.				
London Marconi	2 7	1 3½		
Rio de Janeiro—via I.R.T.				
T London Marconi	2 5	1 2½		
Valparaiso—via I.R.T.				
London Marconi	2 7	1 3½		
Havana via I.R.T.	1 12	0 14		
Jamaica—via I.R.T.	2 7	1 3½		

Week-end Letter Telegrams accepted on Saturday or any previous day of the week for delivery on the following Monday—2½ annas per word for Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Daily and Week-end Letter Telegrams—Minimum charge for 20 words.

Ordinary rate telegrams may be written in code.

Telegrams are accepted at all Government Telegraph Offices.

Equal rules apply regarding Registration Reply Paid etc.

Full lists published in Posts and Telegraphs Guide.

Growth of Telegraphs.—At the end of 1897-98 there were 50,305 miles of line and 155,088 miles of wire and cable, as compared with 104,812 miles of line including cable and 558,415 miles of wire including conductors respectively, on the 31st March 1930. The numbers of departmental telegraph offices were 257 and 125 (including 17 Radio offices),

respectively while the number of telegraph offices worked by the Post Office rose from 1,684 to 4,221.

The increase in the number of paid telegrams dealt with is shown by the following figures —

		1927-28.	1929-30
Inland	{ Private	4,107,270	14,088,800
	{ State	860,832	1,121,028
	{ Press	35,910	505,450
Foreign	{ Private	735,879	3,068,267
	{ State	5,966	24,527
	{ Press	5,276	78,549
		5,754,416	19,476,184

The outturn of the workshops during 1929-30 represented a total value of Rs 21 44 577.

Wireless.—The total number of Departmental wireless stations open at the end of 1929-30 was twenty-six viz., Allahabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Diamond Island, Jodhpur, Julegh Karachi, (two stations), Lahore, Madras (5 stations), Mhow, Nagpur, Panhwar, Poona, Port Blair, Quetta, Rangoon (3 stations), Sand heads (two pilot-vessels), Secunderbad, and Victoria Point of which only Port Blair and Victoria Point booked telegrams direct from the public.

The Duplex high-speed service between Rangoon and Madras continued to work satisfactorily, the wheat stone system being employed generally for this circuit. Communication with the Imperial Air Mail Aeroplanes is maintained during flight by Karachi Radio between Karachi and Jask.

Telephones.—On the 31st March 1930 the number of telephone exchanges established by the Department was 291 with 18,786 straight line connections and 3,024 extension telephones. Of these exchanges, 156 were worked departmentally. The number of telephone exchanges established by Telephone Companies was 23 with 35,001 connections.

The total staff employed on telegraphs, telephones and wireless on the 31st March 1930 was 14,459.

Posts and Telegraphs.—The capital outlay of the Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department during and to the end of the year ended 31st March 1930 was Rs 45,74,789 and Rs 14,54,86,090 respectively. The receipts for the year ended 31st March 1930 amounted to Rs 11,29,49,833 and charges (including interest on capital outlay) to Rs 11,91,94,164 the result being a net loss Rs 62,44,581.

Sanitation.

The history of the sanitary departments in India goes back for about fifty years. During that period great improvements have been effected in the sanitary condition of the towns, though much remains to be done but the progress of rural sanitation which involves the health of the great bulk of the population has been slow, and incommensurate with the thought and labour bestowed on the subject. The reason lies in the apathy of the people and the tenacity with which they cling to domestic customs injurious to health. While the inhabitants of the plains of India are on the whole distinguished for personal cleanliness, the sense of public cleanliness has ever been wanting. Great improvements have been effected in many places but the village house is still often ill ventilated and ever polluted the village site dirty, crowded with cattle, choked with rank vegetation and poisoned by stagnant pools and the village tanks polluted, and used indiscriminately for bathing, cooking and drinking. That the way to improvement lies through the education of the people has always been recognised.

Of recent years the pace has been speeded up as education progressed, education developed, and funds were available. In a resolution issued in May 23rd, 1914 the Government of India summarised the position at that time, and laid down the general lines of advance. This resolution (*Gazette of India May 23rd 1914*) should be studied by all who wish to understand the attitude of the Government of India towards sanitation prior to the passing of the Reform Act of 1919. It will be found summarised in the Indian Year Book of 1922 (page 476 & seq.) and earlier editions. One of the greatest changes effected by the Reform Act of 1919 was the transfer of sanitation to the

provinces making it a subject directly responsible to local control through Ministers. It is yet too early to attempt to indicate the effects of this change.

The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India in a general review of health organisation in British India which he laid in January 1928, before the Interchange Study Tour organised for Medical Officers of Health from the Far Eastern Countries by the Health Organisation of the League of Nations, concluded that the State effort in regard to Health Organisation in British India is one of no mean importance that it has evolved over a couple of centuries during which many mistakes in policy must be admitted that it has provided the Officers and the stimulus necessary for having the foundations of medical education, that it has tried to uphold the ethical standards of western medicine and that in which ever way it is regarded it is an effort of which no Government need be ashamed. He quoted the remark of the Government of India in their Resolution of 1914 that "In the land of the ox cart one must not expect the pace of the motor car."

The Public Health Commissioner in his annual report for the year 1925 noted the introduction of the political element into health matters as a result of the Reforms and said that the improvements being introduced before the Reforms were in some provinces now in a fair way to maturing but that in other provinces with less appreciation of the actual needs so far from adding to the organisation as they have found it have shown a desire to scrap even some of what they originally possessed. But, he says "though the picture is neither bright nor the future rosy, it is becoming increasingly evident that a considerable section of the Indian

community is thinking seriously on these public health problems—amid much futile and destructive criticisms of State and municipal efforts here and there valuable and suggestive criticism can be met with which goes to prove my contention.

India's birth rate in 1925 was nearly twice that of England and Wales, her death rate was twice that of England and Wales and nearly three times that of New Zealand and her infantile mortality rate was nearly 2½ times that of England and Wales and nearly 4½ times that of New Zealand. The information furnished for the great group of infectious diseases of world import, i.e., plague, cholera, small-pox, yellow fever, typhus, malaria, and dysentery shows (says the Public Health Report already cited) that if we except typhus and yellow fever, India is one of the world's reservoirs of infection for the others and the main reservoir of infection for plague and cholera. The significance of these facts must, adds the Commissioner be obvious to all who think. Briefly their implication is that India a house, from the public health point of view, is sadly out of order and that this disorder requires to be attended to. It is not for India to say that so far as she is concerned prevention is impossible. If we think of the effect of sunlight on tubercle bacilli, of the effect of feeding on rickets, scurvy and beri beri of the way in which malaria, cholera, yellow fever, dengue, ankylosis, and filariasis can be and have been overcome we need have no fear in regard to India provided the necessary measures are put into operation.

The Public Health Commissioner in an address before the annual congress of the Far Eastern Association of Tropical Medicine, held in Calcutta in December, 1927, urged the importance of instituting a Central Ministry of Health which should be charged with the functions of co-ordinating the policies and activities of the departments concerned in the several provinces and with keeping them abreast of scientific progress. There is at present no public health Act for the whole of India, nor under existing administrative arrangements is one immediately possible, but the desirability of the Central Ministry of Health and of such an Act

is likely to be urged in the course of the revision of the Constitutional Reforms now in progress.

The Commissioner in his annual report to Government for 1927 gives at the outset the following text for thought: "Whether the institution of a Ministry of Health, which many of us think is long overdue for the Indian Empire, would accelerate progress of a matter of opinion, but there can be little doubt that such progress must depend not on a haphazard programme or on the fulfilment of an annual routine of measures sanctified by tradition but rather on the acceptance of such cardinal principles as have been laid down by the Chief Medical Officer of the British Ministry of Health in his 1927 report and by a genuine attempt to work to these. Sir George Newman points out that 'Nothing is more certain than the fact that the physical advancement and health of mankind is dependant not upon a doctor's stunt here or a sanitary institution there but upon the whole social evolution of the people. Now, these desired ends are not reached merely by enjoining them, still less by leaving things to chance, drift or fate. They can in any case only be partly reached at all without foresight, organisation and expenditure. He proceeds to inculcate four basic principles which it is necessary for any modern State to work to and which are as follows:

- (a) ascertainment and accurate registration of the data obtainable,
- (b) the establishing of a definite standard to work to which should be based on health and physiology and not on disease or pestilence,
- (c) the study of the character and incidence of disease, its causes and predisposing conditions, its mode of spread, its social factors which increase or reduce it and the means of its treatment and prevention,
- (d) the establishment of a national organisation by the assent of public opinion, such organisation being an index of the aspirations and enlightenment of the people.

It is for consideration how far we in India are now working to these basic principles or are likely to in the future and whether our existing public health organisation is best suited to enable us to do this."

The following table of vital statistics is taken from the Public Health Commissioner's latest annual report—

Province	Birth Rates (per mille).		Death Rates (per mille).	
	1928	Previous 5 years	1928	Previous 5 years
Delhi	48.31	41.52	29.21	34.86
Bengal	30.06	28.08	25.06	25.03
Bihar and Orissa	83.03	86.06	25.03	35.07
Assam	31.24	30.01	23.16	23.97
United Provinces	38.24	34.88	24.15	24.83
Punjab	46.03	41.04	24.72	33.66
N. W. Frontier Province	32.05	28.02	19.31	23.67
Central Provinces and Berar	46.51	45.06	33.66	31.21
Madras	37.04	34.08	26.04	23.05
Coorg	17.94	21.52	31.21	33.31
Bombay	39.17	35.95	37.38	26.29
Burma	25.66	26.99	21.23	20.33
Ajmer-Merwara	38.22	33.18	25.90	26.33
British India	36.76	34.64	25.59	25.97

Birth & Death Rates.

615

Chief Causes of Mortality—There are three main classes of fatal diseases specific fevers, diseases affecting the abdominal organs, and lung diseases, intestinal and skin parasites, typhoid and other indications of scurvy widely prevail. The table below shows the number of deaths from each of the principal diseases and from all other causes in British India and death rates per 1 000 during 1928 —

Province.	Cholera.	Small pox.	Plague.	Fevers	Dysentery and Diarrhoea.	Respiratory Diseases	All other causes
Delhi {	3-06	514, 1 02	6 01	6,544 13 07	406 81	4,415 8 82	2,706 5 40
Bengal Presi- dency {	36 245 2 9	43,558 9	6 000 01	752 303 16 1	33,419 7	42 242 9	181,542 3 9
Bihar and Orissa {	77,103 2 2	13,567 4	7,627 2	564 979 16 6	17 429 5	6 284 2	173,194 5 0
Assam {	6 915 1 01	8,461 1 28		89,235	8 501 1 24	5 615	33,110 4 64
U Provinces of Agra and Oudh {	44 941 99	3,012 07	80 943 1 78	765 954 16 88	13,212 29	34 300 73	163,374 3 38
Punjab {	2,034 10	8,754 43	8 252 40	316 235 15 41	10 503 51	52 639 2 57	108 777 5 31
N W F P {	2	572 27		33 159 15 02	206 10	1,770 83	5 536 2 59
O P & Benar. {	12,198 89	1 399 10	3 770 27	259 109 16 02	27 787 1 99	37 576 2 70	126 482 9 10
Madras Presi- dency {	57 677 1 4	7 618 2	2 108 06	344 683 8 4	76,886 1 9	90 012 2 2	501,812 12 3
Coorg {		72 44	7 04	4 167 25 37	158 96	360 2 2	366 2 24
B o m b a y Presidency {	6,881 36	5,285 27	13 563 71	206 336 19 77	23 371 1 22	97,425 5 08	170,021 6 87
Burma {	7 209 87	2,823 26	4 933 46	76 815 7 10	9,861 86	12,242 1 13	116 937 10 80
Ajmer Mer- wara {	68 14	496 1 00	6 02	9 702 19 6	133 28	418 84	2,003 4 04
British India {	304,710 1 26	118 197 49	43,801 18	3,451 454 14 22	222,237 92	353,518 1 46	1,515 812 6 28
1927 {	301,305	96,123	121,242	3,428 961	221,332	385,301	1,575,860
1928 {	1 45	40	50	14 20	92	1 80	6 53

The Public Health Commissioner in his annual review shows that the outstanding data concerning public health in the year 1928 are briefly as follows —

(1) The birth rate rose from 35 27 in 1927 to 36 78 in 1928

(2) The death rate rose from 24 89 in 1927 to 25 59 in 1928

(3) The infantile death rate rose from 167 in 1927 to 172 94 in 1928

The death rates of other countries in 1928 were England and Wales 70 Canada (ex Quebec) 102 U.S.A. 78 Japan (1923) 186.

Births in British India numbered 8,882,572, or 366,767 more than in 1927, the birth rate being 36 78 against 35 27 in 1927 and 34 64, the given quinquennial mean.

The proportion of males to every 100 females born was 108, the same as the quinquennial average. All provinces except Coorg recorded increases in birth rates compared with the preceding year, the most conspicuous being Delhi (7.78), Punjab (4), N. W. P. (3.2), Ajmer Merwara (3.89), Bengal (1.9), United Provinces (1.58). Coorg recorded a decrease of 1.23. The quinquennial average was exceeded in all provinces except in Coorg and Burma. In Bombay the recorded birth rate was the highest since 1901. The birth rate of Lyallpur, Punjab was 54.7. Birth rates exceeded death rates in all the provinces except Coorg where the death rate was in excess by 18.27. The following provinces showed the largest increased ratios of births over deaths—Punjab (21.58), Delhi (19.10), United Provinces (14.69), N. W. P. (13.9), Bihar and Orissa (13.0), Madras (11.0) and Bombay (10.89).

Deaths numbered 6,180,114 as compared with 6,009,729 in the preceding year—an increase of 170,385. Registered births exceeded deaths by 2,702,459 against 3,508,977 in 1927 and, Coorg excepted, all the provinces contributed to the increase.

The death rate was 25.59 as against 24.89 in 1927, and a quinquennial mean of 25.37. The rates varied between 19.31 per mille (the lowest) in the North West Frontier Province and 33.66 per mille (the highest) in the Central Provinces.

A total of 1,536,186 deaths or 26 per cent of the total mortality occurred during the first year of life, against 1,421,726, or 24 per cent in 1927. (In England and Wales the corresponding figures for 1927 and 1928 were 9.5 and 9.3 respectively.) Apart from the ameliorating influences of maternity and child welfare work the insufficiency of a pure milk supply and the high prices of milk generally have helped to keep infantile mortality in India at the present high level of 178 per 1,000 births. During 1928 it varied between 287 (the highest) in Coorg, 238 in the Central Provinces, 210 in Burma, 178 in the North West Frontier Provinces, and 132 in Bihar and Orissa (the lowest).

Throughout India 53 out of every 1,000 infants born alive failed to survive the first week of life and about one-half of the infant mortality under one year occurred during the first month, the other half occurring during the rest of the first year.

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY

British.—The average strength of British Troops, R.N. and R.A.F. on the strength in India during 1928 was 56,327 as compared with 58,008 in 1927. There were also on the strength 3,781 women and 6,100 children. The statistics of sickness also take account of pensioners and others not on the strength. The following table shows the main facts as regards ill health—

	Average Strength.	Admissions to Hospital		Deaths.		Invalids sent Home.		Invalids Discharged from the service		Average Constantly sick	
		No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000	No.	Ratio per 1,000
Officers	2,421	1,834	551.0	10	4.18	47	19.41			50	13.20
Other Ranks	56,327	33,034	586.5	166	2.95	556	9.87			1,635,99	29.04
Women	3,785	1,168	307.6	17	4.50	53	14.02			41	26.10
Women Parturition		800								31	73
Children	6,100	1,884	300.7	100	16.39	10	1.64			66	48.10
Others		1,847		23				22		68	63

The health statistics of Officers and other ranks for the quinquennial periods 1910-14, 1915-19 and 1920-24 are given, with those for 1925, 1926, 1927 and 1928 separately for purposes of comparison —

	Admissions.		Invalids.		Deaths.	
	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
1910-14	567 5	567 2	16 30	7 03	5 14	4 36
1915 19	1,053 0	881 7	60 08	29 91	10 64	8 81
1920 24	678 7	791 9	20 09	13 91	6 71	5 24
1925	607 5	623 6	14 02	17 36	5 15	2 80
1926	675 2	649 6	19 81	16 02	6 22	3 01
1927	609 2	623 1	15 70	14 90	3 68	2 68
1928	551 0	586 5	19 41	9 87	4 13	2 95

The principal causes of invaliding to the United Kingdom were —

Inflammation of middle ear	66
Mental diseases	47
Deformities of the feet	43
Pulmonary and other tuberculoæ	51
Valvular disease of the heart	18
Disordered action of the heart	20
Epilepsy	29
Neurasthenia	19
Malaria	4

The average number constantly in hospital was 1,635 49 or 29 04 per 1000 of the strength compared with 29 74 in 1927, 31 86 in 1926 and

29 68 in 1913

Men numbering 74,363 or 1 320 2 per mille of the strength, were treated as out-patients, with an average daily number under treatment of 1,010 13 or 7 93 per 1 000

The combined ratio constantly sick in hospital and under treatment as out-patients was 46 97 per 1000 of the strength, compared with 48 53 in 1927 and 51 12 in 1926

The actual loss to the army in Indian working days was approximately 600,000 due to sick in hospital and 370 000 due to sick in barracks making a total of 970 000 days

Indian — The following table shows the main health statistics of officers and Indian ranks for the quinquennial periods 1915-19 and 1920-24 and those for 1925, 1926, 1927 and 1928 —

Period	ADMISSIONS		INVALIDS		DEATHS	
	Officers	Other Ranks	Officers sent Home	Other Ranks Discharged	Officers	Other Ranks
1915-19	882 4	788 2	00	23 6*	8 29	16 81
1920-24	898 3	593 2	3 60	18 25*	6 67	8 01
1925	480 1	338 8	5 70	12 5*	5 23	4 01
1926	607 7	388 6	4 49	11 0*	4 06	3 75
1927	546 7	363 0	6 35	10 5	4 89	3 38
1928	573 1	371 5	5 79	9 5	4 34	2 84

* Figures not available

The number admitted to hospital was 48,789 or 371.5 per 1000 of the strength, compared with 282 in 1927, 286.6 in 1926 and 281.7 in 1918. The decrease in the admission rate over 1926 was mainly due to improved treatment of Malaria and resulting diminution in relapses.

The average number constantly sick was in hospital 2,034.86, or 15.51 per 1000 of the strength, compared with 15.01 in 1927 and 21.4 in 1918. The figure 15.02 is the lowest recorded for the Indian Army. The average sick time to each soldier was 5.66 days and the average duration of each case 15.23 days. The number of men treated as out-patients was 180,191 or 992.4 per 1000 of strength. The number constantly sick in hospital and under treatment as out-patients was in the ratio of 27.84 per 1000 of strength, compared with 27.60 in 1927 and 33.35 in 1924.

The main causes of deaths were —

Pneumonia (lobar and lobular)	147
Local injuries	39

Genital "	8
Infanctus	6
Malaria	14
Circulatory Diseases	13
Pulmonary Tuberculosis	6
Dysentery	6
Buteic Group of fevers	27
Appendicitis	7

The principal causes of invaliding were —

Pulmonary tuberculosis	845
Injuries	123
Diseases of ear and nose	120
" the eye	72
Organs of Locomotion	73
Other respiratory diseases	65
Diseases of the nervous system	78
Circulatory diseases	48
Malaria	22
Mental diseases	20
Diseases of Lymph system	8
Venereal Diseases	18
Hernia	12

LEPROSY IN INDIA

It is exceedingly difficult to give anything approaching an accurate estimate of the total number of lepers in the Indian Empire to-day. In 1921 when the last Census was made leprosy was regarded as an *extremely* like blindness, insanity and deaf-mutism and the supposed number of lepers was tabulated along with these. The number counted was 102,513 as against 109,064 in 1911. But it is doubtful if this figure represents anything more than the more advanced cases and possibly a majority of this number are the begging and pauper lepers who are seen all over the country. Dr E. Muir M.D. F.R.C.S. the Leprosy Research Worker at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, says that "recent figures obtained from a carefully conducted but limited survey tend to confirm the computation that there are roughly from a half to one million people in India suffering from leprosy."

Early in the year 1924, the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association was constituted in England with H. R. H. The Prince of Wales as Patron, the Viscount Chelmsford as Chairman of the General Committee and H. E. the Viceroy of India as one of the Vice-Presidents. Following its formation and in view of the good results being obtained from the newest treatment of leprosy, H. E. the Viceroy felt that the time was auspicious for the inauguration and carrying on of an earnest campaign with the object of ultimately stamping out leprosy from India.

His Excellency invited certain gentlemen representing various interests to form an Indian Council of the Association, which he formally inaugurated at a public meeting in Delhi on the 27th January 1925.

A general appeal for funds in aid of the Association was issued by His Excellency the Viceroy on the date of the inauguration of the Indian Council which was closed after a year with realisations amounting to over Rs. 20,00,000 which was invested in the end of 1925. The investments amounted to Rs. 20,68,000 yielding an annual revenue of over Rs. 1,22,000.

In the scheme of anti-leprosy campaign which the Association has put into operation, the respective parts to be played by the Central and Provincial Committees in carrying forward the aims and objects of the Association are definitely apportioned. The Central Committee is vested with the task of promoting research, of preparing and publishing propaganda material, arranging for the training of doctors in the diagnosis and treatment of leprosy according to the latest methods and of conducting an expert survey of selected areas for the ascertainment of the facts regarding the incidence and endemicity of leprosy. Measures for the accommodation and treatment of leprosy patients and other schemes of purely local interest are to be the concern of provincial committees as agents of the Indian Council in the Provinces.

The policy and principles of the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association, Indian Council, with regard to provincial committees are expressed in its Memorandum on the method of conducting the anti-leprosy campaign in India which was published in 1926. This document sought to bring out the following main points which according to the latest scientific researches should be the basis upon which all efforts ultimately to eradicate leprosy must rest —

(1) Pauper lepers form only a small fraction of the leper population, and the disease is common among all classes of the community.

(2) Segregation is not the most appropriate method of dealing with lepers, for

(a) financially it would be impossible,

(b) any attempt to impose forcible segregation would drive patients, particularly those who are suffering from the earlier stages of the disease, to conceal their misfortune, and, as has been the case where such means have been adopted, only the more advanced and obvious lepers would be segregated.

(3) The majority of the advanced cases are not highly infectious and are less amenable to treatment, while the early cases in which the disease has made but little outward manifestation, can be controlled by treatment.

(4) The strongest hope of stamping out the disease lies in providing facilities for the treatment of early cases.

The Indian Council therefore, while it did not desire to minimise the usefulness of homes and asylums for the care of lepers, strongly recommended that the efforts of the Provincial Committees should, for the present at least, be concentrated upon the establishment of dispensaries to serve the following objects —

- (a) to induce patients to come forward at an early stage in the hope of recovery instead of hiding their malady till it becomes more advanced, more infectious and less remediable and so
- (b) to shut off the sources of infection as the number of infectious cases will consequently tend to diminish and the opportunities for infecting the next generation will become fewer

The report of the Association for 1929 shows that the Central Committee spent, during the last five years, Rs. 77,325 on the promotion of medical research, under Dr E. Muir M.D. F.R.C.S., at the School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, Calcutta, Rs. 43,479 on the training of doctors in the diagnosis and special treatment of leprosy, Rs. 41,643 on propaganda, Rs. 46,478 on Survey, and distributed Rs. 240,232 to the Provincial Branches. Special emphasis is laid on the importance of survey. There are

four different aspects of the survey, which are all of great importance. In the first place there is the survey proper. In 1929, Dr Muir made a short survey of certain endemic areas in the Central Provinces and the Bombay Presidency, and the important data which he then collected impressed upon the Central Committee the necessity of conducting surveys of selected areas throughout India, in order that the true position of the country in regard to the various important factors of the disease may be understood, and the campaign be directed in the light of the experience thus gained. The Committee is of opinion that the survey is playing and will play an important part in helping the problem of leprosy to be studied in its true perspective. In the second place the survey party is training more doctors on the spot. Thirdly, comes the establishment of clinics in the provinces where the knowledge gained by the doctors trained, whether at Calcutta or elsewhere, can be put to practical use. Finally, it is impossible to over estimate the value of this part of the campaign in stimulating interest among the authorities concerned, as well as among the public, in the work as a whole, and in demonstrating the great potentialities of the campaign. The results which are being obtained are of a nature which will ultimately benefit all the Branches.

His Excellency the Viceroy is the President of the Indian Council, the Hon. Sir Henry Moncreiff Smith, Kt., C.B., L.C.S., the Chairman of the Executive Committee, Sardar Bahadur Balwant Singh Puri, the Honorary Secretary and Mr W. J. Lister, C.B., O.B.E., the Honorary Treasurer.

BLINDNESS IN INDIA

All over the East, and in fact in most tropical and sub-tropical countries, blindness is very prevalent and only of recent years have people begun to realise that much of this blindness can be relieved, and still more of it, if not most of it, could, with proper measures taken, be prevented. In Egypt, renowned for its sufferings from blindness, it was a gift of some £43,000 made by Sir Ernest Cassel at the beginning of this century that was the initiation of that fine ophthalmic service, which began under the guidance of Mr MacCallan, has now spread all over the country and gives medical treatment to three or four hundred thousand patients a year. Northern Africa, Turkey, Persia, India and China are all countries where there is a very high incidence of blindness and suffering from eye disease, and where western medicine has not yet penetrated sufficiently deeply to make much impression on the mainly rural and illiterate populations. There is a great trachoma belt, extending from China into Eastern Europe, stopped only from spreading all over the West by the higher standard of living, sanitation and cleanliness which the European nations have attained.

India is in this great Blindness Belt. According to the last census returns there are 480,000 totally blind persons in this population of more than 300 millions. That is an incidence of

14 totally blind to every thousand of the population. But the census figures are notoriously defective, and in several districts a special count has been made of the totally blind, and wherever this has been done, the census figures have been found to be much too low. Thus in the Naalk district an incidence of at least 4.38 per thousand was found as against the census figure of 1.74. In Bhatnagar an incidence of 1.5 was found as against the census figure of 0.7, in Bijapur 2.6 as against 0.7, in the United Provinces a Deputy Commissioner had a count made and found no less than 9 per thousand. In Palampur 7 per thousand was found. If, as is not unlikely, this sort of error of under-estimation in the census report is general, then it is not unreasonable to suppose that the real number of totally blind persons in India is more like 14 millions than the half million shown in the census returns.

These are the figures for total blindness and they by no means give the full picture, for they include only totally blind of both eyes and say nothing of the much greater number who, from neglected eye diseases, are partially or even nearly blind, and whose happiness and efficiency are thus greatly impaired. The term "blindness" has a different interpretation in every country. In a report on the Prevention of Blindness, published by the League

of Red Cross Societies these different interpretations are shown. In the United States blindness is defined as inability to see well enough to read even with the aid of glasses or for illiterates, inability to distinguish forms and objects with sufficient distinctness and in Egypt a person is accounted blind who cannot see fingers at a distance of one metre. If such persons were counted in our statistics of total blindness in India there is little doubt that the figure would be very much larger than those indicated above. Recently the All-India Blind Relief Association has made an analysis of a very large number of patients attending its camps and dispensaries and has found that among these patients for every totally blind person there are three with more or less damaged vision, the result of eye disease. It appears not unlikely that the true ophthalmic condition of India would be represented by figures showing one and a half million totally blind persons, and in addition to these four and a half million with more or less impaired eyesight.

No one says Col E. H. Elliot late of the Madras Ophthalmic Hospital writing in the British Journal of Ophthalmology of May 1919

who has not worked in India can form any conception of the enormous amount of preventable and curable blindness which is laying its shadow over the health, happiness and usefulness of this great portion of our Empire and the same writer in another place has said—

It is difficult for anyone who has not had first hand experience of medical practice in the East to realise the state of things out there. granular ophthalmia claims its victims by the ten thousand whereas it is really a disease which, when properly treated at an early stage, should not cause the loss of a single eye. The neglect of patients suffering from small-pox and other febrile conditions leads to a vast amount of blindness, while the treatment of mild ocular affections by irritant drugs is probably one of the most evil factors that spread blindness broadcast throughout the land. Large numbers of men and women suffering from glaucoma from cataract and from other curable diseases are allowed to hide in their villages like wounded animals waiting only their release by death. This is not an overdrawn picture. It is a statement of cold, hard, cruel facts, well known to everyone who has practised or is practising medicine in the East.

In an editorial on the Ophthalmic work in Egypt and the possibilities of similar work in India, the *Indian Medical Gazette* (March 1923) remarks,— It would seem worth while for the Government of India to examine the working of this splendid organisation for in spite of the fact that workers in India have always been in the front in advances in ophthalmology there has been little organised work in ophthalmic research except in Madras, even there the work has been done by men who have already a large amount of routine work to perform. India as a whole owes its position in the ophthalmic world entirely to the energies of individual enthusiasts whose names are so well known that it is not necessary to mention them. What has been possible in Egypt should also be possible in India and it would appear that the first step should be the establishment of Schools of Ophthalmology, in places like Madras and Calcutta where ample facilities exist. At

these schools advanced teaching and research in ophthalmology would be carried out, and the next step would be to organise a system of ophthalmic relief at selected centres all over India. (There are now schools of ophthalmology at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and Lahore).

Again in an editorial from the same journal (Sept 1929) the following statements are made—

What is wanted is some large organisation covering the whole of this sub-continent and aiming chiefly at Prevention rather than treatment. In brief what the position now calls for is an all India movement.

Obviously the main question is one of general public health. Public health is a transferred department, but if the Health Department of the Government of India interests itself in the matter in co-operation with missionary and voluntary movements we do not despair of seeing an all India organisation created and built up.

Associations known as "Blind Relief" Associations have been working for several years in Western India in conjunction with Government hospitals, to alleviate this affliction of blindness. The number of eye doctors in India is notoriously small and those there are stay mostly in the large towns. The Associations work by means of travelling hospitals which bring relief to the villages in the rural areas. They also work by means of trained village workers, whose duty it is to find out the hidden blind and get them to the medical centre for relief to find out cases of small pox (a constant source of blindness in children), to inspect new born children for the detection of ophthalmia neonatorum to keep registers of all blind and partly blind persons and persons suffering from eye disease and to treat in the villages simple cases of conjunctivitis or sore eyes. Since their inception the Associations have been the means of restoring sight to thousands of blind people and of preventing blindness in many thousands more. The work is capable of indefinite extension and the need for some such organisation has been shown. In 1917 Colonel Elliot wrote as follows, To me it seems that the duty and privilege of undertaking this work lie with the State and that no sum spent on such a task could be too large. Unfortunately this is not the view that has been taken by those in authority and consequently we see the spectacle of private enterprise endeavouring to undertake this colossal task.

It is at least permissible to voice an admiration for the stand taken by Mr Henderson, [Founder of the Blind Relief Association movement who began the work in 1918]. The best that one can hope for his endeavour is that he will succeed in arousing the conscience of educated Indians to the needs of their less fortunate countrymen and that this little cloud no bigger than a man's hand, will end in a monsoon of active effort. As the above was written in 1917 it is not altogether applicable to the criticism of Government of to-day as it has already been shown that there are now several schools of ophthalmology in India and the Government eye hospitals are doing tremendous work but these hospitals are situated in the large towns and cannot possibly by any stretch of imagination, give relief to the millions living in the rural areas.

The All-India Blind Relief Association.—(The Green Star Society) exists to co-ordinate and centralise the various Associations in the mofussil and to extend their work. It is under the patronage of the Governor of Bombay and has for its life President Mr C G Henderson (late I C S) who founded and managed for many years all the branch Associations working in Western India. It is affiliated to the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness, which has its headquarters in Paris and was formed on September 14th 1929 under the auspices of the League of Red Cross Societies and the American Society for the Prevention of Blindness. The organising Secretary is R Crawford Hutchinson. The Town Hall Bombay.

A beginning has been made, but it is only a beginning, and it is but the fringe of this vast problem that has been touched. The schools of ophthalmic surgeons in India are turning out ophthalmic surgeons who are crowding their profession in the cities and large towns. A scheme for taking these men and placing them in selected centres has been worked out, all that is required is monetary help. The cost is minimal and here is an opportunity for the generous and public spirited to emulate Sir Ernest Cassel and give to India an eye service of which India and the whole world could be proud and to the peoples of India that which to them is probably their most precious possession—their sight.

CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT

Amongst the most pressing problems of India a health is that presented by the appalling infant mortality. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 2 million Indian babies die, while many others survive only to grow weak and feeble from unhygienic surroundings during infancy. A noteworthy feature has been the further progress of the infant welfare movement, which owes much to the All India Maternity and Child Welfare League initiated by Lady Chalmers and also to the Indian Red Cross Society, which aims at gradually establishing a network of child welfare centres in most of the larger towns in India. The amalgamation of these two Bodies which has just taken place will undoubtedly increase and develop the work. The institution of an All India Baby Week, an undertaking to which Her Excellency the Countess of Reading has devoted great and successful enthusiasm has also given a stimulus to the work and promises to be an important perennial aid to its progress. In all the great centres of population, work is now being done for the training of midwives, for the instruction of mothers and for the care of babies. Training centres for Indian and Anglo-Indian women have been opened in order to spread the elements of infantile hygiene to other parts of India. Most hopeful sign of all, Indian ladies are beginning to interest themselves in this work in large numbers. But such is the magnitude of the field, that a consistent widespread effort on a scale hitherto impossible must be undertaken, if any appreciable reduction is to be made in the appalling mortality of young children. The admirable work done year by year by the National Association for supplying Female Medical Aid to the Women of India is recognised by the Government of India, which subsidises this organisation with a grant of Rs. 8,70,000 a year for the maintenance of the Women's Medical Service of Indian women.

Centres of Activity.—These may be most conveniently grouped under provinces, though the various provinces differ considerably in the nature of the work undertaken and the amount of organisation displayed. It is noteworthy that the work is most co-ordinated and most energetically carried on where there are persons

appointed under the Directors of Public Health whose special duty it is to foster Child Welfare activities.

Bombay Presidency.—In Bombay City two organisations are at work namely, that under the Corporation and a voluntary society. Both employ medical women and health visitors who conduct clinics and do home visiting. The Corporation also staffs and runs a number of small maternity homes which are much appreciated by the people. Indeed an outstanding feature of maternity work in Bombay is the number of confinements which take place in hospitals. The wretched housing conditions and poverty of the people however, carry off a very large proportion of the infants which are safely ushered into the world by the care of the hospitals. Organised child welfare work is unfortunately largely limited to the Presidency capital. In other places the development has rather been in the direction of the establishment of small maternity homes, which are mostly very flourishing and do excellent work.

Propaganda work has been very energetically carried on by the Bombay Presidency Health and Baby Week. This organisation supplies literature posters, magic lantern slides and even cinema films for health teaching and arranges for local baby weeks throughout the Presidency. The work of the Sova Sadan Society at Poona is remarkable for the encouragement it has given to education for the profession, medicine nursing and public health. Without such trained personnel, progress would be repeatedly held up. The Karachi Branch of the Indian Red Cross Society has appointed a trained woman organiser for touring the districts of Sind a region where the infant mortality is appallingly high.

Bengal.—Here again the major portion of the child welfare work is carried on at the capital. Efforts are being made to spread the work into the districts but progress is very slow. In Calcutta the Corporation carries on an extensive work supplying trained midwives in the homes of the poor. The infants thus brought under the care of the scheme are followed up by a system of house visiting. The Indian Red Cross Society has several child welfare clinics a feature of which is the supply of milk for children, free or at low cost. Besides this the

Society is largely responsible for the Health visitors training school, to which the local government has as yet given no aid. In three of the big jute mills, centres are now established and it is hoped that further progress will soon be made in this direction. The work in Dacca progresses well and nearly half of the infants born are under the care of the scheme.

Madras.—The child welfare scheme of the Corporation continues to develop. There is a danger that the desire of the people for medical aid will interfere with the truly preventive nature of the work, and the supply of medicines should be cut down. A large amount of milk is supplied free, or at less than cost price to the poorer citizens. The Corporation midwives attend a very large number of confinements yearly. The Maternity and Child Welfare Association runs a number of centres which do good work. This Association has now become part of the Red Cross Society and it has re-started its Health visitors training school under new auspices. It is hoped that the Government will soon recognise the value of the work sufficiently to give the school financial aid.

In the Madras mofussil a good many centres are at work, some under municipalities or district boards and some under voluntary societies. This work is not of as high quality as one could wish and needs the directing hand of an expert. This, it is hoped, will shortly be provided by an appointment which is about to be made of an Assistant to the Director of Public Health whose special work will be to inspect, control and encourage child welfare schemes.

Central Provinces.—In these provinces the Child Welfare Division of the Red Cross Society receives a considerable grant from Government for the support of child welfare schemes in the various towns and district. There is a great demand for these, and fortunately the demand can be met since the presence of a Health School provides the necessary number of Health visitors. The work is excellently organised and it appears probably that the health workers in the province may be formed into a proper cadre in the not distant future. The Health School is entirely maintained by Government.

The high degree of organisation shown in a province usually regarded as backward is remarkable, and is due mainly to the enthusiasm of the Secretary who, though not a paid worker, devotes a great deal of time to the work.

United Provinces.—In these provinces the work is organised by a medical woman, a member of the W. M. S., who is assistant to both the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and the Director of Public Health. As a result the work has made rapid progress and many centres are at work. The training school at Lucknow supplies the workers. Government gives extensive grants to the committees of management which is a joint one of the Indian Red Cross Society and the Lady Chelmsford League. There is also a midwives training school which trains large numbers who go to work in the districts subsequently. Baby and Health Weeks are also celebrated with aid from headquarters.

The Punjab.—The work here is perhaps more directly official than in any other province. An Inspector of health centres works under the Director of Public Health, who constantly tours and inspects the centres giving much advice and encouragement. The local management of centres is usually in the hands of voluntary committees which receive grants in aid both from the provincial Government and local bodies. Though the province is passing through a time of financial stress the principle of grants in aid is recognised and will be adhered to. The training school for health visitors is wholly undertaken by the provincial government. The high quality of the work done in the various centres is mainly due to the excellent training received at the school.

Assam.—There is no organised work on the part of the provincial government though in a few places an effort is being made to start it. The poverty of the province, the poor education of the women and the nature of the country make progress very difficult.

Bihar and Orissa.—This is also a poor and backward province, but a beginning has been made at Patna and Cuttack with the appointment of Maternity supervisors to control the work of indigenous dais. In the coal mine areas, after many years of hesitancy, a start is being made which should lead to great activity and corresponding benefit to the people. Health visitors are also at work in one of the most important of the Orissa Feudatory States.

Delhi.—The work in Delhi was started early in the history of the movement, and it has been carried on in a manner worthy of the seat of Government. The Municipality employs a medical woman with English qualifications who superintends the work under the Medical Officer of Health. Centres are placed strategically throughout the city, the indigenous midwives are taught and controlled and medical inspection of school children is carried on. New Delhi and the district are under an energetic Medical Officer of Health who is responsible for a great increase in the work during the last two years. Delhi is also the seat of the oldest Health School in India which is mainly supported by the Lady Chelmsford League and which turns out well qualified health visitors every year.

North West Frontier Province.—Practically the only civil work is carried on at Dera Ismail Khan. This was started some years ago and has continued to flourish. A provincial dais training school is found here which provides for the training of dais from various districts of the province.

Salsette Island.—At Quetta the maternity work of the city has resulted in very complete control of the indigenous practising midwives to the great advantage of the people.

Rajputana.—The Maternity Home, Ajmer, trains midwives for many of the States, and a certain amount of child welfare work is also carried on. Child welfare work is in existence at Jaipur and Mairathad and there are possibilities latent in the various states which good organisation could develop.

Child Welfare in the Army—The care needed by the wives and children of sepoys is being increasingly realised and nowhere more than in the units themselves. The result has been, in the last few years, the opening of much work in this direction. Much of it is purely medical work, which in the absence of families hospitals for the Indian soldiers, is a necessity. But genuine child welfare activities are also present in some centres many of them assisted by the Indian Red Cross Society and Lady Chelmsford League. A remarkable feature of this movement is the keenness of the men themselves to aid it, realising as they do the benefit to their own women and children. There are now very few cantonments where some work of this kind is not going on.

So far all the schemes have devoted their attention to educating women in the elements of mothercraft and attempting to preserve infant lives and improve child health. In a land of so many languages and superstitions

progress will necessarily be slow and India has yet to decide whether she will work sensitively and try to rear a few well developed children as far as adolescence or extensively attempt to bring a large number of infants through the first critical months, only to have them perish at a later stage from the many ills that childhood is heir to in a land of great poverty under-consumption, epidemics and famines. In Western lands the Child Welfare Movement has no more marked characteristics than its inability to stop expanding. Its familiarities know no bounds. Its inevitable corollaries are endless, and like the bayon tree it will on doubt in India also develop innumerable fresh roots, medical supervision, dental clinics, better housing, open air playgrounds etc. etc. But these are not yet its preliminary task is to educate the mothers of India to the enormity of allowing two million babies to perish every year and to convince them of the equally important fact that a high death rate always spells also a high damage rate of sickly, under-developed incompetent citizens.

INDIAN RED CROSS SOCIETY

When the war first broke out, what is generally termed Red Cross work was undertaken in India and Mesopotamia by the St John Ambulance Association and by a number of provincial organisations working on independent lines. From August 1916, the central work was taken over by the Indian Branch of the Joint War Committee of the Order of St John of Jerusalem and the British Red Cross Society. The final report of that Committee shows that up to June 1920 its total receipts amounted to Rs 1,77,85,716 of which some 17 lakhs had been contributed by the British Red Cross Society. It had spent about 67 lakhs in Mesopotamia, nine lakhs on the Afghan War and Waziristan Expedition in Mesopotamia and India combined it had spent on Red Cross objects in all about 117 lakhs.

It closed its career in June 1920 under the following circumstances. In the summer of 1919, an invitation had been received to join the International League of Red Cross Societies, having for its object the extension of Red Cross work in the sphere of purely civil activity. Though there was then no formally constituted Red Cross Society in India, the invitation was accepted thus giving India a distinct position in a world-wide League of humanitarian societies. A Bill to constitute an Indian Red Cross Society was introduced by Sir Claude Hill in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920, and duly passed into law as Act XV of 1920. This Act handed over the balance of the Joint War Committee to the new Society, and authorised it not only to direct the utilisation for war purposes of the capital funds at its disposal but also to devote the interest, as far as possible, for civil purposes. As contemplated in the Act of Constitution of the Society, its activities are completely decentralised, and are being carried on through twenty-two Provincial and State Branches under which there are numerous sub-branches.

The objects on which the funds of the Society may be spent are—

1. The care of the sick and wounded men of His Majesty's Forces, whether still on the active list or demobilised.
2. The care of those suffering from Tuberculosis, having regard to the first place to soldiers and sailors, whether they have contracted the disease on active service or not.
3. Child welfare.
4. Work parties to provide the necessary garments, etc. for hospitals and health institutions in need of them.
5. Assistance required in all branches of nursing, health and welfare work, auxiliary to any organisations which have or may come into being in India and which are recognised by the Society.
6. Home Service Ambulance Work.
7. Provision of comforts and assistance to members of His Majesty's Forces, whether on the active list or demobilised.

The Society has five grades of subscribing Members, namely, Honorary Vice-Presidents, Patrons, Vice-Patrons, Members and Associate Members. Their respective subscriptions are Rs 10,000 Rs 5,000 Rs 1,000, Rs 12 annually or a consolidated payment of Rs 120 and any thing between Rs 1 and Rs 5 annually or consolidated payment of Rs 60. At the end of 1920 there were 33,934 members of these various grades.

To stimulate interest in the aims and objects of the Society amongst the future generations a Junior Red Cross movement has been instituted which embraces the student population. The Punjab Provincial branch has taken the lead in furthering this movement. Other provinces are now following suit and at the end of 1920 the Society had a total Junior membership of 55,080.

Constitution.—His Excellency the Viceroy is President of the Society. The Managing Body ordinarily consists of a Chairman to be nominated by the President and 25 members of the Society of whom 15 are the Vice-Presidents nominated by Provincial or State Branches, 8 elected by the Society at the Annual General Meeting from among the members of the Society and 5 nominated by the President.

The present Chairman of the Managing Body is the Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncrieff Smith, Kt, C.I.E., I.C.S., and the Organizing Secretary, Miss Norah Hill, A.R.N.C.

Finances.—The operations of the Joint War Committee were brought to a close in June 1920

with a capital investment of the face value of Rs 54,33,000 and Rs 8,01,500-8-8 in floating and fixed deposit accounts. The Society has since invested further funds in various securities and its finances at the end of December 1920, stood at a capital investment of the face value of Rs. 67,53,000-0-0. The income derived from the capital of the Society, (which is 2½ lakhs at present) after providing for certain liabilities of the Central Society, is distributable under the Act to the Provincial Branches in proportion to their contributions to the Central Our Day Fund. A sum of Rs. 2,70,000-0-0 was so distributed to the Provincial Branches under this arrangement during the year 1920.

ST JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION

(Indian Council)

The St John Ambulance Association was founded in 1877, by the Order of the Hospital of St John of Jerusalem in England, and has for its objects—

(a) The instruction of persons in rendering First Aid in cases of accident or sudden illness and in the transport of the sick and injured.

(b) The instruction of persons in the elementary principles and practice of nursing, and also of hygiene and sanitation, especially of a sick room.

(c) The manufacture, and distribution by sale or presentation, of ambulance material and the formation of ambulance depots in mines, factories, and other centres of industry and traffic.

(d) The Organisation of Ambulance Corps, Invalid Transport Corps, and Nursing Corps.

(e) And generally the promotion of instruction and carrying out of works for the relief of suffering of the sick and injured in peace and war independently of class, nationality or denomination.

An Indian Council of the Association was constituted on a regular basis in 1910. It has since issued 1,73,952 certificates of proficiency in

First Aid, Home Nursing, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and 8103 tokens such as Vouchers, Medallions, Labels and Pendants for special proficiency in those subjects. The object of the Association is not to rival, but to aid, the medical man, and this subject matter of instruction given at the classes qualifies the pupil to adopt such measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, or during the intervals between his visits.

In 1920 the Indian Council spent Rs 79,788 in furthering its objects and closed the year with Govt securities of the face value of Rs. 70,000. The Association has five grades of members namely, Patrons, Honorary Councillors, Life Members, Annual Members and Annual Associates. Their respective subscriptions are Rs 1,000, Rs 500, Rs. 100, Rs 5, and Rs. 2.

Their Excellencies Lord and Lady Irwin and Field Marshal Sir Philip Chetwode as President, Lady President and Chairman, respectively with 17 members form the Indian Council. The general business of the Indian Council is conducted by an Executive Committee of which the Hon'ble Sir Henry Moncrieff Smith, Kt, C.I.E., I.C.S., is the Chairman, and Miss Norah Hill, A.M.N.C., the General Secretary.

INSANITY AND MENTAL HOSPITALS IN INDIA.

The accommodation for the treatment in British India of persons who suffer from mental disorders is still very inadequate. In the Indian States, the condition of affairs is even worse, for, with the sole exception of Mysore State which has a small and highly archaic "mental hospital" at Bangalore, there are no mental hospitals in existence so that persons suffering from all forms of mental disease are confined in the jails where, of course, no provision exists for any kind of treatment. According to the last Census (1921) out of a total popula-

tion of 318,942,480 (India and Burma) there are 88,806 persons insane, making a proportion of insane to sane of 3 per every 10,000. In the United Kingdom the proportion of insane to sane is roughly 40 per 10,000, while in New Zealand it is as much as 45 per 10,000. In reviewing these figures it must be borne in mind that those of the United Kingdom and New Zealand include the "feeble-minded" an item that is not included in the figures for British India.

INDIA.

Provinces, States and Agencies	General population.			Insane population		
	Male	Female	Total	Male.	Female.	Total.
Provinces under British Administration.	139,243,123	131,707,210	270,950,333	44,473	22,224	72,907
States and Agencies	24,752,431	23,229,516	47,992,047	9,478	5,920	15,398
Total for all India	163,995,554	154,936,726	318,932,280	54,151	28,144	82,305

For the care of the 82,306 insane of India and Burma there exists accommodation in mental hospitals for 6,750 hence only one person in ten out of the total insane population can obtain accommodation in institutions which exist

especially for their care and treatment

The following table gives the number of mental hospitals in each province during 1927, the total population of each institution and the number discharged cured and died —

Province	No of Mental Hospitals	Admitted and readmitted during the year	Total Population of Mental Hospitals.			Discharged cured	Died	Daily average		Criminal Lunatics
			Male	Female	Total			Strength.	Sick	
Assam	1	66	410	95	505	21	47	438 47	59 35	245
Bihar and Orissa	2	364	1,535	398	1,933	208	53	1 804 49	74 68	514
United Provinces	3	779	1,561	412	1,973	174	106	1,274 63	155 08	425
Punjab	1	397	982	262	1,244	132	102	839 88	73 63	207
Central Provinces	1	87	389	90	484	33	19	410 96	20 37	135
Bombay	5	608			2,100	237	171	1 534 20	93 7	228
Madras	3	469	1,150	357	1,512	143	80	1 105 29	185 89	194
Burma	2	276	1,111	169	1,280	88	59	1,002 55	44 06	564
Total	18	3,046			11,040		638	8,300 67	656 71	2,601

It will be observed that there is now no mental hospital in Bengal. Insane from this province are treated in one or other of the two mental hospitals at Ranchi. All mental hospitals are under the direct control of the Provincial administrative medical officers except the European Mental Hospital at Ranchi which is controlled by a Board of Trustees presided over by the Commissioner of Chota Nagpur. The so-called Central Mental Hospitals, that is to say, the Mental Hospital at Madras, North Yeravda (Bombay), Lahore (Punjab), Agra (United Provinces of Agra and Oudh) and Rangoon (Burma), as well as the two Mental Hospitals at Ranchi (one for Europeans and Americans and one for Asiatics and Africans) are administered by whole-time medical officers who are usually trained alienists. The Administration of the remaining Mental Hospitals in British India and Burma, lies with the Civil

Surgeon of the locality in which they happen to be situated. It is probably true to state that only one Mental Hospital in the whole of India can claim any pretension to be up-to-date as regards organisation, staffing and equipment and that is the Mental Hospital for Europeans at Ranchi. All the others are for the most part over-crowded and under-staffed, thus rendering anything approaching treatment on modern lines out of the question. The only province in India which has so far displayed some appreciation of the importance of bringing the prevention and treatment of mental disorders into line with conditions in civilised countries is Madras. The local Government of this province has achieved a notable advance in its attitude towards mental disorders by providing, in the construction of the new General Hospital at Madras, accommodation for the treatment of early cases of mental diseases.

As regards the incidence of insanity among the various races of India as well as the incidence of insanity in relation to occupation, no reliable information is available in view of the comparative paucity of cases in proportion to the general

population that come under observation. On the other hand the incidence by age is shown fairly well in the Census Report of 1921 which is as follows —

INDIA

AGE	Insane,		Distribution of the insane by age per 10,000 of each sex.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
YEARS				
0-5	651	484	121	142
5-10	2,906	1,882	539	553
10-15	4,098	2,763	761	808
15-20	4,366	3,076	810	904
20-25	5,518	3,870	1,024	993
25-30	6,861	3,482	1,273	1,033
30-35	7,221	3,349	1,343	1,131
35-40	5,651	2,949	1,049	867
40-45	5,316	3,486	987	1,025
45-50	3,332	2,157	616	634
50-55	3,132	2,492	581	732
55-60	1,465	1,036	272	305
60-65	1,683	1,471		
65-70	602	439		
70 and over	1,070	1,006		
Unspecified	270	123		
Total for all India	56,151	34,154	623	857

A further result of the widespread ignorance and apathy both official and non-official, towards psychiatry and its cognate interests, is the lack of any provision for the care and treatment of mentally defective children. In 1925, the Hon'ble Haroon Jaffer moved the Council of State to recommend to the Governor-General in Council that the Provincial Governments be asked to investigate the best means of dealing quickly and adequately with cases of mental defectives. A discussion followed which was remarkable only for the ignorance of the subject displayed by all who took part in it. The motion was eventually withdrawn.

Finally there is still a lamentable failure everywhere to appreciate the intimate associa-

tion of crime with mental disorder and the extreme paucity of medical men throughout the whole of India with any real knowledge of mental diseases leave the decision of questions involving what the law terms "responsibility" in crime in the hands of medical men who are in no sort of sense "experts". In other words the current ideas both as regards the theory and practice of dealing with insanity and crime in India can only be described as archaic.

(See also "Insanity in India" by Colonel G. F. W. Ewens, I.M.S., and "Lunacy in India" by Colonel A. W. Overbeck-Wright, M.D., D.P.E., I.M.S., and Colonel H. F. Jago Shaw's book.)

National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the Women of India.

The National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the women of India was founded by the Countess of Dufferin in 1885, the object being to open women's hospitals and women's wards in existing hospitals, to train women doctors, nurses and midwives in India, and to bring these out when necessary from Europe. An endowment fund of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription. In addition Branches were formed in each Province, each Branch having its own funds and each having a number of Local Committees and Zenana Hospitals affiliated to it.

The Central Fund gives grants-in-aid to several Provincial Branches. It gives scholarships to a number of women students at the Medical schools of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi. It has in the past brought from England a certain number of European medical women.

It has assisted by grants-in-aid the building of a number of zenana hospitals in different parts of India. It has affiliated to it 13 Provincial Branches and a number of Local Committees.

The Government of India subsidize the Countess of Dufferin's Fund to the extent of Rs 8,70,000 per annum to maintain a Women's Medical Service for India—this service consists of 44 officers, with a training reserve of 8 doctors and a Junior service of 6 assistant surgeons. Medical women either British or Indian holding registrable British qualifications are eligible for the senior service.

The President is H. E. Lady Irwin, C.I., The Hon. Secretary is the Surgeon to H. E. the Viceroy, and the Secretary Dr. A. C. Scott, C.M.D., W.M.S., C.B.M., Red Cross Building, New Delhi and Viceregal Estates, Simla.

THE WOMEN'S MEDICAL SERVICE FOR INDIA

This Service is included in the National Association for supplying medical aid by women to the women of India, generally known as the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and is administered by the Executive Committee and Council of that Fund. The Government of India has so far allotted the sum of \$25,000 per annum towards its maintenance. The present sanctioned cadre is forty-four first class medical women, with a training reserve of 8 women graduates in medicine of Indian Universities. Recruitment of the service is made (a) in India by a medical sub-committee of the Council which includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Honorary Secretary to the Council and the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service (b) in England, by a sub-committee, including a medical man and two medical women conversant with conditions in India. These sub-committees perform the duties of a medical board examining candidates for physical fitness, and for return to duty after invaliding.

The Council determines what proportions of the members of the Service is to be recruited in England and in India respectively. In the original constitution of the Service, duly qualified medical women who are in the service of, or who have rendered approved service to, the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, are to have the first claim to appointment, and thereafter special consideration is to be paid to the claims of candidates who have qualified in local institutions and of those who are natives of India.

Qualifications.—The qualifications are that the candidate must be (a) a British subject resident in the United Kingdom or in a British Colony or in British India, or a person resident in any territory of any Native Prince or Chief under the suzerainty of His Majesty sanctioned through the Governor-General of India or through any Governor or other officer subordinate to the Governor-General of India. (b) Must be between the ages of

twenty-four and thirty at entry. (c) She must be a first-class medical woman, i.e., she must possess a medical qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under the Medical Act, or an Indian or Colonial qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under that Act but this condition does not apply as the original constitution of the Service to medical women in charge of hospitals who, in the opinion of the Council, are of proved experience and ability. (d) The candidate must produce a certificate of health and character. But the Council reserves the power to promote to the service ladies not possessing the above qualifications, but who have shown marked capacity. Members of the Service are required to engage for duty anywhere in India. After one year of probation has been satisfactorily passed their appointments are confirmed. The services of officers may be lent to Local or Municipal bodies, or to special institutions which may be responsible for whole or part of the pay.

Pay.—The rates of pay are as follows:—

1st to	3rd year	Rs	650 per month.
4th to 6th	" "	800	"
7th to 9th	" "	650	"
10th to 12th	" "	800	"
13th to 15th	" "	650	"
16th to 18th	" "	700	"
19th to 21st	" "	750	"
22nd to 24th	" "	800	"
24th and after	" "	850	"

also an overseas allowance of Rs 100 per month to those below 12 years' service and Rs 150 per month to those of 12 years' service and over. Every officer of the Service shall pass an examination in such vernacular as the Executive Committee shall appoint within the first three years of her service, and shall receive no increment after that period until such examination has been passed. In addition

furnished quarters are provided free of rent or a house rent allowance to be determined by the Provincial Committee may be granted in lieu of it.

Officers of the Service are permitted to engage in private practice provided it does not interfere with their official duties, and the Provincial Committee has the power to determine whether such duties are thus interfered with. Except in very special cases retirement is compulsory at the age of fifty-five. An officer recruited in England whose appointment is not confirmed, or who is dismissed, is granted an allowance sufficient to pay her passage to England.

Leave Rules—(a) Casual Leave, which is occasional leave on full pay for a few days, and is not supposed to interrupt duty. (b) Leave on average pay is granted up to 2-11 of an officer's period on duty according to Fundamental Rules. More than eight months leave on average pay is not granted at one time. (c) Study leave may also be granted up to twelve months during the whole service. An allowance of 12 sh per day is granted in addition to average pay during study leave. (d) Extraordinary leave at any time at the discretion of the Executive Committee. (e) Leave not due may be granted subject to the following conditions—(i) on medical certificate, without limit of amount, and (ii) otherwise than on medical certificate for not more than three months at any one time and six months in all reckoned in terms of leave on average pay. (f) The maximum period of continuous absence from duty on leave granted otherwise than on medical certificate is 18 months. (g) When an officer returns from leave which was not due and which was debited against her leave account, no leave will become due to her until the expiration of a fresh period spent on duty, sufficient to earn a credit of leave equal to the period of leave which she took before it was due. There are no allowances during extraordinary leave. A doctor appointed in England receives a sum of £100 to cover her passage and incidental expenses. There are also allowances to cover the cost of journeys by rail and road.

There is also a Provident Fund, each member contributing monthly thereto ten per cent of her salary, the Association contributing an equal amount, and each subscriber's account being granted interest on the amount standing to credit at the rate of 4 per cent per annum, or at such rate as the Council can invest without risk to the funds of the Association.

An officer loses the contributions made to her account by the Association with the interest thereon if she resigns (except on account of ill health) before completing five years service or in the event of dismissal. On retirement after approved service the sum which has accumulated to the credit of the subscriber is handed over to her.

Free Passages—Officers of the Women's Medical Service are granted free return passages corresponding to those granted under the Lee Commissions to officers of all India services. The maximum number of return passages granted during an officer's entire term of service must not exceed four, the first falling due after 4 years service.

The Training Reserve of the Women's Medical Service—This Service has a sanctioned cadre of eight, and is open to women graduates in medicine of the Indian Universities. Salaries range from Rs 200 to Rs 300 per month with furnished quarters or the equivalent in money, to those employed in India.

Two of the eight members of the reserve but not more at any one time may be deputed to Europe by the Executive Committee for post-graduate training and shall receive a stipend at the rate of £ 200 a year each paid quarterly and return passage. Any member not so deputed shall be employed in India.

Ordinarily four years shall be spent in the reserve before a member is considered for appointment to the Women's Medical Service but the Executive Committee shall have power to shorten this period in special cases. Service in the reserve shall be considered by the Executive Committee when appointments are being made to the Women's Medical Service, but shall not of itself constitute a claim to appointment.

VICTORIA MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIPS.

The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund was organised by Lady Curzon in 1906, in order to secure a certain amount of improvement in the practicing dais of India. A sum of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription, and centres were organised in each Province to carry out the

objects of the Fund. Over 2,000 midwives have been trained in addition to large numbers who have been partially trained. Of late years the Fund has done much to pave the way for the registration and supervision of indigenous dais. It has also done much propaganda work.

LADY CHELMSFORD ALL-INDIA LEAGUE FOR MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE

By 1920 it had come to be realised that the Dufferin organisation was not wide enough in that it did not include what may be called the field of preventive medicine. Lady Chelmsford decided to face this problem. Accordingly with the aid of a public subscription she founded a separate All India League for maternity and child welfare, called after her name, and registered it as a separate organisation under Act XXI of 1880. The objects of the Association, as described in the Memorandum of Association, are 'the promotion of maternity and child welfare generally in India.' It is

also laid down that the funds of the League may be applied to the following, among other purposes—

- (1) The training of Health Visitors and Maternity Supervisors and the rendering of financial assistance in the employment of trained personnel where necessary.
- (2) Propaganda in connection with the objects of the League.
- (3) The formation and establishment of Branches of the League and the affiliation with the League of other bodies.

having similar objects, without unduly interfering with the organization and administration of affiliated institutions or with their powers of raising money

(4) The doing of all such things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above kindred objects

Branches of the League have been formed in Rajputana, Madras, the United Provinces, and the Punjab

The original corpus of the League fund amounted to Rs 8,18,657 To prevent overlapping with other activities, financial aid is not given to branches of the League in Governor's provinces, except for the purposes of Health Schools In areas other than Governor's provinces, financial help is given to child welfare activities generally The bulk of the income of the League is thus devoted to Health Schools and propaganda, which latter includes National Baby Week

The Lady Reading Health School which was formerly known as the Delhi Health School is the chief activity of the Lady Chelmsford League by whom it is entirely financed

The Health School was started in 1919 and has trained over 100 students who are now engaged in health work in all parts of India

Amalgamation of Administration.—At a general meeting held in Simla in July 1923 it was decided that the administration of the Funds for the physical welfare of Indian women under the Presidency of the Viceroy's wife should be administered by a single committee and with identical rules These funds are the Countess of Dufferin's Fund Women's Medical Service for India Victoria Memorial Scholarship Fund and Lady Chelmsford All India Maternity League The President of the Amalgamated Committee is H E the Lady Irwin and the Hon and Joint Secretaries are respectively, the Surgeon to the Viceroy and Dr A C Scott WMS The Hon Treasurer is the Honble Mr E Burdon

Lady Hardinge Medical College and Hospital.—The Lady Hardinge Medical College was opened by Lord Hardinge on the 17th February 1916 It is a residential Medical College staffed entirely by women and was founded to commemorate the visit to Delhi, in 1911, of the Queen Empress Lady Hardinge took the initiative in raising funds by public subscription to meet the cost of buildings and equipment Thirty lakhs of rupees, in all have been given for these purposes mostly by the Ruling Princes and Chiefs of India After Lady Hardinge's death in 1914, it was suggested by Her Imperial Majesty Queen Mary that the institution should serve as a memorial to its founder and be called by her name

The Governing Body includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Chief Engineer, Delhi Province, the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service, a representative elected by the All India Association of Medical Women, the Surgeon to H E the Viceroy, an Indian member of the Council of State 2 Indian members of the Legislative Assembly, a private Indian citizen of Delhi, a private lady resident of Delhi, the Civil Surgeon of New Delhi and the Agent, Imperial Bank of

India, Delhi The Honorary Secretary, who is also a member of the Governing Body is the Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service The Deputy Accountant-General, Central Revenues acts as Honorary Treasurer

The College and Hospital together with separate hostels for 100 Medical students and 70 nurses and residences for the medical and teaching staff, occupy a site of 55 acres in New Delhi (Rakina) within easy reach of the old city The grounds are enclosed and adequate provision is made for the seclusion of both students and patients from outside observation Strict observance of purdah cannot, however, be guaranteed in the case of students As the hospital patients are all women or children, it is for example, necessary that students should, in their final year, attend a brief course of instruction on men patients at the Civil Hospital, Delhi The College buildings contain a Library Museum, Lecture Rooms, Laboratories and offices Hostels are provided for Hindu, Moslem, Sikh and Christian students The hospital is a fine modern building with accommodation for 200 in patients and a commodious out-patients department The College and Hospital are supported by a grant of Rs 311,000 from the Government of India supplemented by grants from Provincial Governments and Indian States Students are prepared for the Intermediate Science Examination, and the M B B S degree of the Punjab University, with which the College is affiliated

SENIOR STAFF

Principal and Professor of Midwifery and Gynaecology.—Dr O'Brien Breardon MBS (Iond) LSA MD Ch B (Glas) Women's Medical Service

Vice-Principal and Professor of Surgery.—Miss Hamilton Browne MB Ch M (Syd) D T M (Calcutta), WMS

Professor of Medicine.—Miss N E Trouton MB BS (Lond), MRCO, LACP D T M Calcutta

Professor of Ophthalmology.—Miss B. Ronalston MB, Ch B (Glas), DO (Oxon) WMS

Professor of Pathology.—Miss L S Chatterji, MB Ch B (Aberdeen), DPM, Cambridge, WMS

Professor of Anatomy.—Miss K J McDermott MB, BS (Punjab) WMS

Professor of Physiology.—Miss E Sarie M So

Professor of Radiology.—Miss Joyce Peake MRCO, LACP

Lecturer in Physics and Mathematics and Superintendant of the Science Department.—Miss J H Ross, M A, B.Sc (Glas)

Lecturer in Chemistry.—Miss Soabella Ram, M A (Cantab)

Lecturer in Biology.—Miss C O Burt, M.Sc. (Edin.)

Lecturer in English.—Miss Ebbutt M A (Dublin), Modern Language Tripos (Cantab)

Bursar and Warden.—Miss M W Jenson, M A (Cantab)

Attached to the Hospital there are (1) a Training School for Nurses, and (2) a Training School for Dispensers All particulars as to admission and training may be obtained in the case of (1) from the Nursing Superintendents, Lady Hardinge Medical College Hospital, Delhi, and in the case of (2) from the Lecturer on Pharmacy, at the same address

NURSING.

Whilst India cannot show the complete chain of efficiently-nursed hospitals which exists in England, there has been a great development of skilled nursing of recent years. This activity is principally centred in the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Presidencies, where the chief hospitals in the Presidency towns are well nursed, and where large private staffs are maintained, available to the general public on payment of a proscribed scale of fees. These hospitals also act as training institutions, and turn out a yearly supply of fully trained nurses, both to meet their own demands and those of outside institutions and private agencies. In this way the supply of trained nurses, English, Anglo-Indian and Indian, is being steadily increased. In Bombay the organisation has gone a step further, through the establishment of the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, of St. George's Hospital, Bombay. This is composed of representatives of the various Nursing Associations in charge of individual hospitals, and works under the Government. The principle on which the relations of this Association with the Local Associations is governed is that there shall be central examination and control combined with complete individual autonomy in administration.

State Registration of Nurses for all India is much required. A meeting was held in Bombay in 1923 when Nurses from the Presidency met to discuss the question. It is desired that India should have its own State Register as in the United Kingdom, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Canada and Burma, and that the curricula and examinations should be brought into line with these countries. Government has proposed to establish a Provincial Register preparatory to an All-India Register.

Nursing Bodies.—The Secretary of the Calcutta Hospital Nurses' Institution is Mr. A. E. Nicholson, Allahabad Bank Building, Calcutta. The names and addresses of the other Nursing bodies in Calcutta are Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association (Bengal Branch) 4 Hungerford Street, Lady Rogers' Hostel for Indian Nurses, 144, Russa Road, South, Nurses Academy, 6, Suburban Hospital Road; and Nurses Bureau, 37, McLeod Street. In Madras there is the General Hospital, with a staff of 62 nurses, the Government Maternity Hospital, the Caste and Gopka Hospital at Kilpank, the Royappa Hospital and the Ophthalmic Hospital, also the Lady Amphill Nurses' Institute and the South Indian Nursing Association (now amalgamated). President, Her Excellency Lady Godean. The association has under its management—The Lady Amphill Nurses' Institute, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras. Fully trained and experienced nurses for all cases of Hindus both among Europeans and Indians, always available. The Lady Wellington Nursing Home, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras, and *Nigiri Nursing and Convalescent Home*, Ottomamund, for Medical, Surgical and Maternity cases. The *Nigiri Nursing Home* affords admirable facilities for convalescents.

Bombay Presidency.—The Bombay Presidency was among the first in India to realise the value of nursing in connection with

hospital work. The first steps were taken on the initiative of Mr. L. E. W. Forrest at St. George's Hospital, Bombay, where a regular nursing cadre for the hospital was established together with a small staff of nurses for private cases. This was followed by a similar movement at the J. J. and Alfred Hospitals and afterwards spread to other hospitals in the Presidency. Ultimately the Government laid down a definite principle with regard to the financial aid which they would give to such institutions, agreeing to contribute a sum equal to that raised from private sources. Afterwards, as the work grew, it was decided by Government that each nursing association attached to a hospital should have a definite constitution and consequently these bodies have all been registered as Associations under Act 21 of 1900. By degrees substantial endowments have been built up, although the Associations are still largely dependent upon annual subscriptions towards the maintenance of their work. This Association was incorporated under the Societies Registration Act of 1900, in the year 1911, with the primary object of establishing a nursing service from which the Nursing staff at Government aided hospitals under management of Nursing Association might be recruited. This function however was never carried out by the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, and under the present circumstances it appeared to the Committee improbable that it could be carried out, but up to now the auxiliary function of the examining and granting certificates to nurses and midwives, and maintaining a register of qualified nurses and midwives and also maintaining a Provident fund for the employees of the affiliated associations have been successfully carried out from 1911 to 1928. Memorandum, Rules and By-laws of the Association were however revised or brought into line with the actual working of the Association. Towards the end of 1927, the Committee decided that some steps must be taken to do so and accordingly appointed a sub-committee to consider the revision and amendment of the Memorandum, Rules and By-laws. The Sub-Committee reported that it appeared to be impossible to amend and revise the present rules piecemeal and that the only way to put things in order would be to draft an entirely fresh constitution and rules.

After fully considering the Sub-Committee's report the Committee agreed that the Association be incorporated by an Act on the line of the Registration Act in the United Kingdom. Pending the passing of the Act the new Memorandum of Association having received the approval of Government was brought into operation from 1st April 1928.

The following are affiliated associations as well as Training Institutions—

St. George's Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay, (for nurses only). Hon. Secretary F. E. Thomson, Esq., Jamesotji Jijibhai Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay, (for nurses and Midwives). Hon. Secretary Dr. Khatia, D.B.K., F.R.C.P.

Goindas Telpal Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay (for nurses only), Hon. Secretary W. Dillon, Esq., I.C.S.

Cama & Alibee Hospitals Nursing Association, Bombay, (for Nurses and Midwives)
Hon Secretary H. C. B. Mitchell, Esq.
Seamen Hospital Nursing Association, Poona, (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary N. J. Wadia, Esq. B.A., Bar-at-law
Karachi Civil Hospital Nursing Association (for Nurses only), Hon. Secretary H. H. Hood, Esq.

Civil Hospital Nursing Association Nasik (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Nasik.

Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Ahmedabad (for Nurses and Midwives) Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Ahmedabad.

Victoria Nursing Association, Sholapur (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Sholapur.

The following are only affiliated Associations but not Training Institutions —

Ahmednagar Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Ahmednagar.

Bijapur Civil Hospital Nursing Association Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Bijapur.

Byramji Jijibhai Nursing Association Mathuran, Hon. Secretary Lt.-Col. M. S. Irani, I.M.S.

Dharwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Dharwar.

Kanara Nursing Association, Karwar, Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Karwar.

Panch Mahals Nursing Association, Godhra Hon. Secretary Civil Surgeon, Godhra.

Princes of Wales Nursing Association, Aden, Hon. Secretary G. Richmond, Esq.

The following are recognised Training Institutions —

V J Hospital, Ahmedabad (for Nurses and Midwives)

State General Hospital, Baroda (for Nurses and Midwives)

Civil Hospital Belgaum (for Nurses and Midwives)

King Edward VII Memorial Hospital, Parel, Bombay (for Nurses only)

Bai Yamunabai L. Nair Charitable Hospital, Lamington Road, Bombay (for Nurses only)

Bomanji Dhabshaw Festi Parel General Hospital, Cumballa Hill, Bombay (for Nurses only)

Civil Hospital, Jalgaon (for Nurses only)

Lady Dufferin and Louise Lawrence Institute, Karachi (for Nurses and Midwives)

West Hospital, Rajkot (for Nurses only)

Morabhai Vrajbhikandas Hospital, Surat (for Nurses and Midwives)

American Presbyterian Mission Hospital, Miraj (for Nurses only)

St Luke's Hospital, Venugur (for Nurses only)

Parel Lying in Hospital, Bombay (for Midwives only)

St. Margaret's Hospital, Poona (for Midwives only)

King Edward Memorial Hospital Poona (for Midwives only)

Newroji Wadia Maternity Hospital, Parel, Bombay (for midwives only)

Acharnati Ghrubhadi Maternity House, Ahmedabad (for Midwives only)

Civil Hospital, Surat (for Midwives only)

Zenana Mission Hospital, Broom's (for Midwives only)

Lady Dufferin Hospital, Sholapur

Provision for retiring allowances is made for all members on the basis of a Provident Fund and a Nursing Reserve has been established for employment in emergencies such as war, pestilence or public danger or calamity.

Address — The Registrar, Bombay Presidency Nursing Association Old Custom House, Fort Bombay

Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association — In 1905 this Association was inaugurated, replacing the Punjab and Up-country Nursing Association for Europeans in India, which Society, established in 1892, had accomplished much useful work in this country. Owing, however, to lack of funds it was found impossible to continue its administration and to carry out the expansion of the work so urgently called for. The name of the helpers identified with the premier Association to whom the public must ever be indebted are the Hon. Lady Lytton, Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and Mrs. Cottrell, while Mrs. Shephard, by her indefatigable efforts, is truly entitled to be regarded as the pioneer of a trained nursing system throughout the greater part of India. The late Lady Curzon worked energetically to provide an enlarged Nursing organisation, but mainly owing to financial reasons, she was unable before she left India to bring the scheme to fruition. The Home Committee of the existing Association, recognising the need for expansion, consented to take over the present Association and approached Lady Minto before she left England in 1905 for co-operation towards this project, and after much consideration and discussion with the Government of India, Lieut.-Governors and Commissioners of Provinces, the present Association was established. An appeal by Lady Minto, addressed to the public both in England and India was responded to most generously and sufficient funds were collected to form an endowment fund, which has in spite of fluctuations increased a little with time. The assistance of a Government grant is much valued, as it enables Homes for the Sisters to be kept up in six Provinces in India and in Burma. At the request of the Home Committee the enlarged Association was renamed the "Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association."

The duties of the Home Committee are, as before, largely concerned in directing, as required, suitably trained and carefully selected Nurses for service on the staff of the Association in India. Thus, Europeans who are members of this Association are enabled to obtain skilled nursing at moderate charges on a sliding scale of fees determined by the income of each patient. The boon of obtaining good nursing at moderate terms is much appreciated, the rates of subscriptions being really an insurance against illness.

Her Majesty the Queen is a Patron of the Association. Her Excellency The Lady Irwin is President of the Central Committee in India. Hon. Secretary Lt.-Colonel Ray Thorburn, C.I.E. I.M.S.

Hon. Treasurer (Recently Vacant)

Chief Lady Superintendent Miss G. Beckett. Address — Central Committee, I.M.J. N.A. Viceregal Lodge, Simla, and Red Cross Building, New Delhi.

Hon Secretary, Home Committee, Lt.-Col. Sir Warren R. Crooke-Lawson, G.B., G.L.S., O.B.E., LL.D., Thornfield Vine Road, Barnes, S. W. 13
 Secretary, Home Committee Miss M. E. Ray, B.R.O. 10, Witherby Mansions, Raris Court Sq.

Nurses Organizations.—The Association of Nursing Superintendents of India is now amalgamated with the Trained Nurses Association of India, and has the one set of officers. The Trained Nurses Association of India and the Association of Nursing Superintendents of India are not Associations to employ or to supply nurses, but are organizations with a membership wholly of nurses with the avowed objects of improving and unifying nursing education, promoting *esprit de corps* among nurses, and upholding the dignity and honour of the nursing profession. The Associations have a membership of 172

including nurses trained in ten or more different countries, Europeans, Americans, New Zealanders, Australians and Indians. The Association of Superintendents was started in 1905 as the Association of Nursing Superintendents of the United Provinces and the Punjab, but by the next year its membership had spread over the country to such an extent that the name was changed to include the whole of India. The Trained Nurses Association was started in 1908, and a monthly Journal of Nursing began to be published by the two Associations in February, 1910. The Associations are affiliated with the International Council of Nurses.

President Mrs G D Franklin 83, Rajpur Road, Delhi.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer Miss Gaden, General Hospital, Madras

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT

Within the abnormally short period of eleven years the Woman Suffrage movement has risen in India, swept through the country synthetically and achieved the political enfranchisement of women in all the nine British Provinces and in four Indian States.

Three fundamental causes have led to this remarkable success. First, the deep veneration that is given by the Hindu and Muhammadan religions to the feminine aspect of life equally with the masculine as shown by the importance of goddesses by the necessity for the presence of the wife at all ceremonies performed by a Brahman by the idea of the sacred mystery of womanhood inspired by the purdah, and by the general veneration of motherhood. Secondly the time was psychological, for a new era was beginning for the Indian people by the introduction of a Scheme of Reforms in Indian government which was planned to give a basis of representative government on a much extended scale. The door was being opened to complete self-government but only men were being invited to enter through it, although women compose half the people of the country and it had been by the joint efforts of men and women that the agitation for reform in the government had been made. The men and women of India were too awakened and too just to allow this injustice to remain unredressed. Thirdly, the long and strenuous agitation for the vote by women in Britain and America and their recent victories had brought vividly to the consciousness of all educated Indian men and women the whole question of the inclusion of women in public life, and it was also a national and international necessity that Indian women should be given as high a status as women in other parts of the Empire.

Though the Municipal franchise had been granted to the women of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies over fifteen years ago it was so limited in numbers that it did not make a large impact on women's consciousness and indeed no protest was made when it was and duly withdrawn from Madras women some years later. Over 1700 women are qualified to vote for the Bombay Corporation and a fair percentage of these have polled at each election, and similarly in other Municipalities in that Presidency women have exercised their vote responsibly and intelligently. Since 1923 over 100 women have become Municipal

Councillors and members of Local Government Boards. Their appointment has chiefly been by nomination but there have been notable seats won by election in open contest with men, such as the election of all the four women who first entered the contest for seat in Bombay Corporation also the instance in which the single woman contestant in the Municipal elections in Lucknow secured the largest poll of any of the candidates. Many important local reforms have been secured by this large band of women Councillors, and every year sees a greater number of women serving on these local Councils and Boards.

It was owing to the rise of the political agitation for Home Rule between 1914 and 1917 that women began to wake up to their position of exclusion by British law from any share in representative government. The intervention of one of their own sex, Dr Besant, stimulated political activity and political self-consciousness amongst women to a very great extent. The moment for the ripe public expression of their feelings came when the Secretary of State for India came to India to investigate and study Indian affairs at first hand in 1917.

During the Hon. R. B. Montagu's visit only one Women's Deputation waited on him but it was representative of womanhood in all parts of India, and it brought to his notice the various reforms which women were specially desirous of recommending the Government to carry out.

The first claim for women suffrage for Indian women was made in the address presented to Mr Montagu at this historic All-India Women's Deputation which waited upon him in Madras on the 18th December 1917. The section referring to enfranchisement merits full quotation.

'Our interests, as one half of the people, are directly affected by the demand in the united (Hindu-Muslim Reform) scheme (1) that 'the Members of the Council should be elected directly by the people on as broad a franchise as possible,' and in the Memorandum (2) that 'the franchise should be broadened and extended directly to the people.' We pray that, when such a franchise is being drawn up, women may be recognized as 'people,' and that it may be worded in such terms as will not disqualify our sex, but allow our women the same opportunities of representation as our men. In agreeing with the demand of the abovesigned Memorandum that 'a full measure of Local Self-

Government should be immediately granted, we request that it shall include the representation of our women a policy that has been admittedly successful for the past twenty years in Local Self Government elsewhere in the British Empire. The precedent for including women in modern Indian political life has been a marked feature of the Indian National Congress, in which since its inception women have voted and been delegates and speakers, and which this year finds its climax in the election of a woman as its President. Thus the voice of India approves of its women being considered responsible and acknowledged citizens, and we urgently claim that, in the drawing up of all provisions regarding representation, our sex shall not be made a disqualification for the exercise of the franchise or for service in public life."

The year 1918 was devoted to converting the Government forces to the justice and expediency of Indian Woman Suffrage but this proved a more difficult matter. It was a disappointment first that though the Secretary of State had given a sympathetic reply to the All India Women's Deputation, yet when the Scheme of Reforms, drawn up by him and Lord Chelmsford as the outcome of his visit to India, was published no mention of women was made though the widening of the electorate was one of the reforms suggested. When the Southborough Franchise Committee was formed to investigate the suggestions regarding the franchise in this Scheme, the women suffragists took every means to bring to the notice of the Committee all the evidence which showed the need for and the country's support of the inclusion of women in the new franchise.

After the introduction of the Government of India Bill into Parliament in July 1919, a number of Indian deputations proceeded to London to give evidence before the Joint Select Committee of Members of both Houses of Parliament which had been appointed to place the Reforms on a workable basis. Mrs. Annie Besant, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu and Mrs. and Miss Herabai Tata were the women who were heard by the Committee in support of the extension of the franchise to women in India.

The House of Commons decided that the question was one for Indians to answer for themselves and while retaining the sex disqualification in the Reform Bill they framed the Electoral Rules in such terms that if any Provincial Legislative Council should approve by a resolution in favour of women's franchise, women should be put on the electoral register of that Province. This was the only provision regarding franchise matters which might be changed before a 10 years' time limit. Until after that period women were ineligible for election as Legislative Councillors.

Travancore, a very progressive Indian State, was the first to grant the Legislative vote to women at the close of 1920, and it was promptly followed by the Indian State of Jhalawar. In the first session of the Legislative Councils in 1921 it is gratifying to record that a motion was tabled by Dewan Bahadur Krishnan Nair of Malabar that he would bring forward a Resolution in the Madras Legislative Council to remove the disqualification of sex existing in regard to the Legislative Council franchise. During the month that must legally intervene between the tabling of a Woman Suffrage motion and its

introduction for Debate the Madras women under the leadership of the Women's Indian Association carried on all forms of public propaganda and canvassed the important members of the Council. The Debate took place on April 1st and after a short discussion, in which it was evident that opposition came only from the Muhammadan members, the debate itself became only an accumulation of appreciation of womanhood and an expression of faith in its future. When the division was taken, it resulted in the resolution being carried by a majority of 34. Madras has thus the honour of being the first Province in British India to enfranchise its women, and it has done this ungrudgingly and unhesitatingly in the broad spirit of the equality of the sexes, as it grants the vote to women on the same terms as it has been granted to men.

Mr. Trivedi brought forward a Woman Suffrage Resolution in the Bombay Legislative Council during the same session but some irregularity in its wording caused it to be pronounced out of order. In June that subject was tabled again and championed by Rao Sahab Harilal Desai of Ahmedabad. Deputy President of the Council. As in Madras, the intervening month was filled with suffrage activity by the women of the Presidency and was remarkable for a large joint meeting of Bombay city women at which 19 Women's Societies took part, and for a suffrage meeting of Marathi and Gujarati women in Poona when over 800 women showed the greatest enthusiasm for the movement.

The Bombay Council Debate on Woman Suffrage took three days and the subject was very fully discussed by over 40 members. The result was satisfactory to the suffragists, the voting being 52 in favour, 25 against and 12 neutral. Thus Madras and Bombay Presidencies gave the lead to the other Provinces. In September, 1922 Mr. S. N. Bose, in the Bengal Council, moved a Woman Suffrage Resolution, which was debated for three days but finally defeated by 56 to 27 votes, a loss of 40 Muhammadan members voting solidly against it. In September 1925 the Bengal Council passed the Suffrage Resolution by a vote of 54 to 28.

Mr. Devaki Prasad Sinha a similar Resolution in the Behar and Orissa Legislative Council was defeated by only a 10 votes' majority.

These Debates proved so educational to their respective Provinces that the Bengal and Behar Provinces have since granted qualified women the Municipal Vote.

In February, 1925, a world suffrage record was made by the unanimous vote of the United Provinces Legislative Council in favour of Woman Suffrage.

In 1926 the Punjab granted woman suffrage without a division and in 1926 the Central Provinces.

The new Reform Bill for Burma has included the grant of woman suffrage to the qualified Burmese women, and further made provision for their election as Councillors if the Council passes a Resolution desiring their admission and if that Resolution is approved of by the Governor.

In April, 1925, the Mysore Legislative Council unanimously passed the Woman Suffrage Resolution. The vote for the Representative Assembly of Mysore was granted to women

in October, 1923. The vote for Mysore Legislative Franchise was granted to the Mysore women by H. R. The Maharaja and His Privy Council in June 1923. In October, 1924, Assam Provincial Council granted Woman Suffrage for its Province by 26 to 6. It also has been the first Province to pass a Resolution in favour of allowing women to enter the Council as members.

In 1920 soon after the All-India Women's Educational Reform was held in Patna, the Legislative Council of Behar and Orissa gave women the right of voting election and nomination to the Council on the same terms as men. Thus the whole of British India has now given to women equal political rights with men. The result has already demonstrated itself in the remarkable advancement of all the interests of women along the lines of education, health, housing, morality and social customs.

The Indian Native States of Travancore, Cochin and Rajkot are the only places in India where the sex disqualification has been completely removed from the statute book. These have allowed women the right to stand for election for the Legislative Council as well as the right to vote for it, and two women have been elected to the newly formed Representative Council of Rajkot. The year 1926 has been noteworthy for the appointment of the first woman Minister to Government. Mrs. Poomal Lukhoo became a member of the Travancore Legislative Council on taking the position of State Parish Priestess. She acted as Minister for Health to the State for three years. Cochin State nominated Mrs. Medhavi Amma as a member of its first Legislative Council.

In British India by the terms of the Reform Bill the Councils had no power to alter the disqualification of sex which remains against the right to stand as candidates for election to the Councils. This could only be changed by the vote of the British Parliament and the gaining of this right remained as a further objective of the women suffragists. Many large, influential meetings were held claiming the right of women to entry of the Legislatures. A deputation of women about this subject waited on the Madras Governor and their claims were supported by him and by his Government. The Imperial Legislative Assembly and the Council of State had been accorded the power to grant women the franchise for their assemblies also by resolution, but only for those provinces which had already granted women the Legislative franchise. The Legislative Assembly has passed by a large majority a Resolution granting the Assembly franchise to the women of such Provinces. Accordingly on November 1928, women in India voted for the first time for the elections of both Provincial Legislative Councils and members of the Legislative Assembly. The number of women who voted in the large cities was surprisingly large in Bombay and Madras Presidencies and comprised women of all castes and communities.

In April, 1926 as a result of a favourable recommendation of the Muddinan Committee on Franchise Reforms, the Rule was changed in the Reform Bill which disqualified women from entering the Legislatures. Power was granted to the Councils and the Assembly to pass Resolutions allowing qualified women to be elected or nominated as members of these bodies.

Again Madras Council, on the 17th July, was the first to pass a Resolution admitting women to its membership. Bombay and the Punjab followed its lead in August and October respectively. This enabled women to become members of the Councils which have been functioning since then. But the permission came too late for women to stand for election with any great chance of success, so the Women's Indian Association asked that women be nominated by Government for the new Councils in those Provinces which had voted to admit them, and that women also be nominated to the Assembly and the Council of State. Thus the year 1926 marked another milestone passed on the road to the complete political emancipation of Indian womanhood.

In 1926 the Central Provinces, the Punjab and Bengal, all granted the franchise to women. The year 1927 was notable for the nomination of the first woman member to a Legislative Council in British India, the recipient of the honour being Dr. MUTHULAKSHMI AMMAL, and she was further honoured by being elected unanimously by her colleagues in the Madras Legislative Council, to the Office of DEPUTY PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL. Since then Mrs. Kale has been nominated to the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces, and Mrs. Ahmed Shaw to that of the United Provinces. A Deputation from the All India Women's Conference in Delhi in 1928 waited on the Viceroy requesting him to nominate two women to the Legislative Assembly. That has still remained ungranted.

The number of women enfranchised by the grant of the vote throughout India will not be more than a million under the present qualifications. Property and not literacy is the basis of the franchise, though the grant of the vote to every graduate of seven years' standing ensures that the best educated women of the country as well as those who have to shoulder the largest property responsibilities will be those who rightly will be the legislative influence on behalf of womanhood. As regards the custom of purdah prevailing in parts of India special provisions have been made in Municipal voting for purdah recording stations for purdah women in which a woman is returning officer and this has been found quite satisfactory and has been adopted also where desired in connection with Legislative Council elections.

Though the Women's Indian Association was the only Indian women's society which had woman suffrage as one of its specific objects, almost all other women's organisations have combined in special efforts for the gaining of municipal and legislative rights and the following ladies have identified themselves specially with the movement: Lady D. Tata, Lady A. Bose, Lady T. Sadasivalar, the Begum of Oambay, Mrs. Ramabai Ranade, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mrs. Jijth Jehangir Petit, Mrs. Tata, Mrs. Wadia, Mrs. Jinnarajadass, Dr. A. Besant, Mrs. M. E. Cousins, Mrs. Sriyanigama, Mrs. Chandrasekhara Iyer, Miss S. Sorabji, Mrs. Khedkar, Dr. Mistry Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammal, Mrs. Palmer, Mrs. Saraladevi Choudhury, Mrs. Kuntadini Basu, Mrs. K. N. Roy, Lady Shafi, Mrs. Hassan Inam, Miss S. E. Das, Mrs. P. K. Sen, Mrs. Eustomji Pandoloni, Mrs. B. Rama Rao, Mrs. Deep Narain Singh, Mrs. Raschid, Mrs. van Gildemeester, etc.

Warrant of Precedence.

A new Warrant of Precedence for India in representation of the notification published on February 10, 1930, which has been approved by His Majesty the King Emperor of India, was published in 1932. Hereafter the following table will be observed with respect to the rank and precedence of persons named, as under—

1 Governor-General and Viceroy of India
2 Governors of Provinces within their respective charges

3 Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal.
4 Commander-in-Chief in India.

5 Governors of the United Provinces, Panjab, Bebar and Burma.

6 Governors of the Central Provinces and Assam.

7 Chief Justice of Bengal

8 Bishop of Calcutta, Metropolitan of India

9 Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council

10 Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Naval Forces in the East Indies

11 President of the Council of State.

12 President of the Legislative Assembly

13 Chief Justice of a High Court other than that of Bengal

14 Bishops of Madras and Bombay

15 Agents to the Governor General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan, Chief Commissioners of the North-West Frontier Province, Members of Executive Councils and Ministers of Governors and Lieutenant-Governors, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore, and Commissioner in Sind,—within their respective charges

16 Chief of the General Staff, Chief Commissioner of Railways, General Officer Commanding Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western Commands, and Officers of the rank of General

17 Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers in Madras, Bombay and Bengal

18 Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, United Provinces, Panjab, Burma and Bebar

19 Agents to the Governor-General in Rajputana, Central India and Baluchistan, Chief Commissioners of the North-West Frontier Province, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, and Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore.

20 Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, Central Provinces and Assam.

21 Presidents of Legislative Councils with in their respective Provinces

22 Chief Judges of Chief Courts, and Puisne Judges of High Courts

23 Lieutenant-Generals

24 Comptroller and Auditor-General, President of the Public Service Commission and President of the Railway Board

25 Bishops of Lahore, Rangoon, Lucknow and Nagpur

26 Members of the Railway Board, Railway Financial Commissioner, and Secretaries to the Government of India.

27 Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to the Government of India, Commissioners in Sind, Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Judges of Chief Courts, and Members of the Central Board of Revenue.

28. Chief Commissioner of the Andamans and Chief Commissioner of Delhi,—within their respective charges, Chief Secretaries to the Governments of Madras, Bombay and Bengal Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States when within the Punjab.

29. Commissioner of Revenue and Customs, Bombay, Consulting Engineer to the Government of India, Development Commissioner, Burma, Director of Development, Bombay Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Financial Commissioner of Posts and Telegraphs, Financial Commissioner, Judicial Commissioners of Oudh, Central Provinces, Sind and Upper Burma, Major-Generals, members of a Board of Revenue, Surgeon-Generals.

30 Vice-Chancellors of the Indian Universities

31 Agents of State Railways, Controller of the Currency, Additional Judicial Commissioners Agency Commissioner, Madras, Commissioners of Divisions and Residents of the 2nd Class,—within their respective charges.

32 Members of the Indian Civil Service of 30 years standing (not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant)

33 Advocate-General, Calcutta

34 Advocates-General, Madras and Bombay

35 Chief Secretaries to Governments other than those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam

36 Bishops (not territorial) under license from the Crown

37 Accountants-General, Class I, Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India, Archdeacons of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, Census Commissioner for India, Chief Controller of Stores, Indian Stores Department, Colonel Commandant and Colonels on the Staff, Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue, Director, Intelligence Bureau, Director-General of Archaeology in India, Director of the Geological Survey Director Royal Indian Marine, when an officer of the Royal Navy of rank lower than Rear Admiral or an officer of the Royal Indian Marine, Extraordinary Commissioner with the Government of India, His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner, Calcutta, Inspector General of Forests, Military Accountant-General, Opium Agent, Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, and Surveyor General of India.

38. Additional Judicial Commissioners, Agency Commissioner Madras, Chief Commissioner of the Andamans, Chief Commissioner of Delhi, Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam, Commissioners of Divisions, and Residents of the 2nd Class.

39 Private Secretary to the Viceroy, Secretaries, Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to Local Governments.

40. Accountants-General other than Class I, Chief Auditors, Eastern Bengal Railway and North-Western Railway, Chief Conservators of Forests, Chief Engineers, Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, Colonels, Command Controllers of Military Accounts, Deputy Controller of the Currency at Bombay, Director of the Botanical Survey of India, Director, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Traffic and Establishment and Railway Board, Director-General of

Commercial Intelligence, Director-General of Observatories, Directors of Public Instruction under Local Governments, Director, Zoological Survey, Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs, His Majesty's Trade Commissioners, Bombay and Calcutta, Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals, Inspectors-General of Police under Local Governments and in the North-West Frontier Province, Inspectors-General of Prisons under Local Governments, Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Indian Political Department of 23 years Civil service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant, Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay, President of the Forest College and Research Institute, Provincial Sanitary Commissioners, Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India, and Traffic Managers and Locomotive Superintendents of State Railways

41 Military Secretary to the Viceroy
42. Solicitor to the Government of India and Standing Counsel to the Government of India.

43. Archdeacons of Lahore, Lucknow, Banagpur and Nagpur and Presidency Senior Chaplains of the Church of Scotland

44 Chairmen of Port Trusts and of Improvement Trusts of the Presidency towns, Bangalore and Karachi, Members of the Public Service Commission, Non-official Presidents of Municipal Corporations in Presidency towns and Bangalore within their respective municipal jurisdictions, Settlement Commissioners, Chief Executive Officers of the Municipalities of the Presidency towns and Bangalore within their charges, and Chief Inspector of Mines

45 Collectors of Customs, Collectors and Magistrates of Districts, Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta, Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara, Deputy Commissioners of Districts, and Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair, Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur), Political Agents and Superintendents, and Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class),—within their respective charges Commissioners of Income Tax, Remembrancers of Legal Affairs and Government Advocates under Local Governments

46 Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Deputy Secretaries to the Government of India, Director Central Bureau of Information, Government of India, Director of Inspection, Indian Stores Department, Director of Purchases and Intelligence, Indian Stores Department, Establishment Officer in the Army Department and to the Railway Board

47 Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Director of the Indian Institute of Science, and Principal of the Thomson Civil Engineering College, Boorli

48. Assistant to the Inspector-General of Forests, Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, North-West Frontier Province Commissioners of Police in the Presidency towns and Bangalore Comptroller, Assam, Conservators of Forests, Controller of Army Factory Accounts, Controller of Marine Accounts, Controller,

Royal Air Force Accounts, Deputy Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, Deputy Director General Indian Medical Service Deputy Director-General of Post Office, Deputy Director-General, Telegraph Traffic, Deputy Director, Intelligence Bureau Deputy Military Accountant-General, Director, Medical Research, Director of Wireless, Directors of Telegraph Engineering, District Controllers of Military Accounts Lieutenant-Colonels, Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Political Department of 18 years' Civil Service, if not holding any other appointment mentioned in this Warrant, Mining Engineer to the Railway Board, Postmasters-General, and Superintending Engineers.

49 Assay Master Bombay, Chief Auditor, Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, Deputy Controllers of the Currency, Calcutta and Northern India, and Deputy Controller General

50 Actuary to the Government of India, Chief Inspector of Explosives, Chief Judges of Small Cause Courts, Presidency towns and Bangalore Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, Director, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Muktesar Directors of major Laboratories Director of Public Instruction, North West Frontier Province

51 Private Secretaries to Governors, and Secretaries and First Assistants in 1st Class Residences

52 Administrators-General Chief Presidency Magistrates, Deputy Agents, Deputy Traffic Managers and Officers of similar status of State Railways Deputy Directors, Railway Board Metallurgical Inspector, Jamshedpur and Officers in Class I of the General of the Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department.

53 Commissioner of Labour, Madras Controller of Patents, Deputy Inspectors-General of Police Directors of Agriculture Directors of Fisheries in Bengal and Madras, Directors of Industries Directors of Land Records, Excise Commissioners, Inspector-General of Railway Police and Police Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General, Rajputana, Inspectors-General of Registration Principal, Research Institute Calcutta, and Registrars of Co-operative Societies

54 District Judges not being Sessions Judges within their own districts

55 First Assistant to the Residents at Aden, Baroda and in Kashmir, Judicial Assistant, Kathiawar and Chairman of Port Trust, Aden

56 Military Secretaries to Governors

57 Senior Chaplains other than those already specified

58 Sheriffs within their own charges.

59 Collectors of Customs, Collectors and Magistrates of Districts, Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta, Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara, Deputy Commissioners of Districts, Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur), Political Agents and Superintendents Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class) and Settlement Officers

60 Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, 1st grade, Chief Forest Officers, Andamans and Nicobars, Deputy Directors of Commercial Intelligence, Deputy Director-General of Archaeology, Deputy Director of Industries, United Provinces, Deputy Postmasters-General, 1st grade, Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, United Provinces, Deputy Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India, Government Solicitors other than the Solicitor and Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India, Managing Director, Opium Factory, Ghazipur, Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 18 years standing, Principals of major Government Colleges, Registrars to the High Courts, Secretaries to Legislative Councils, Senior Inspectors of Mines, Assistant Collectors of Customs, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Engineers, Telegraphs, Executive Engineers of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division, Officers of the Archaeological and other Scientific Departments, Officers of the Civil Veterinary Department, Officers of Class II of the General or Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department, Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service, Officers of the Indian Forest Department, Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department, Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of a similar status and of a similar standing, Assistant Commissioners of Income-Tax, Madras, Assistant Commissioners of Income-Tax, Instructor Wireless, Wireless Research Officers, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Wireless, Officers of the 1st Division, Superior Traffic Branch of the Telegraph Department of 20 years standing, Superintendent of the Government Test House

61 Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India, Assistant Director, Public Information, Government of India, and Under-Secretaries to the Government of India

62 Agent-General in India for the British Protectorate in Africa under the administration of the Colonial Office, Chief Constructor of the Royal Indian Marine Dockyard at Bombay Consulting Surveyor to the Government, Bombay Directors of the Persian Gulf Section and of the Persian Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department, Directors of Survey Madras and Bengal, Keeper of the Records of the Government of the India, and Librarian, Imperial Library

63 Civilian Superintendents of Ordnance Factories, District Judges not being Sessions Judges, Majors, and Members of the Indian Civil Service of 12 years standing

64

65 Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, 2nd grade, Assistant Superintendents of the Imperial Survey of India, Chief Works Chemist, United Provinces, Civil Engineer Adviser to the Director of Ordnance Factories, Deputy Postmasters-General, 2nd grade, Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 10 years stand-

ing, Officer in charge of the Mathematical Instrument Office, Presidency Postmasters, Superintendent, Bombay City Survey and Land Records, Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of less than 20 years' standing, Assistant Collectors of Customs, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Telegraphs, Executive Engineers of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division, Officers of the Archaeological and other Scientific Departments, Officers of the Civil Veterinary Department, Officers of Class II of the General or Public Works List of the Indian Finance Department, Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service, Officers of the Indian Forest Department, Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department and Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of district officer or a position of similar status of 12 years' standing, Examiner of Local Fund Accounts, Madras, Assistant Commissioners of Income-Tax, Instructor Wireless, Wireless Research Officers, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Wireless, Officers of the 1st Division, Superior Traffic Branch of the Telegraph Department, Forest Engineers of 12 years' standing, Works Managers Indian Ordnance Factories

66 Assistant Commissioners (Senior), Northern India Salt Revenue Assistant Director of Dairy Farms, Assistant Directors, Railway Board, Assistant Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Assistant Secretaries to the Government of India, Chemical Examiner for Customs and Excise, Calcutta, Chief Chemical Examiner, Central Chemical Laboratory, Naini Tal, Chief Inspectors of Factories and Boilers in Bengal and Bombay, Commander of the steamer employed in the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department, Curator of the Bureau of Education, Deputy Administrator-General, Bengal Deputy Commissioner Northern India Salt Revenue, Deputy Commissioners of Salt and Excise, Deputy Director of Land Records, Burma, Deputy Sanitary Commissioners Superintendents of Central Jails and Civil Surgeons not belonging to the Indian Medical Service, Director Vaccine Institute, Belgium, Emigration Commissioners, Engineer and Electrician of the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department, Examiner of Questioned Documents, Executive Engineers of less than 12 years standing, First Assistant Commissioner Port Blair, Honorary Presidency Magistrates, Judge of the City Civil Court, Madras, Judges of Presidency Courts of Small Causes, Lady Assistants to the Inspector General Civil Hospitals, Legal Assistant in the Legislative Department of the Government of India, Officers of the Provincial Civil Services drawing the maximum pay of the three-scale of upwards, Presidency Magistrates, Protector of Emigrants and Superintendents of Emigration, Calcutta, Protectors of Emigrants, Public Prosecutors in Bengal and in Sind, Registrars to Chief Courts, Registrar of Companies, Bombay, Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Bengal, Secretary, Board of Examiners, Secretary to the Board of Revenue in the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, Madras, when a member of the Provincial Service, Senior Income-tax Officer

Bombay, and Income-tax Officers drawing the maximum pay of the time-scale, and Sub-Deputy Opium Agents.

1. The entries in the above table apply exclusively to the persons entered therein, and while regulating their relative precedence with each other, do not give them any precedence over members of the non-official community resident in India who shall take their place according to usage.

2. Officers in the above table will take precedence in order of the numbers of the entries. Those included in one number will take precedence *inter se* according to the date of entry into that number.

3. When an officer holds more than one position in the table he will be entitled to the highest position accorded to him.

4. Officers who are temporarily officiating in any number in the table will rank in that number below permanent incumbents.

5. All officers not mentioned in the above table, whose rank is regulated by comparison with rank in the army, to have the same rank with reference to civil servants as is enjoyed by military officers of equal grades.

6. All other persons who may not be mentioned in this table to take rank according to general usage, which is to be explained and determined by the Governor-General in Council in case any question shall arise. When the position of any such person is so determined and notified, it shall be entered in the table in *italics*, provided he holds an appointment in India.

7. Nothing in the foregoing rules to disturb the existing practice relating to precedence at the Courts of Indian States or on occasions of intercourse with Indians, and the Governor-General in Council to be empowered to make rules for such occasions in case any dispute shall arise.

8. The following will take courtesy rank as shown —

Consuls-General, immediately after article 87, which includes Colonels Commandant, Consuls, immediately after article 40, which includes

Colonels Vice-Consuls, immediately after article 83, which includes Majors.

Consular officers do carriage will in their respective grades take precedence of consular officers who are not do carriage.

9. The following may be given, by courtesy, precedence as shown below, provided that they do not hold appointments in India —

Peers according to their precedence in England, Knights of the Garter, the Thistle and St. Patrick, Privy Counsellors, Members of the Council of the Secretary of State for India. — Immediately after Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council, article 8.

Baronets of England, Scotland, Ireland and the United Kingdom, according to date of Patents. Knights Grand Cross of the Bath, Knights Grand Cross of the Star of India, Knights Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George, Knights Grand Commander of the Indian Empire, Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order, Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the British Empire. Immediately after the Commissioner in Siam (Article 15); Knights Commander of the Bath, Knights Commander of the Star of India, Knights Commander of St. Michael and St. George, Knights Commander of the Indian Empire, Knights Commander of the Royal Victorian Order, Knights Commander of the Order of the British Empire and Knights Bachelor. Immediately after the Residents of the Second Class, Article 81.

10. All ladies, unless by virtue of holding an appointment themselves they are entitled to a higher position in the table, to take place according to the rank herein assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of Peers and of ladies having precedence in England independently of their husbands, and who are not in rank below the daughters of Barons such ladies to take place according to their several ranks, with reference to such precedence in England, immediately after the wives of Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

SALUTES

Persons	No of GUNS.
Imperial salute	101
Royal salute	31
Members of the Royal Family	31
Foreign Sovereigns and members of their families	21
Maharajahs of Nepal	21
Sultan of Muscat	21
Sultan of Zanzibar	21
Ambassadors	19
Governor of the French Settlements in India	17
Governor of Portuguese India	17
Governors of His Majesty's Colonies	17
Lieutenant-Governors of His Majesty's Colonies	15
Proconsuls and Mayors	15
Governor of Damana	9
Governor of Bha	9

Occasions on which salute is fired

When the Sovereign is present in person
On the anniversary of the Birth, Accession and Coronation of the reigning Sovereign, the Birthday of the Consort of the reigning Sovereign, the Birthday of the Queen Mother, Proclamation Day

On arrival at, or departure from a military station, or when attending a State ceremony

Persons.	No. of Guns.	Occasions on which salute is fired
Viceroy and Governor-General	21	On arrival at, or departure from a military station within Indian territories or when attending a State ceremony
Governors of Presidencies and Provinces in India.	17	On assuming or relinquishing office whether temporarily or permanently. On occasions of a public arrival at, or departure from a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions such as arriving at or leaving a Durbar, or when paying a formal visit to a Ruling Chief. Also on occasions of private arrival at, or departure from, a military station, if desired.
Residents, 1st Class	13	} Same as Governors
Agents to the Governor-General	13	
Commissioner in Sind	13	
Agent to the Governor in Kathiawar	13	
Residents, 2nd Class	13	} On assuming or relinquishing office, and on occasion of a public arrival at, or departure from a military station
Political Agents (b)	11	
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a Field Marshal).	19	} On assuming or relinquishing office. On public arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure if desired
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a General)	17	
Naval Commander-in-Chief, East Indies Squadron (c)		Same as for military officer of corresponding rank (see K. R.)
G O, C in C. Commands (d)	15	} On assuming or relinquishing command and on occasions of public arrival at or departure from, a military station within their command. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired
Major-Generals Commanding Districts (d)	13	
Major-Generals and Colonel-Commandants Commanding Brigades (d)	11	

Permanent Salutes to Ruling Princes and Chiefs

Salutes of 21 guns
 Baroda The Maharaja (Gaekwar) of
 Gwalior The Maharaja (Scindia) of
 Hyderabad The Nizam of
 Jammu and Kashmir The Maharaja of
 Mysore The Sultan of
 Mysore The Maharaja of

Salutes of 19 guns
 Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab) of
 Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of
 Kalat. The Khan (Wali) of.
 Kolhapur The Maharaja of.
 Travancore. The Maharaja of.
 Udaipur (Mewar) The Maharana of.

Salutes of 17 guns
 Bahawalpur The Nawab of.
 Bhamrupur The Maharaja of.
 Bikaner The Maharaja of.
 Bundi. The Maharaja Raja of.
 Cochin The Maharaja of

Cutch. The Maharao of
 Jaipur The Maharaja of.
 Jodhpur (Marwar) The Maharaja of.
 Karauli. The Maharaja of.
 Kotah The Maharao of.
 Patiala. The Maharaja of.
 Rewa The Maharaja of.
 Tonk The Nawab of.

Salutes of 15 guns.
 Alwar The Maharaja of
 Banswara. The Maharawal of.
 Bhatnagar The Maharaja of.
 Datta The Maharaja of.
 Dewas (Senior Branch) The Maharaja of
 Dewas (Junior Branch) The Maharaja of
 Dhar The Maharaja of
 Dholpur The Maharaj Rana of.
 Dungarpur The Maharawal of
 Idar The Maharaja of.
 Jaisalmer The Maharawal of.

(b) Within the territories of the State to which they are attached
 (c) According to naval rank, with two guns added
 (d) No military officer shall receive an artillery salute unless he is in actual military command and is the senior military officer in the spot. Attention is invited to the extra guns allowed for individuals.

Kharpur The Mir of.
 Kishangarh The Maharaja of
 Oodha The Maharaja of.
 Faridgarh The Mahawar of
 Rampur The Nawab of
 Sikkim The Maharaja of.
 Sirohi The Maharao of.

Salutes of 13 guns

Benares The Maharaja of
 Bhavnagar The Maharaja of
 Cooh Behar The Maharaja of.
 Dhruwadhra The Maharaja of
 Jaora The Nawab of
 Jhalwar The Maharaj-Rana of.
 Jind The Maharaja of.
 Junagadh The Nawab of
 Kaporthala The Maharaja of
 Nabha The Maharaja of
 Nawanganar The Maharaja of
 Palampur The Nawab of
 Purbandar The Maharaja of
 Rajppla The Maharaja of.
 Ratlam The Maharaja of.
 Tripura The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 11 guns

Ajagarh The Maharaja of.
 Alirajpur The Raja of
 Baoni The Nawab of.
 Barwani The Rana of
 Biljwar The Maharaja of.
 Bilaspur The Raja of.
 Cambay The Nawab of.
 Chamba The Raja of
 Charkhari The Maharaja of.
 Chhatarpur The Maharaja of.
 Faridkot The Raja of.
 Gondal The Thakur Sahab of.
 Janjira The Nawab of
 Jhabua The Raja of
 Maler Kotla The Nawab of.
 Mandi The Raja of
 Manipur The Maharaja of
 Morvi The Thakur Sahab of.
 Narasinggarh The Raja of.
 Panna The Maharaja of
 Pudukkotai The Raja of
 Radhanpur The Nawab of.
 Rajgarh The Raja of.
 Seilana The Raja of.
 Samthar The Raja of.
 Sirmer The Maharaja of.
 Sitamau The Raja of.
 Suket The Raja of.
 Tehri The Raja of.

Salutes of 9 guns

Balasthor The Nawab (Babi) of.
 Banganapalle The Nawab of
 Baneda The Raja of
 Baraundha The Raja of.
 Bariya The Raja of.
 Ohota Udepur The Raja of
 Danta The Maharana of
 Dharampur The Raja of.
 Dhrol The Thakur Sahab of
 Fadhill (Shukra) The Sultan of
 Halpaw The Sawbwa of
 Jawhar The Raja of
 Kalahandi The Raja of.
 Kengtong The Sawbwa of
 Khilchipur The Rao Bahadur of
 Kishn and Socotra The Sultan of
 Labej (or Al Hauta) The Sultan of
 Limbdi The Thakur Sahab of
 Loharu The Nawab of
 Lunawada The Raja of.
 Malhar The Raja of
 Mayurbhanj The Maharaja of
 Mong Nai The Sawbwa of.
 Mudhol The Raja of
 Nagod The Raja of
 Pakitana The Thakur Sahab of
 Patna The Maharaja of
 Rajkot The Thakur Sahab of
 Sachin The Nawab of
 Sangli The Chief of
 Savantvadi The Bar Desai of
 Shehr and Mokalla The Sultan of
 Sonpur The Maharaja of
 Sunth The Raja of.
 Vankar The Raj Sahab of
 Wadhwan The Thakur Sahab of
 Yawnghwa The Sawbwa of.

Personal Salutes.

Salutes of 21 guns

Indore His Highness Maharaja Yashwant Rao
 also Raja Sahab of
 Kalat His Highness Mir Sir Mahmud Khan
 G.C.I.E., Wall of
 Travancore His Highness the Maharaja of
 Udaipur (Mewar) His Highness Maharaja-
 dhiraja Maharana of

Salutes of 19 guns.

Bikaner Major-General His Highness Maharaja
 Sir Ganga Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., G.C.B.,
 G.O.V.O., G.R.E. K.C.B., A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Kotah Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.B., Maharaja of	Sachin His Highness Nawab Sir Mohamed Haidar Mohommad Yakut Khan, Mubammat Daula Nasrat Jung Bahadur, Nawab of
*Mysore Her Highness Maharani Kempa Nanjammanni Avara Vanivilas Rannidhaan, O.I., Maharani of	Shahr and Mokalla, H. H. Sultan Omer bin Awad Alkatty, Shamsur Jung Bahadur, Sultan of
Pudlala Major General His Highness Maharaja Dhiraaj Sir Bhupinder Singh Mahinda Bahadur, G.C.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.C.B. A.D.C., Maharaja of	Vankar Captain His Highness Raj Saheb Sir Amarajinji Banesinji, K.C.I.E., Raja Saheb of
Tomk H. H. Amir ud Daula Wazir ul Mulk Nawab Sir Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur Saulet Jang, G.C.I., G.C.I.E., Nawab of	<i>Salutes of 9 guns</i>
	Dashahr Raja Padam Singh, Raja of
	Dhala Amir Nasir bin Shaif bin Saif bin Abdul Hadi, Amir of
	Jamkhandi Captain Moharben Sir Farahramrav Ramchandrarav, K.C.I.E., Chief of
	Kanker Maharajadhiraja Kamal Deo, Chief of
	Loharu Nawab Sir Amir-ud-din Ahmad Khan Bahadur K.C.I.E., ex Nawab of
	Tawngpong, Hkun Haung Awn, K.S.M., Sawbwa of
<i>Salutes of 17 guns</i>	<i>Local Salutes</i>
Alwar Colonel His Highness Sewal Maharaj Shri Jey Singhji G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., Maharaja of	<i>Salutes of 21 guns</i>
Dholpur Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharajadhiraja Shri Sawal Maharaj Rana Sir Udalbhan Singh Lokindar Bahadur Diler Jang Jai Deo, K.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., Maharaja Rana of	Dhopol The Begam (or Nawab) of Within the limits of her (or his) own territories, permanently
Khangarh Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Umdao Rajahs Baland Makan Maharajadhiraja Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., Maharaja of	Indore The Maharaja (Holkar) of Within the limits of his own territories, permanently
Sirohi His Highness Maharajadhiraja Maharao Sir Kori Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E. ex Maharao of	Udaipur (Mewar) The Maharana of Within the limits of his own territories, permanently
<i>Salutes of 15 guns</i>	<i>Salute of 10 guns</i>
Benares Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Parbhu Narayan Singh Bahadur, G.C.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of	Bharatpur The Maharaja of
Jind Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Bajendra Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.I.E., Maharaja of	Bikaner The Maharaja of
Junagadh His Highness Vall Abad Mohabat Khanji Esauikhanji, Nawab of	Cutch The Maharaja of
Kapurthala Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Jagjit Singh Bahadur, G.C.I., G.C.I.E. Maharaja of	Jalpur The Maharaja of
Nawanagar Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji, G.C.I.E., Maharaja of	Jodhpur (Marwar) The Maharaja of
	Patiala The Maharaja of
	(Within the limits of their own territories, permanently)
	<i>Salute of 17 guns</i>
	Alwar The Maharaja of
	Bhairpur The Mir of
	(Within the limits of their own territories permanently)
	<i>Salutes of 15 guns</i>
	Benares The Maharaja of
	Bhavnagar The Maharaja of
	Jind The Maharaja of
	Junagadh The Nawab of
	Kapurthala The Maharaja of
	Nabha The Maharaja of
	Nawanagar The Maharaja of
	Ratlam The Maharaja of
	(Within the limits of their own territories permanently)
	<i>Salutes of 13 guns</i>
	Bushire His Excellency the Governor of At the termination of an official visit
	Junjra The Nawab of (Within the limits of his own territory, permanently)

* Conferred in the first instance during the minority of her son, the Maharaja of Mysore, and in the capacity of Regent, and subsequently continued for her lifetime

Savantvadi. The Sea Deast of

Salutes of 11 guns

Within the limits of his own territory, permanently

Abu Dhabi. The Shaikh of

Salutes of 5 guns

Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief

Bunder Abbas. The Governor of

Lingah. The Governor of

Muhammarah. The Governor of

Muhammarah. Eldest son of the Shaikh of

} At the termination of an official visit.

Fired on occasions when he visits one of His Majesty's ships as his father's representative

Salutes of 3 guns

Ajman. The Shaikh of

Dibai. The Shaikh of

Ras-at-Kheima. The Shaikh of

Sharjah. The Shaikh of

Umm-ul-Qawain. The Shaikh of

} Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of official visits by these Chiefs

TABLE OF LOCAL PERSONAL SALUTES

*Salutes of 11 guns*His Excellency Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al-Khan,
K.C.M.G., C.S.I., Shaikh of Bahrain

Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL LOCAL SALUTES

Salutes of 17 guns

Council of Ministers (as a whole) of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat

Salutes of 13 guns

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat, when a member of the ruling family

Salutes of 9 guns

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat when not a member of the ruling family

Salutes of 7 guns

Bahrain. The Shaikh of

Kuwait. The Shaikh of

Muhammarah. The Shaikh of

Qatt. The Shaikh of

Salutes of 5 guns

Bahrain. Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family

Kuwait. Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family

Individual Members of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat

} Fired when acting as Deputy of these Chiefs

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

*Salutes of 13 guns*His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khass'al Khan,
C.I.E., C.D.S.I., Shaikh of Muhammarah.

Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief

Indian Orders.

The Star of India

The Order of the Star of India was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1861, and enlarged in 1863, 1875, 1876, 1897, 1902, 1911, 1916 and 1920 and the dignity of Knight Grand Commander may be conferred on Princes or Chiefs of India, or upon British subjects for important and loyal service rendered to the Indian Empire, the second and third classes for services in the Indian Empire thirty years in the department of the Secretary of State for India. It consists of the Sovereign a Grand Master (the Viceroy of India), the first class of forty four Knights Grand Commanders (22 British and 22 Indian), the second class of one hundred Knights Commanders, and the third class of two hundred and twenty five Companions, exclusive of Extra and Honorary Members, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions.

The insignia are (i) the Collar of gold, composed of the lotus of India, of palm branches tied together in native of the united red and white rose, and in the centre an Imperial Crown, all encased in their proper colours and linked together by gold chains. (ii) The Star of a Knight Grand Commander is composed of rays of gold issuing from a centre, having thereon a star of five points in diamonds resting upon a light blue enamelled circular riband, tied at the ends and inscribed with the motto of the Order *Haec sunt Ligna tua Quia*, also in diamonds. That of a Knight Commander is somewhat different, and is described below (iii) The Badge, an onyx cameo having Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy thereon, set in a perforated and ornamental oval, containing the motto of the Order surmounted by a star of five points, all in diamonds. (iv) The Mantle of light blue satin lined with white, and fastened with a cordon of white silk with blue and silver tassels. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

The ribbon of the Order (four inches wide for Knights Grand Commanders) is sky blue having a narrow white stripe towards either edge, and is worn from the right shoulder to the left side. A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width of the same colours and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, and pendant therefrom a badge of a smaller size. (b) on his left breast a Star composed of rays of silver issuing from a gold centre, having thereon a silver star of five points resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon tied at the ends, inscribed with the motto of the Order in diamonds. A Companion wears from his left breast a badge of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of a smaller size pendant to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches. All insignia are returnable at death to the Central Chancery, or if the recipient was resident in India, to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

Sovereign of the Order—His Most Gracious Majesty The King Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order—His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India, the Right Honourable Lord Irwin, F.C., G.M.S.I., G.M.I.,

Officers of the Order—*Registrar* Col the Hon Sir George Arthur Charles Crockett, K.C.V.O., Secretary of the Central Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood, St. James' Palace, London, W 1

Secretary The Hon'ble Sir Charles Watson, K.C.I.E. C.S.I., Secretary to the Government of India in the Foreign and Political Department.

Extra Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.S.I.)

H. I. M. The Queen Empress;
H. B. H. The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

Honorary Knights Commanders (K.C.S.I.)

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khair al Khan, G.C.I.E., Sardar Agdas, Shaikh of Maham-marah and Dependencees

Prince Ismail Mirza, Motamad ed Dowleh Amir i Akram, son of His Royal Highness the late Sultan Sir Masoud Mirza, Yemin ed-Dowleh Sultan of Persia

Honorary Colonel His Highness Proffera, Nepal Tara Dhillah Sri Sri Sri Maharani Sir Bhuik Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana K.C.V.O. Prime Minister and Supreme Commander in Chief of Nepal (Nepal)

Honorary Colonel Supraditpa Manyabar General Sir Baber Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana G.B.E. K.C.I.E., of Nepalese Army (Nepal)

Honorary Companions.

H. E. Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al Khalifah, K.O.L.E., Shaikh of Bahrain and Dependencees.
H. H. Salyid Sir Tahmur bin Faisal bin-us-Salyid Turki K.C.I.E., Sultan of Masqat and Oman
Shaikh Hamed bin Isa al Khalifah, son of the Shaikh of Bahrain

His Excellency Shaikh Ahmad bin Jabina Sabah, C.I.E., Ruler of Kuwait.

Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.S.I.)

H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda

Baron Harris

H. H. the Raja of Cochin

Baron Amptill

H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore

Baron Hardinge of Penshurst

Baron Sydenham

Sir Arthur Lawley

Sir John Hewitt

H. H. the Maharaja of Bikaner

H. H. the Maharaja of Kotah

General Sir Edmund George Harrow

H. H. the Maharaja of Kapurthala

His Exalted Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad

H. H. the Aga Khan

H. H. the Maharaja of Ootah

Baron Willington

H. H. the Maharaja of Benares

H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala

Lord Chalmersford

The Marquess of Reading
The Marquess of Zetland
H. H. The Maharaja Jam Sahib of Navanagar
The Maharaja of Alwar
Baron Lloyd
Earl Incheape
Viscount Lee of Fareham
The Earl of Lytton
Sir Harcourt Butler
Sir Leslie Wilson
Viscount Goschen
Sir William Birdwood
The Right Honourable Sir John Alcock
Simon
Field Marshal Sir Claude William Jacob

Knights Commanders (K.C.S.I.)

Sir Henry Martin Winterbotham
Lieut.-Col. Sir Donald Robertson
Sir Hugh Shakespear Barnes
Sir Arthur Henry Temple Martindale
Sir Joseph Bampfylde Fuller
Lieut.-Col. Arthur John, Baron Stamfordham
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
H. H. Maharaja of Jind
Sir George Stuart Forbes
H. H. Maharaja of Ratlam
Sir Harvey Adamson
Nawab of Murchidabad
Sir John Ontario Miller
Sir Lionel Montague Jacob
Sir Murray Hamrick
Sir Leslie Alexander Selim Porter
Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
Sir Reginald Henry Cradock
Sir James McCrone Douie
Lord Meston of Agra and Dunottar
Sir Benjamin Robertson
Maharajahiraja of Burdwan
Sir Elliot Graham Colvin
Sir Trevorlyn Bacheligh Wynne
H. H. Maharaja of Dewas State (Senior Branch)
Sir John Nathaniel Atkinson
Sir William Thomson Morison
Sir M. F. O'Dwyer
Sir Salyid Ali Imam
Sir Michael William Fenton
Colonel Sir Sidney Gerald Burrard
Sir P. Sundaram Aiyar Swaswami Aiyar
Sir Edward Albert Galt
H. H. Nawab of Maler Kotla
H. H. Maharaja of Sirmur
Sir William Henry Clark
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
Sir Steynning William Edgerley
Sir Harrington Verney Lovell
Sir Robert Woodburn Gillan
Maharaj Sir Bhairon Singh Bahadur
Sir Alexander Gordon Cardew
Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
Sir C. H. A. Hill
H. H. Maharaja Sir Kathar Rao Baba Sahab
Kuar, Maharaja of Dewas (Junior Branch)
H. H. The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra
Lieut.-Col. Sir F. H. Youngblood
Sir T. Morison
Lieut.-Gen. G. M. Khrispatrick
Major-Gen. R. C. O. Stuart
Sir George Rivers Lowndes

H. H. Maharajahbajra Maharawa Sir
Jowahir Singh Bahadur of Jaisalmer
Sir Archdale Barle
Sir Stuart Mitford Fraser
H. H. the Maharaja of Datta
H. H. the Maharaj Rana of Dholpur
Lieut.-General Sir William Balnoir Marshall
Sir William Vincent
Sir Thomas Holland
Sir James Bennett Brunyate
Sir Sydney Arthur Taylor Rowlett
Sir Oswald Vivian Bosanquet
Gen. Sir Alexander Stanhope Cobbe
Sir G. Carmichael
Dr. Sir M. E. Sadler
Major-Gen. Sir Harry Triscott Brooking
Major-Gen. Sir George Tietober Mackinnon
The Right Hon'ble Lord Southborough
Lieut.-Colonel Maharaja Sir Daulat Singhji of Idar
Sir George Barnes
Sir Edward Macleagan
Sir William Morris
Sir N. D. Beaton Bell
Sir L. J. Kershaw
Sir G. S. Curtis
Sir L. Davidson
The Hon'ble Sir C. G. Todhunter
Sir Henry Wheeler
H. H. Sir H. E. C. Dobbs
Captain His Highness Maharawal Shri Sir Ran-
jitsinghji Maranghji, Raja of Daria, Bombay
Khan Bahadur Doctor Miran Sir Muhammad Shah
H. H. Sir William Malcolm Hailey
Sir Hamilton Grant
Khan Bahadur Maharaja Sir Muhammad Ali
Muhammad Khan, of Mahmudabad
Sir Jamsatjee Jeejeebhoy, Bart.
H. H. Sir John Henry Kerr
Dr. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru
Major-General Sir Havelock Charles
Rao Bahadur Sir B. N. Sarma
The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla
H. H. Sir Charles Innes
The Maharao of Sirohi
H. H. Sir Montagu Butler
H. H. The Maharaja of Rajpipla
Sir Frederick Nicholson
H. H. The Maharaja of Jodhpur
Sir Frederic Whyte
The Hon'ble Sir Maurice Hayward
Sir Abdur Rahim
H. H. the Nawab of Junagadh
Sir Basil Blackett
Sir Henry Lawrence
H. H. The Maharaja of Rewa
Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra
Sir Chuzhal V. Mehta
Sir S. P. O'Donnell
H. H. Sir Hugh Lindsay Stephenson
H. H. Sir Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad
Habibullah
Sir William John Keith
Nawab Sir Siddiq Muhammad Khan of Bahawal-
pur
H. H. the Maharaja of Porbander
H. H. Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency
Sir James Crear
Sir Jean Bleu
Sir George Lambert
H. H. the Maharaja of Morvi

The Honourable Sir George Bains
The Honourable Sir Ernest Hosson
Sir Denys Bray
Sir Atul Chandra Chatterjee

Companions (C.S.L.)

Col Charles Edward Yate
Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe
Henry Alken Anderson
Lieut.-Col Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
Charles William Odling
Sir Edward Richard Henry
Henry Farrington Evans
Sir Frederick Styles Philip Lely
George Robert Irwin
Lieut.-Gen Sir George Lloyd Kelly Richardson
Charles Gerwen Bayne
Hartley Kennedy
William Charles Macpherson
Col. James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery
Col James White Thurburn
William Thomas Hall
Richard Townsend Greer
Sir Louis William Dane
Hermann Michael Knoch
Sir Cecil Michael Wilford Brett
Sir Frank Campbell Gates
John Mitchell Holmes
Raja Narendra Chand
Arthur Delaval Younghusband
Oscar Theodore Barrow
Francis Alexander Blake
Percy Comyn Lyon
Algernon Robert Sutherland
Sir George Watson Shaw
William Arbuthnot Inglis
Romer Edward Younghusband
Major-General Sir Herbert Mullaly
John Alexander Brown
Maurice Walter Fox-Strangways
William Lochiel Bapte Lovett Cameron
Major-General Sir Henry Montague Pakington
Hawkes
Francis Capel Harrison
Andrew Edmund Castledun Stuart
Norman Goodford Cholmsley
Walker Francis Rice
Sir Haviland LeMaurier
Cecil Edward Francis Bunbury
Rear-Admiral Allen Thomas Hunt
Henry Walter Badoch
Sir John Walter Rose
Charles Ernest Vear Goumont
George Moss Harriott
Ernest Herbert Cooper Walsh
Sir Edward Vere Lovings
Lieut.-Col Charles Arober
James Peter Orr
Herbert Alexander Casson
William Axel Herts
Sir Mahadev Bhaskar Chaudai
Brevet-Colonel Olive Wigram
Herbert Thompson
Lieut.-Col Sir John Ramsey
Stuart Lockwood Maddox
Dr Sir Gilbert Thomas Walker
Lieut.-Col. Philip Richard Thornhach Gordon
The Hon'ble Khan Sir Zulfikar Ali Khan
Surgeon General George Francis Angelo Harris
Major Edmund Vivian Gabriel
Sir John Stuart Donald
Henry Montague Segundo Mathews

Maulvi Sir Ahmad Humain Nawab Amir Jang
Babdur

Sir Horace Charles Mules
H. H. Raja Sir Biju Chand, Raja of Bilsaspur
Lieut. Col Arthur Russell Aldridge
Lieut.-Col Sir Matthew Richard Henry Wilson
John Charles Burnham
Col Thomas Francis Bruce Renny-Tailyour
Michael Kennedy
Col Alain Chartier de Lotbiniere Joly de
Lotbiniere

Col. Robert Smetton MacLagan
Lieut.-Col Charles Mowbray Dallas
Edward Henry Sommander Clarke
Sir Jagadish Chandra Boss
Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Baig
Oswald Campbell Lees
Lieut.-Col Albert Edward Woods
William Esch Tompsett Bennett
William Ogilvie Bone
William Harrison Moreland

Col Lestock Hamilton Reid
Surgeon-General Henry Wickham Stevenson
Honorary Lieut. Col Raja of Lambagraon
Lieut.-Col Donald John Campbell MacNabb
Lieut.-Col. Henry Walter George Cole
Henry Venn Cobb
Frederick William Johnston
William Henry Lucas
Arthur Leslie Saunders

Raja Sir Daljit Singh of Jullunder
Sir Walter Mande
Sir Henry Ashbrooke Crump
Sir William James Reid
Walter Gunnell Wood
John Cornwallis Godley

A Butterworth
The Hon'ble Sir Herbert John Maynard
Lt.-Col A B Dew
Sir Hugh T. Keeling

Sir Henry Sharp
Sir Robert R. Scott
Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes Sadler
Laurence Robertson
Sir John Gheest Cumming

Lieut. Col Stephen Lushington Apin
Sir James Housemayne DuBoulay
Sir John Barry Wood
Major General Sir Arthur Wigram Money

T A Chalmers
R. Burn
Sir Godfrey B H Fell
Major-General Sir W O Knight
Lt.-Col Sir Cecil Kays

Sir Patrick James Fagan
Col Sir Hormasji Edulji Banatwalla, I.C.S.
Lt.-Col Lawrence Impey
Col Benjamin William Marlow
Lt.-Col Harold Fenton Jacob

Lt.-Col. Francis Beville Pridesaux
Lt.-Col Stuart George Knox
Col. Sir Hugh Whitchurch Ferry
Henry Cecil Ford
Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William Oldham
Francis George French
Sir Horatio Norman Bolton
Major-General J O Rimington
Colonel H R. Hopwood

Brig. General R H W Hughes	Lieut. Col D Donald
L E Buckley	Khan Bahadur Sardar Muhammad Ali Khan
O H Bompas	Qilzibash of Lahore
M M S Gubbay	Col G B M Sarel
Lieut.-Gen Sir Richard Wapshare	Col F E Coningham
Major-Gen J M Walter	Col D A D McVean
Brig.-General W G Hamilton	Col H G Burrard
Major Sir Alexander J Anderson	Col J H Foster Lakin
Major General Sir Theodore Fraser	Col (temporary Col-Comdt) G A H Beatty
Brig. General W N Campbell	Sir Robert Holland
Col. Thomas A. Harrison	C J Hallifax
Major General L O Dunsterville	Major-General H F Cooke
Sir Hugh McPherson	Lieut.-Col E M Pross
Sir Henry Fraser Howard	L T Hazle
Lieut.-Col Herbert Des Voeux	Sir Albion Rajkumar Banerji
Col Charles Ratray	The Hon'ble Sir Reginald Gieney
Evelyn Berkeley Howell	W B Gourlay
Major-General Felix Fordati Ready	Major-General K Wigram & A
Col Herbert Evan Charles Bayley Nepean	Rai Bahadur Dewan Bishan Das
Lieut. Col Patrick Robert Cadell	Captain H H Raja Narendra Sah of Tehri
Lieut.-Col. Montag William Douglas	(Garhwal)
Colonel Charles Macaggart	Sir Arthur Rowland Knapp
The Hon'ble Sir John Perronet Thompson	Sir Norman Edward Marjoribanks
Richard Meredith	Charles Montag King
Sir Madhubai Nandeshankar Nehra	Raj Bahadur Raja Pandit Hari Kishan Kani of
Lieut. Col Sir Thomas Walseley Haig	the Punjab
Herman Cameron Norman	S R Hignell
Sir Reginald Arthur Maub	Colonel S F Muspratt
Colonel Alexander John Henry Swiney	W E Oopleston
Major-General James Wilton O Dowda	Frederick B Evans
Brig.-Lieut.-Col Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson	Colonel Comdt Rivers Berney Worgan, CVO
Colonel (temporary Colonel on the staff) Charles	Major-General W O Black
Ernest Graham Norton	B O Allen
Captain Wilfrid Nunn	J R Webster
Major General Hubert Isaacs	T E Moir
Colonel Stewart Gordon Loch	Diwan Bahadur Raghunatha Rao Ram Chandra
Col Frederick James Moberly	Bao Avargal
Brigadier-Gen Robert Fox Somble	Major C C J Barrett
Colonel Alan Edmondson Tate	Sirdar Bahadur Nawab Mohrab Khan, Chief
Major-Gen William Cross Barratt	of Bugti Tribe
Temporary Brigadier-General Sir Edward Hugh	Sir Godfrey John Vignoles Thomas, Bart.
Bray	Capt. Dudley Burton Napier North
Col (Honorary Brigadier-Gen) Arthur Howarth	Sir Edward M Cook, L.C.S
Pryce Harrison	F O Griffith
Colonel (temporary Major-Gen) Frank Ernest	Maharaj Shri Fateb Singh
Johnson	J Hullah
Major-General Robert Archibald Cass, Jr	The Hon'ble Mr S E. Pease
Frederick Campbell Rose	Sir John F Campbell
Sir Selwyn Howe Fremantle	J Milne
Peter William Leonic	The Hon'ble Sir James Donald
Major-General Charles Arley Fowler	Lt.-Col Sir W F T O'Connor
Major General Harold Hendley	S S Lloyd
Colonel Michael Edward Willoughby	L F Moxhead
Major General Edward Arthur Fagan	H D Craik
Colonel Herbert William Jackson	S A Smyth
Lt.-Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob	Colonel W H Jefferey
The Hon'ble William Pell Barton	O G Adam
C. F Payne	Diwan Bahadur T. Raghavayya Pantulu Garu
W J J Howley	Raja Khas Rasul Khan of Jehangirabad
Sir Bentram P Standen	D H Lees
Sir John L. Maffey	H P Tointon
Lieut.-Col J L W F French-Mallen	A W McNair
Lt.-Col J L E Gordon CB	F Noyce
Colonel C W Proffit	W Sutherland
H H the Nawab of Bhopal	Captain E J Headlam
H M E. Hopkins	S F Stewart
R A Graham	D T Chadwick
Claud Alexander Baron	M E Couchman
Sir Geoffrey R Clarke	F G Pratt
	R Oakden
	The Hon'ble Major-General T H Symons
	F Lewisohn

W P Sangster
T Emerson
A. H. Ley
E Burdon
A W Pim
The Honble Mr A W Botham
L Birley
N Macmichael
A Y G Campbell
Lieut Col S B A Patterson
B Foley
A Langley
Lieutenant-Colonel M L Ferrar
The Honble Sir Charles Watson
Lt Col T H Keyes
B B Dodd
Major H G Vaux
The Honble Mr L W Reynolds
H G Stokes
Rana Bhagat-chand Raja of Jubbal
J C Ker
M G Simpson
J D Sifton ICS
Michael Keane ICS
Lt Colonel C C E Bruce
R T Harrison
C T Mullings
H L Burdwood
J Ghosal
W B Cassels
J H Field
H G Haig
W H J Wilkinson
H A Thornton
C J Irwin
J E C Jukes
H A B Vernon

The Most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire

This Order, instituted by H. M. Queen Victoria, Empress of India, December 1877, and extended and enlarged in 1886, 1887, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1911, 1915 and 1920 is conferred for services rendered to the Indian Empire, and consists of the Sovereign a Grand Master, forty Knights Grand Commanders (of whom the Grand Master is first and principal), one hundred and forty Knights Commanders, and an indefinite number of Companions (not exceeding, without special statute, 20 nominations in any one year), also Extra and Honorary Members over and above the vacancies caused by promotion to a higher class of the Order as well as certain Additional Knights and Companions appointed by special statute Jan 1st, 1909, commemorating the 50th Anniversary of the assumption of Crown Govt. in India.

The Insignia are (1) The COLLAR of gold formed of elephants, lotus flowers, peacocks in their pride and Indian roses, in the centre the Imperial Crown, the whole linked together with chains. (2) The STAR of the Knight Grand Commander comprised of five rays of silver having a small ray of gold between each of them the whole alternately plain and scaled, issuing from a gold centre, having thereon Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Emgy within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold inscribed *Imperatrix Auspexis*, and surmounted by an Imperial Crown gold. (3) The BADGE consisting of a rose, enamelled gules, barbed vert, and

having in the centre Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Emgy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatrix Auspexis* surmounted by an Imperial Crown, also gold. (4) The MANTLE is of Imperial purple satin lined with and fastened by a sash of white silk with purple silk and gold tassels attached. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width of the same colour (purple) and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander pendent therefrom a badge of smaller size (b) on his left breast a star similar to that of the first class, but the rays of which are all of silver.

The above mentioned Insignia are returned at death to the Central Chancery, or if the Knight was resident in India to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

A Companion wears from the left breast a badge (not returnable at death) of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander but of smaller size, pendent to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches.

Sovereign of the Order.—His Most Gracious Majesty The King Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order.—H. E. the Viceroy Lord Irwin.

Officers of the Order.—The same as for the Order of the Star of India.

Extra Knight Grand Commanders
(G. C. I. E.)

The Duke of Connaught

H. E. H. The Prince of Wales

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders
(G. C. I. E.)

H. E. Shaikh Sir Khazal Khan, Shaikh of Mohammara and Dependencies

H. H. Imam Sir Abdul Aziz bin Abdur Rahman bin Faisal al Saud Sultan of Nejd and Dependencies

Honorary Knights Commanders
(K. C. I. E.)

Sir Leon E. Clement-Thomas

Dr Sir Sven Von Hedin

Cavaliere Sir Filippo De Filippi

Honorary Colonel Supraditta Manyabar,

General Sir Baber Shumshere Jung Bahadur

Rana of Nepal

General Sir Juddha Shumshere Jung Bahadur,

Rana of Nepal

H. H. Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Fadhl bin Ali

Sultan of Lahel

Sir Alfred Marlesau

Commanding General Sir Padma Shum Shere

Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal

Genl Sir Tex Shum Shere Jung Bahadur, Rana

of Nepal

H. E. The Shaikh of Bahrain and Dependencies

H. E. General Sir Yang-teeng bin, Chang Chun

and Governor of Hain Kiang Province

General Sir Mohan Shumshere Jung Bahadur

Rana of Nepal

H. E. Salyid Sir Taimur bin Faisal bin Na-

Salyid Turki, C.S.I., Sultan of Muscat and

Oman

H. H. Highness the Maharaja of Bhutan

H. E. Shaikh Sir Ahmed Bin Jabir Sabab,

Ruler of Kuwait

Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.I.E.)

H. H. The Maharaja of Cutch
 Lord Harris
 H. H. The Wali of Kalat
 H. H. The Maharaja of Gondal
 H. H. The Maharaja of Benares
 Lord Amherst
 H. H. The Aga Khan
 Lord Lamington
 Lt. Col. Sir Edmund Ellice
 Sir Walter Laurence
 Sir Arthur Lawley
 H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner
 H. H. The Maharaja of Kotah
 Lord Sydenham
 Maharaja Peshkar Sir Kishan Parashad
 Lord Hardinge
 Sir Louis Dane
 Lord Stamfordham
 Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson
 H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala
 H. H. The Raja of Cochin
 Lord Willingdon
 The Yuvaraja of Mysore
 Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
 H. H. The Maharaja of Jind
 Lord Chalmersford
 The Marquess of Zetland
 Sir Michael Francis O'Dwyer
 Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Arcot
 Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
 H. H. Tukoji Rao III, ex Maharaja of Indore
 H. H. The Maharaja of Cochin
 H. E. Sir George Ambrose Lloyd
 H. H. The Maharaja of Baroda
 H. H. The Maharaja of Alwar
 H. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
 The Marquess of Reading
 Lord Lytton
 H. H. The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra
 The Right Hon'ble Rowland Thomas Baring,
 Earl of Cromer, C.V.O.
 Sir William Henry Hoare Vincent, K.C.S.I.
 K.T., I.C.S.
 Sir Harecourt Butler
 Sir Reginald Craddock
 Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Orme Wilson
 Maharajahdhiraja Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab
 Bahadur of Burdwan
 Viscount Goschen
 H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur
 H. E. The Rt. Hon. Sir Francis Stanley Jackson
 H. E. Sir Malcolm Hailey
 H. H. Maharaja Sir Hari Singh of Kashmir
 H. E. Sir Frederick Sykes
 H. H. The Nawab of Bhopal
 Marquess of Linlithgow
 H. E. Sir Frederick Stanley
 H. H. The Maharajah of Jodhpur

Knights Commanders (K.C.I.E.)

Sir Henry Seymour King
 Baron Inchcape
 Ex-Nawab of Lohara
 Sir Manohetti Bhowagrove
 Sir Andrew Wingate
 Sir Alexander Cunningham
 Sir James George Scott
 Sir Herbert Thirkell White
 Sir Frederick Augustus Nicholson
 Sir Arthur Upton Fanshawe

Raja of Shahpura
 Sir Gangadharav Ganesh, Chief of Miraj
 (Senior Branch)
 Brevet-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott
 Col. Sir John Walter Otley
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Younghusband
 Sir Fredric Styles Philipin Lely
 Lt.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
 Sir Francis Whitmore Smith
 Dr. Sir Thomas Henry Holland
 Khun Bahadur Malabar* Sir Muhammad Ali
 Muhammad Khau of Muhammadabad
 Sir Trevellyn Rashleigh Wynne
 Sir Richard Morris Dane
 Sir Theodore Morison
 Gen. Sir Robert Irvin Scallion
 Sir Archdale Earle
 Sir Charles Stewart Wilson
 Gen. Sir Mervin Henry Stanley Grover
 Lieut. Col. Sir Hugh Daly
 Sir Henry Parrell Burt
 Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay
 Sir Rajendra Nath Mukharji
 Lieut. Col. Sir Henry Beaufoy Thornhill
 H. H. The Nawab of Jaora
 H. H. The Raja of Sitamar
 H. H. The Raj Sahab of Wankaner
 Rear-Adm. Sir Collin Richard Keppel
 Sir John Stanley
 Sir Francis Edward Spring
 H. H. The Maharaja of Bijawar
 Sir John Twigg
 Sir George Abraham Grierson
 Dr. Sir Marc Andel Stein
 Dr. Sir Alfred Gibbs Bourne
 Sir Frank Campbell Gates
 Sir George Macarthey
 Sir Edward Douglas MacLagan
 Maj.-Gen. Sir George John Younghusband
 Sir Brian Egerton
 Sir Stephen George Saxe
 Sir Prabhachandkar D. Patil
 Lieut. Col. Sir John Ramsey
 Sir William Maxwell
 Sir Mokshagundam Visvesvaraya
 His Highness the Maharaja of Santhar
 Sir John Stuart Donald
 Lieut. Col. Sir Percy Molesworth Sykes
 Sir Edward Vere Leveque
 The Hon'ble Raja Sir Rampal Singh of Kurl
 Sudhant
 The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Nawab Malik Sir Umar
 Hayat Khan Tiwana
 H. E. Sir Henry Wheeler
 Sir Mahadeo B. Chaudhali
 Sir James Walker
 Mirza Sir Abbas Ali Balg
 H. H. The Raja of Dewapur
 Khar Bahadur Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul
 Qayum
 Lieut. Gen. Sir Raleigh Gilbert Egerton
 Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry D. Urban Keary
 Sir George Cunningham Buchanan
 Major Gen. Sir William George Lawrence Beynon
 H. H. The Raja of Bagharh
 Maharaja of Sonpur
 Sir John Barry Wood
 Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant
 Lieut.-Col. Maharaja* Sir Jal Chand, of
 Lambarnao

* Personal hereditary title is Raja

Rear-Admiral Sir D. St. A. Wake
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Alfred Horsford Bingley
Sir Godfrey Butler Hunter Fell
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Thomas Joseph O'Donnell
Major-Gen. Sir Godfrey Williams
Sir Nicholas Dodd Beaton Bell
Sir William Sinclair Marjris
His Highness Mektar Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk Miktat of
Chitral
Maulvi Sir Bahim Bakhsh
Sir James Herbert Beesbrooks
Sir C. E. Low, I.O.S.
Maharaj Kruwar Sir Bhopal Singh
Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Mir Shams Shah,
I.O.S.

Lieut. Gen. Sir Edward Locke Elliot
Lieut. Gen. Sir Edward Altham Altham
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Charles Alexander Anderson
Gen. Sir Havelock Hudson
Major-Gen. Sir Wyndham Charles Knight
Major-Gen. Sir Herbert Aveling Raitt
Sir Herbert Guy Doring

Major Gen. Sir H. F. E. Freeland
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
Sud It Meherban Sir M. V. Raja Ghorade,
Raja of Mudhol
Sir W. Maude I.O.S.

Raj Bahadur Sir Bepin Krishna Bose Kt

Sir C. M. Stevenson Moore, I.O.S.

Lieut. Gen. Sir Richard Wapshere

Major Gen. Sir Wilfrid Malleson

Major-Gen. Sir Patrick Hehir

Sir J. G. Dunning

The Hon'ble Sir R. J. Maynard

H. H. The Nawab of Patnapur

Lieut. Gen. Sir Andrew Skene

H. H. The Maharaja of Sirum

H. H. The Nawab of Malerkotla

Sir H. B. C. Dobbs

The Thakor Sahob of Lamdi

Sir H. A. Crump

Sir W. D. Sheppard

Lt.-Col. Sir A. B. Dew

Nawab Sir Khan-I-Zaman Khan, Nawab of Amb

Raja Sir Muhammad Nasim Khan, Mir of Hunza

Col. Sir W. H. Wilcox

H. H. The Maharaja of Panna

Sir H. Le Mesurier

Sir F. J. Fagan

Sir Norcot Warren

Raja Sahibzai Sir Govinda Krishna Yachandruji

varu of Venkatagiri

Sir C. A. Bell

Maulvi Sir Ahmad Husain Nawab Amin Jang

Bahadur

Sir John H. Bliss

Lieutenant-Colonel Sir T. W. Haig

Sir John Henry Kerr

Vice-Admiral Sir Lionel Halsey

H. H. The Maharaja of Sikkim

The Chief of Sangli

Sir H. F. Howard

Sir A. E. Knapp

H. E. Sir H. L. Stephenson

Sir B. A. Mant

Sir B. N. Mitra

The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Muhammad

Muhammadullah Khan of Bhikampur,
U.P.

Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad

Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Habibulla

Sahib Bahadur

Sir H. McPherson

Sir W. J. Reid

Sir E. M. D. Chamler

Sir A. C. Chatterjee

Sir E. E. Holland

The Hon'ble Sir M. B. Dadabhai

Sir G. Raine

Sir C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar Avargal

Sir B. P. O'Donnell

Sir B. P. Standen

Sir Denys Bray

Sir H. A. Bottom

Sir M. V. Joshi

The Hon'ble Sir John Thompson

H. F. Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency

Sir William Barton

Sir Frederick William Johnstone

Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Junior)

H. H. the Maharaja of Chhatarpur

Sir Grimwood Moors

Sir Norman Edward Marjoribank

The Hon'ble Lieutenant Sir Muhammad Alim

dan Sa'id Khan of Chhatari, U.P.

Sir Reginald Glancy

Sir Clement Hindley

The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian

Sir Fasil Hussain

Sir Thomas Middleton

The Hon'ble Sir Thomas Mair

The Hon'ble Sir Alan Pim

Sir Frederic Gauntlett

The Hon'ble Sir Charles Watson

The Hon'ble Lt. Col. Sir H. St. John

Sir Alexander M. Stow

The Maharajah Sahab of Palitana

The Hon'ble Sir Lancelot Graham

Sir Edwin Lutyns

Honorary Companions (C.I.E.)

H. E. Laurent Marie Emile Beauchamp

Dr. Jean Etienne Justin Schneider

Haji Mohammad Ali Rais ul Tajjar of Muham-

merah

Shik Abdulla Bin Lea, son of the Shaikh of

Bahrain

Halder Khan Chhif of Hayat Daud—(Persian

Gulf)

Mirza Ali Karam Khan Shuja-i-Nizam, Dy

Governor of Bandar Abbas

Commanding Col. Ghana Bikram

Lieut.-Col. Farab Jung Bahadur Rana

Major Alfred Paul Jacques Masson

Lieut. Col. Gen. Sugiyama Imperial Japanese

Army

Lieut. Richard Beamish—(Europe)

Lieut. Francois Pierre Paul Razy—(Europe)

Lieut. Col. Bhuban Bikram Rana—(Nepal)

Lieut. Col. Shamsere Bikram Rana—(Nepal)

Lieut. Col. Dumber Shumshere Thapa—(Nepal)

Lieut. Col. Bhairab Shumshere Jung Bahadur

Rana—(Nepal)

Lieut. Col. Madan Man Singh Basnet—(Nepal)

Lieut.-Col. Gambhir Jung Thapa—(Nepal)

Lieut.-Col. Chandra Jung Thapa—(Nepal)

Major Uttam Bikram Rana—(Nepal)

Captain Narsing Bahadur Basnet—(Nepal)

H. E. Shik Abdallah bin Qasim-Al-Thani,

Shaikh of Qatar—(Persian Gulf)

Taoyin Chur Ohn-jul-Ch'ih, Tao-yin of Kashgar
 Sheekh Abdulla bin Jalawi, Amir of Hama
 Nobumiche Sakanobe
 Major Masanokuke Tsunoda
 His Excellency Muhammad Ibrahim Khan,
 Shaikat-ul-Mulk
 Khan Sahib Yusuf Bin Ahmed Kanoo, M.B.
 (Persian Gulf)
 Guraji Hemraj (Nepal)
 Bada Kasi Marichman Singh (Nepal)
 M. A. J. Van Manen

Companions (C I E)

Charles Edward Pitman
 George Felton Mathew
 Thakur Bichu Singh
 Sir Rayner Childs Barker
 Edmund Neel
 Sir John Prescott Hewett
 Sir J. Bampfylde Fuller
 Major-Gen G F L. Marshall
 Lieut.-Gen Sir G L. E. Richardson
 Edward C S. George
 Rao Bahadur Sri Ram Bhikaji Jatar
 Fasalbhai Varam
 Charles E. Buckland
 Harry A. Acworth
 Sir Steyning W. Edgerley
 Col W. R. Yelding
 Hony Col Sir Henry J. Stanyon
 Frederick John Johnstone
 Col. Samuel Haslett Browne
 Frank Henry Cook
 Francis Erskine Dempster
 Lieut. Col. John Shakespear
 Maharaj Rajashri Sankara Subbairar
 Dr Waldemar M. Haffkine
 Rustamji Dhanjibhai Mehta
 Khan Bahadur Manoharji Rustamji Dholu
 Sir Benjamin Robertson
 Sir Duncan James Macpherson
 Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
 Henry Cecil Ferard
 Charles George Palmer
 Lieut.-Col. Samuel John Thomson
 P. C. H. Snow
 Lieut.-Col. A. B. Minchin
 W. T. Van Someren
 Charles Still
 Lieut.-Col. W. B. Browning
 Madhava Rao, Vishwanath Patankar
 Col. Walter Gawen King
 Lieut.-Col. Sir Frank Popham Young
 Lieut.-Col. Malcolm John Mesdie
 Edward Louis Cappel
 George Moss Harriott
 Henry Marsh
 Lieut.-Col. Bertrand Evelyn Malish Gordon
 Henry Felix Hertz
 Sir Courtenay Walter Bennett
 Col. Solomon Charles Frederick Pells
 Col. John Crimmin
 Sir William Jameson Bonhby
 Col. William John Read Rainsford
 Lieut.-General Sir Thomas Edwin Scott
 Lieut.-Col. Laurence Austine Waddell
 Mir Asad Ali Khan General
 Khan Bahadur Subedar-Major Sardar Khan

Hony Capt. Subedar Major Yashu Khan, Sardar Bahadur

Sidney Preston
 Sir Murray Hamrick
 Alexander Lannun Pendock Tucker
 Lieut.-Col. John Clibborn
 Col. George Wingate
 Lieut.-Col. Frank Cooke Webb Ware
 Alexander Porteous
 Col. Thomas Elwood Lindsay Bate
 Rao Bahadur Sir Pandit Sakdeo Parshad
 Sir Stuart Milford Fraser
 Lt.-Gen. Sir Ernest DeBrath
 Walter Bernard deWinton
 Algernon Elliott
 Lt.-Col. Charles Arnold Kemball
 Edward Giles
 Lieut.-Col. Alfred William Alcock
 Lieut.-Col. Douglas Donald
 Dr. Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
 Raja Sir Sikandar Khan of Nagar
 Charles Henry Wilson
 Robert Herriot Henderson
 George Huddleston
 Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
 Lieut.-Col. Arthur D. Arvey Gordon Banne man
 William Bell
 Sir Claude Hamilton Archer Hill
 Edward Henry Somander Clarke
 Webster Boyle Gordon
 Lieut.-Col. Robert Arthur Edward Bean
 Madhu Sudhan Das
 George James Ferram
 Sir C. Sankaran Nayar
 Edward Waller Stoney
 Walter Home
 Lieut.-Col. C. W. Waddington
 Khan Bahadur Barjorji Dorabji Patel
 Lieut.-Col. Sir W. F. T. O'Connor
 Lionel Truninger
 Capt. George Wilson
 William Harrison Moreland
 Sir Montague de Pomeroy Webb
 Sir Hugh William Orange
 Lieut.-Col. Charles Archer
 Major Lionel Maffing Wynne
 Major-General William Arthur Watson
 Col. Alain Chardier de Lotbiniere Joly de
 Lotbiniere
 Herbert Cunningham Clogstoun
 Sir Thomas Robert John Ward
 Major-Genl. Sir Harry Davis Watson
 Sir Derek William George Keppel
 Commander Sir Charles Leopold Cust
 Lt.-Col. Sir David Frain
 Col. William John Daniell Dundee
 The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola
 Sir Edward Albert Galt
 Robert Grig Kennedy
 Col. Henry Thomas Fease
 Col. Malcolm Sydenham Clarke Campbell
 Maj.-Genl. Arthur Le Grand Jacob
 Frederick Palmer
 Surgn. Lieut.-Col. Sir Warren Roland Crooke-
 Lawless
 Lt.-Col. Alexander John Maunsell MacLaughlin
 Francis St. George Manners-Smith
 Sir Pashamarneri Sundaram Aiyar Sivaswami
 Aiyar

H. E. Field-Marshal Sir William Birdwood	Lieut.-Col. Richard Godfrey Jones
William Herbert Dobbie	Lieut.-Col. Sir James Reed Roberts
La.-Col. John Norman Macleod	Lieut.-Col. Lawrence Impy
Rear Admiral George Hayley Hewett	Arthur Ernest Lawson
Ralph Buller Hughes-Buller	Sir Abdon Rajkumar Banerji
Lieut.-Col. Francis Frederic Perry	Lieut.-Col. Frederick Penn Ewos
Diwan Bahadur Sir Daya Kishan Kaul	Cecil Archibald Smith
Lieut. Col. Stuart Hill Godfrey	Raja Sir Gurbaksh Singh Bedi
Lieut.-Col. Sir Denys Brooke Blakeway	Col. Gilbert Walter Palin
Maung Bah 100	Col. Robert Edward Pemberton Pigott
Brigadier-General Ernest William Stuart King	Hony Lieut. Col. Sir William Daniel Henry
Maconochy	Gerald Francis Keatings
William Ellis Jardine	Lieut. Col. John Glennie Greig
Thomas Corby Wilson	Brig. Genl. E. E. T. Hogg
Sir Frederick Loch Halliday	O. A. Barron
Percy Wyndham	Leonard William Reynolds
Cecil Ward Chichele-Plowden	Charles Archibald Walker Ross
Lieut.-Col. Richmond Trevor Crichton	Lieut.-Col. Arthur Dennys Gilbert Ramsay
Albert Claude Verrieres	Pierres Langrabe Moore
Muhammad Aziz ud din Khan	Sir Alfred Chatterton
Nilambar Mukherji	Major Arthur Abercromby Duff
Raj Bahadur Kall Prasanna Ghosh	Lt.-Col. John Lawrence William French Madox
John Newlands	Albert John Harrison
Lieut. Col. Henry Parkin	Dr. Sir Pradulla Chunder Roy
H. E. Sir Montagu Shera Dawes Butler	Col. Francis Raymond
Lieut. Col. Stuart George Knox	Major General Sir William Bernard James
Edgar Thurston	Colonel Sir Sydney D. Agular Crookshank
Sir James Bennett Brunyate	Sir Edward Denison Ross
Reginald Edward Enthoven	Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Israr Hasan Khan
Henry Venn Cobb	Col. Reginald O. Bryan Taylor
Reginald Hugh Breerton	David Wann Akman
William Lochiel Berkeley Souter	Raj Bahadur Raja Pandit Hari Kishan Kaul
Joseph John Nullaly	Lieut. Col. Frederic William Wodehouse
Sir Oswald Vivian Bosanquet	Major General Maitland Cowper
Dr. Sir John Hubert Marshall	Lieut.-Col. Charles Henry James
Col. Frank Goodwin	Alexander Blake Shakespeare
Lieut. Col. George Frederick Chenevix-Trevelch	Sir John Hope Simpson
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James Adolphus Gilder	Lieut.-Col. William Glen Iliston
Walter Culley Madge	Major General Sir Edwin H. de Vera Athinaoa
Lieut.-Col. Wallace Christopher Ramsay Stratton	Walter Stanley Talbot
Lieut. Col. Edward Gelson Grogan	Frank Adrian Lodge
Col. Benjamin William Marlow	Hony Lieut. Col. Sir Robert William Layard
Herbert Gerald Tomkins	Dunlop
Henry Whitby Smith	Raja Hrish Kesh Laha
The Hon. ble Lieut. Col. Francis Beville Pitt Rivers	Joseph Terence Owen Barnard
Lieut.-Col. Ramsay Frederick Clayton Gordon	Lieut.-Col. Townley Richard Filgate
Col. Charles Macgarratt	Alexander Macdonald Rouse
Hopetoun Gabriel Stokes	Charles Cabill Sheridan
Lieut.-Col. Sir Leonard Rogers	Lieut.-Colonel Herbert de Lisle Pollard Lowale
Sir Henry Sharp	Colonel William Wilfrid Welford
Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Shastri	Henry Cuthbert Streetfield
Raj Bahadur Diwan Jamiat Raj	Lt. Col. Sir Cecil Kaye
Alexander Muirhead	Sir William Foster
Alexander Emmanuel English	Col. G. K. Walker
Edward Robert Kaye Benkinsope	Sir Joseph Henry Stone
Sir George Sanky Hart	Col. G. S. Crawford
Col. George Henry Evans	Sardar Sir Appaji Rao Sitole Anklikar
Col. Henry Burden	Lawrence Mercer
William George Knight	Major W. L. Campbell
Rev. Dr. John Anderson Graham	W. G. M. Dundas
Sir Louis James Kershaw	Hony Lieut.-Col. P. R. Cadell
William Taylor Cuthbert	Abanindra Nath Tagore
Hugh Murray	W. H. H. Arden Wood
Pandit Kallias Narayan Hakkar	J. H. Pearson
Lieut.-Col. Ernest Douglas Money	Col. R. J. Blackham
Col. Hugh Roderick Stockley	W. O. Ashmore
Lieut.-Col. Ian McKenzie	Hugh Edward Clerk

Dr Sir Debs Prosad Sarbadhikari
 Frank Charles Daly
 James Gargrave Covenston
 Louis E. B. Cobden-Bamsey
 George Bailey Scott
 The Hon ble Rao Bahadur Bangnath Nam Singh
 Madholkar

Rao Bahadur Sir Raghunath Venkaji Sabnis
 Col William Alcockworth
 Sir Lalubhai Samaldas Mehta
 Leonard Birley

Frank Frederick Lyall
 Lt.-Col. R. Rank Currie Lewis
 Lewis French
 Col Walter Hugh Jeffery
 Richard Meredith
 Albert Howard

Lieut. Col. E. D. Wilson Greig
 Harold Arden Close
 Richard Hugh Tinkell
 Francis Samuel Alfred Slocock
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 Kiran Chandra De

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 Charles Montague King
 Sheikh Riaz Hussain, Khan Bahadur Nawab
 Berkeley John Byng Stephens
 Rear-Admiral Walter Lumden
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 William Peter Sangster

Lieut. Col. Frederick Marshman Bayley
 Sahibzada Abdus Samad, Khan of Rampur
 Cecil Bernard Cotterell
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Col Charles Henry Dudley Ryder
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Rao Bahadur Chuntal Harilal Sotaiwad
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 Khan Bahadur Sheikh Maqbul Hussain
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 Capt. M. W. Furewell
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Evelyn Berkeley Howell
 Colonel William Montague Ellis
 Raja Sir Venganaad Vasudeva, Raja Avargal

Major-Genl James Jackson
 James Anderson Dickson Mc Bain
 Christopher Addams-Williams

Hammett Reginald Clode Hailey

Robert Thomas Dandas

Reginald George Kilby

Robert Egerton Purves

Arthur Bradley Ketkewell

The Hon ble Rai Bahadur Lala Jiam Saran Das

Khan Bahadur Dr. Alian Sir Muhammad Shah

Hugh Aymer Thornton

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Seth Chandmal Dhundha

The Hon ble Mr. Stewart Edmund Peart

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Lt.-Col. J. W. B. Merewether

Lt.-Col. Ambrose Boxwell

Lt.-Col. William Gillitt

Major G. B. Power

Brig General d'Arcy Charles Brownlow

Temporary Major E. W. Bullard

Lt. Col. F. W. Radcliffe

Lt.-Col. E. L. Bagshawe

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Lt.-Col. A. K. Rawlinson

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Diwan Bahadur Lala Bishesar Nath

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Commander E. C. Withers

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Duncan William Wilson

Francis Sylvester Grimston

Capt. Victor Bayley

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Col. Shafte Longfield Craster

Sidney Robert Hignell

Henry Phillips Tollinton

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Lt. Col. David Watson Sutherland

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Col. Henry Robert Crosthwaite

Hon. Lieut. Hilary Lushington Hciman Hunt

Gerald Aymer Levett Yeats

Rai Bahadur Sir Hari Ram Goenka

Shams ul Ulama Sir Jivani Jamshedji Modi

Dewan Bahadur Pandit Krishna Rao Luxman

Pachasakar

- Dewan Bahadur Sir Krishnarajapuram Palle
gondal Putianna Chetty
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Sir Robert Glover Jaquet
Colonel Ralph Ellis Carr-Hall
Lt-Col (Alexander Hero) Odilvy Spence
Lt Col Godfrey Lambert Carter
Lt Col Ernest Arthur Frederick Redl
Harry Seymour Hoyle Pilkington
James Alexander Osmory Fitzpatrick
Lt-Colonel David Lockhart Robertson Lorimer
Lieut-Colonel Terence Humphrey Keyes
Lieut Col. Harold Hay Thorburn
The Hon ble Major Khan Muhammad Akbar Khan
Hony Capt Muhi ud din Khan, Sardar Bahadur
Hony Capt Sardar Natha Singh, Sardar Bahadur
Sardar Pooran Singh Sirdar Bahadur Maj Gen
Girdhar Singh, Sardar Bahadur Lt-Col
Hainer Ali Khan Sardar Bahadur Lt Col
Phillip James Griffiths Pibon
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Beverand William Robert Park
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Lt Col Felix Oswald Newton Mall
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Col Bhola Nauth
Major Harold Richard Patrick McKeon
Major (Tempy Brig General) Henry Owen Knox
Major General James Aichbald Douglas
Charles Rowlett Waskies
Joseph Hurbert Owens
Harry St John Bridger Philby
Major Lewis Cecil Wagstaff
Major Cyril Penrose Paige
Sao Kawn Kiao Intaleng Sawbwa of Kungtung
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Sir Peter Henry Clutterbuck
The Hon ble Mr James Donald
William Woodward Hornell
Lt Col Bawa Jiwan Singh
Thomas Ryan
Arthur William Botham
Col. Henry Francis Cleveland
Lt-Col William Byam Lane
Harry Nelson Heskilue
Alexander Langley
Lt-Col Henry Smith
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Lewis Wynne Hartley
Rai Bahadur Pandit Sir Gopinath
Jhala Sri Mansinghji Suraj Sindhji
Assistant Surgeon Kedar Nath Das
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Lt Col Roger Lloyd Kennion
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Lieut. Col. J. R. Darley
Brev Colonel C. M. Goodbody
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Kumar Uoker Singh
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The Hon ble Sir Arthur Cecil McWatters
Lieut-Colonel Davis Heron
Lieut-Col Edmund Filloson Rich
Norman Ali Khan Sardar Bahadur, late Major
General, Kashmir State Forces
Hony Lieut. Qadir Baksh Khan Bahadur
Roderick Kornell Biersacki
Hony Brigadier General Robert Fox Sorathle
Brig General A B Hawley Drew
Colonel Herbert James Barrett
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Lieut-Col the Lord Belhaven and Stenton I.A.
Llewellyn William Lewis
Lieut Col George McPherson
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Lieut Col W E J Scroggie, I.M.S.
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 Lieut. Col H J Crossley
 Lieut. Col (temporary Col) W A Gordon
 Lieut. Col J D Graham
 Col K G Alexander
 Lieut. Col W H Hamilton
 Lieut. Col O A Sprawson
 Major H G Prescott
 Commander J O Ward
 Temporary Major C F Macpherson
 Captain F C O Balfour
 Col P L Bowers
 H A Sams
 H F Forbes
 Lt.-Col C L Peart
 Honv Brigadier General H De O O Grady
 Lieut.-Col. A do V Willoughby Osborne
 Hon Brigadier General J R Gausseu
 Major G B Murray
 Sir Purushottamdas Thakurdas
 R D Bell
 Rai Bahadur Rala Ram
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 Lt.-Col H O Barnes
 H Clayton
 O B Petman
 F A M H Vincent
 Sir R. Clarke
 M J Cogswell
 Lieut. Col J J Bourke
 Lieut. Col J Stephenson
 H H Haines
 K. S Hole
 Qumetji Nowroji Wadia
 B Telchman
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 Col R. A Needham
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 Captain E I M Barrett
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 Major G G Jolly
 Major A P Manning
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Col H W R. Senior
 Lieut.-Col. R. H Maddox
 Col H W Bowen
 Col J B Keogh
 Col B A Porch
 Col A B Fry
 Col A V W Hope
 Lieut. Col L R Gilbert
 Lieut. Col W D A Keys
 Lieut.-Col W M Anderson
 Major H Murray
 Major O de L Christopher
 Major F M Crespndale
 Major A H Chenevix Trench
 Temporary Major L F Naider
 Captain C G Lloyd
 Temporary Captain E Marrs
 G Evans
 Lieut.-Col S H Slater
 Agha Mirza Muhammad
 Sir E Bonham Carter
 Lieut. Col J H Howell Jones
 Col W E Wilson-Johnston
 Major W S B May
 W B. Dockrill
 G M. O'Rourke
 Capt C R Wason
 Capt O Mackenzie
 Major J B Hanafin
 Major M C Raymond
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 Major General A G Waichope
 Col G F White
 Hon Major R W Hildyard Marria
 Hon Lieut. Mehr Mohammad Khan Sirdar
 Bahadur
 Col R M Betham
 Major General W O Black
 Col E R P Boileau
 Col W L J Carey
 J A Cherry
 Col (temporary Brigadier-Genl) H R Cook
 Col G M Duff
 Lieut. Col E G Hall
 Lieut. Col D R Howitt
 Lieut. Col L Hirsch
 Col O Hodgkinson
 Major G Howson
 Lieut.-Col K M Kirkhope
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 Lt. Col J H Lawrence Archer
 Col R S MacLagan
 Lieut. Col C N Moberly
 Col R C Nanton
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 Lieut.-Col S J Rennie
 Lieut. Col J R Reynolds
 Sir Louis Stuart
 Lieut. Col J W Watson
 Major-Gen N G Woodvatt
 Lieut. Col H. N Young
 Lieut. Col E L Mackenzie
 Lieut. Col O N Watson
 Rossalger Honv Capt Khan Sahib Sirdar
 Bahadur Habibur Rahman Khan
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Sardar Bahadur Sir Sardar Sundar Singh
Majithia
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Sir F St J Gebble
Khan Bahadur Pir Baksh Walad Mian
Muhammad
S S Ayyangar
J A Bichey
F W Woods
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Lieut. Col C A Smith
Lieut. Col F R. Netterville
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Lieut.-Col. J A Stevens
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V Dawson
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Col Rao Bahadur Thakur Sadul Singh
Saiyid Nur-ul Huda
Col John Anderson Dealy
Major-General Harry Christopher Tytler
Major-General A L Tarver
Major-General Cyril Norman Macmillan
Col Harry Beauchamp Douglas Baird
Col Cecil Norris Baker
Col Harry Dixon Parker
Temporary Lieut.-Col. John Francis Haswell
Col. Henry Charles Swinburne Ward
Lieut.-Col Henry Francis Wickham
Lieut.-Col. Duncan Ogilvie
Major James Scott Fitzkeathly
Lt.-Col. Charles Edward Bruce
Major Alexander Frederick Babonau
2nd Lieut Arthur Vernon Hawkins
Colonel Campbell Coffin
W O Renouf
Sorabji Bezorji Mehta
Lt. Col R Verney
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Lt.-Col C R. A. Bond
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C W E Cotton
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Capt E J Calveley Hordern
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Col H Ross
Col D M Watt
Lieut. Col Ikbal Muhammad Khan
Diwan Bahadur Diwan Daulat Rai
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Harry William Maclean Ives
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John Tudor Gwynn
Lieut. Col. Frederick O Kinealy
Lieut. Col William Frederick Harvey
Honorary-Col Lionel Augustus Grimston
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Hugh Charles Sampson
Doctor Edwin John Butler
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Rai Bahadur Jatin Nath Muxumdar
Narayan Malhar Joshi
Hamid Khan
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Colonel Arthur Hugh Morris
Lieut.-Col. Henry Warwick Illius
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Major Alexander Henderson Burn
Lieut.-Col Alfred Eugene Berry
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Lieut. Col. Charles Harold Ayns Tuck
Colonel Henry George Young
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Brevet Colonel Sir Edward Scott Worthington
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Ernest Burdon
Herbert Edward West Martindell
Alexander Montgomerie
Evelyn Robins Abbott
James Cowlishaw Smith
John Richard Cunningham
Stephen Cox
Hugh Kynaston Briscoe
Major General Blts Nevill
Major General Benjamin Hobbs Deane
Captain Lewis Macleod Reid Heath
Major Lionel Edward Lang
Rai Bahadur Mukhi Ram
Rao Bahadur Kesho Govind Damle
James Walls Mackison
Arthur Lambert Playfair
Doctor Mohendra Nath Banarjee
Basil John Gould
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Francis Pepys Rennie
Lt Col Stewart Binkely Agnew Patterson
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Alexander Carmichael Stewart
Walter Frank Hudson
Adrian James Robert Hope
John Willoughby Meares
Major Kenneth Oswald Goldie
Edward Francis Thomas
Edward Luttrell Moysey
Thomas Stewart Macpherson
Maung Po Hla
Arthur Campbell Armstrong
Horace Williamson

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Gerard Anstuther Wathen	Srimant Jagdeo Rao Puar
Khan Bahadur Mir Sharbat Khan	Maulvi Nizam ud Din Ahmed
Natha Singh Sardar Bahadur	Sardar Sahibzada Sultan Ahmed Khan
Raja Manloll Singh Roy	P G Rogers
Khan Bahadur Dr Sir Nasarvanji Choksy	O W Dunn
William Scott Durrant	R E Gibson
Alexander Marr	Lieut. Col G H Russell
Lawrence Morley Stubbs	B J Glancy
Colonel Robert St John Hickman	H B Clayton
James Macdonald Dunnett	E W P Sims
Lieut. Col Michael Lloyd Ferrar	Maung Maung Rya
Levett Mackenzie Kaye	Sardar Bahadur Sheo Narayana Singh
Coryton Jonathan Webster Mayne	W T M Wright
Walter Swain	The Rev E M Macphail
Cyril James Irwin	Lieut-Col Sir G R Kearne
Lancelot Colin Bradford Glascock	M E W Jones
Edwin Lesaware Price	Major-General R Heard
Gavin Scott	L L Mojumdar
Horace Mason Haywood	P B Perdval
Major the Honourable Piers Walter Legh	L O Clarke
Harry Tonkinson	K N Knox
Arthur Edward Nelson	E Oornan Smith
Alexander Shiley Montgomery	Major G C S Black
Kunwar Jagdish Prasad	Mirza Mohamed Ismail
Lieut. Col Andrew Thomas Gage	J M Ewart
Lieut. Col John Phillip Cameron	Rai Bahadur T N Sadihu
Frederick Alexander Leete	W J Littler
Lieut-Col Henry Ross	B Venkatapathraju Garu
Captain Victor Felix Gamble	F Clayton
Major General Alfred Hooton	F Young
Arnold Albert Musto	Khan Bahadur Sardar Asghar Ali
Abdoor Bahim	A W Street
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The Reverend Canon Edward Guilford	E B Thakur Mangal Singh
Keshab Chandra Roy	Diwan Bahadur P Kesava Pillai Avargal
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U Po Tha	A A L Parsons
Nazroji Bapooji Saklatwala	F C Turner
William Stantiall	J A L Swan
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Rao Bahadur Thakur Hari Singh	Colonel C H Bensley
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J R Martin	F G Rutherford
Lt Col D G Mitchell	Lieut. Col C D Ogilvie
Lt-Col E. H. Chenevix Trench	Lieut. Colonel E C G Maddock
E G B Peel	F Anderson
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Lt-Col T Hunter	H Colvert
Lt-Col R. McCarrison	U Mc
H G Haig	Lieut. Col the Revd W T Wright
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R M Maxwell	Rai Bahadur Sukhamaya Chaudhuri
J H Hebble	Diwan Bahadur T Bangachariyar
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Khan Bahadur Khan Muhammad Hayat Khan	Sardar Bahadur Sardar Jawahir Singh
Major the Rev G D Barne	Captain Nizam ud Din Bahadur
J Evershed	Khan Bahadur Sir Shah Nawaz Khan Bhatta
C A H Townsend	Rao Bahadur D B Itaghubir Singh
E W Legh	Khan Bahadur K Rustomji
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Lieut Col J A Brett	D Muir
Major H E Lawrence	W Boche
A M Macmillan	Rai Bhawambhar Rai Bahadur
Khan Bahadur Qazi Azizuddin Ahmad	Raj P Mukharyj Bahadur
Oscar De Glanville	G K Devdhar
K B Sir Bahramji Hormasji Nanavati	Chaudhari Chhaju Ram
Surendra Nath Mullick	J H R Fraser
J E D Glascock	Lt-Col J C H Leicester
Col S H E Nicholas	C W C Carson
H A F Lindsay	J N Gupta
Kashinath Shriram Jatar	G L Soames
Rao Bahadur Vangal Chitruvenkata Krishnam	H C Liddell
Acharya Avargal	A G Rile
G Wiles	J B G Smith
Bahisada Abdul Majid Khan	D L Drake Brockman
E E Foy	D M Stewart
B A Collins	R Littlehales
E R Macdonachie	J A Baker
P Hawkins	Lt-Col R W Macdonald
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C M King	A B Briggs
H W Emerson	Lt Col L D E Kentostey
P A Kelly	J E Armstrong
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H S Crosthwaite	P L Orde
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M Irving	Colonel C C Palmer
H O B Shoubridge	J Hazlett ICS
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Rai Bahadur H K Raha	R O Chamlor
J C B Drake	E H Berthoud, ICS
Lieut-Col T W Harley	H A Horton
G Clarke	W H Doshi
Major D G Sandeman	D B Mulla
H J Bhabha	G Morgan
Bardar Mir M A Khin	Rao Bahadur Raju Ram Singh of Mahajan
Khwaya Nasim ud Din	K B Cheng
A C Woolmer	J W Thomas
A I Overton	Gurbar Shriv M Sarag
P F Burrill	C G Dey
H Denning	J G Beasley
W R Brinde	A P Gilliat
G W Hatch	R H Beckett
C L Wills	T B Copeland
H A Lums	T G Arnould
K H Framji	C S C Harrison
Col W H Evans	A H Mackenzie
G E Fawcett	G A Cocks
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 Lt Col H R. N Pritchard
 Khan Bahadur Kutub-ud Din Ahmed
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 C A Bentley
 Col O W Chitty
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 J D V Hodge
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 F I Playman
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 I V Wyle
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 J McIlashan
 M L A
 J Hormasji
 Rai Bahadur Sk Ghosh.
 Diwan Bahadur G N Chetti Garn.
 Lt Col B J W Heale
 M B Cameron.
 A V L Cater
 F A Hashan.
 M G Hallett
 A J Laine
 D J Boyd

J Gagne
 Col. G W Ross.
 W S Jannyayala V N Garu
 T Sloan
 R G Grieve
 S Walker
 M Wobb
 H L Newman
 Col W V Coppinger
 B O Burt
 Lt-Col A F Hamilton
 J L Sale
 W T Roberts.
 Lt Col J C Morr
 S B Teja Singh Malik
 Miran Mohammed Shah Nawaz
 R B Kesho W Brahma
 K B Hardar Hassan Khan Currbani
 Major Genl G Tate
 G Kaula
 B B P Lory
 F C Paury
 J B R. Channer
 Lt Col W J Powell
 D G Mackenzie
 R R Stimpson
 G T H Brackon
 R N Reid
 H Puckle
 B R Rau
 G R. F Tottenham
 D W Perry
 Lt Col H R. Dutton
 Lt-Col H H McGann
 Lt Col J J T MacKnight
 Col C H Haswell
 O W R Arbuthnot
 Khann Bahadur Shaikh Abdul Aziz
 L Mason
 Major S P Williams
 R M Statham
 M Ratnaswami
 R T Russell.
 G R Dain

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India.

This Order was instituted Jan 1, 1878 and for a like purpose with the simultaneously created Order of the Indian Empire. It consists of the Queen and Queen Mother with some Royal Princesses, and the female relatives of Indian Princes or of persons who have held conspicuous offices in connection with India. Badge, the Royal Cypher in jewels within an oval surmounted by an Heraldic Crown and attached to a bow of light blue watered ribbon, edged white. Designation, the letters C I

Sovereign of the Order

THE KING EMPEROR OF INDIA

Ladies of the Order (C I)

Her Majesty The Queen
 H M the Queen of Norway
 H R. H the Princess Victoria

H. M. The Queen of Roumania
 H. B. H. Princess Beatrix
 The Ex-Duchess of Cumberland
 H. B. H. the Princess Louise (Duchess of Argyll)
 H. I. and R. H. Grand Duchess Cyril
 H. B. H. The Princess of Hohenzollern-Langenburg
 Lady Patricia Ramsey
 H. M. the Princess Marie-Louise

Baroness Kinloss
 Lady Jane Emma Crichton
 Dowager Countess of Lytton
 Dowager Baroness Napier of Magdala
 Dowager Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava
 H. H. Maharani of Cooh-Behar
 Marchioness of Lansdowne

Constance Mary Baroness Wenlock
 H. H. Maharani Sahib Chhima Bai Gaekwar
 H. H. Rani Sahib of Gondal
 H. H. the Dowager Maharani of Mysore
 Lady George Hamilton
 H. H. the Maharani Sahiba of Udaipur
 Alice, Baroness Northcote
 Amelia Maria, Lady White
 Baroness Amptill

Countess of Minto
 Marchioness of Crewe
 Frances Charlotte, Lady Cholmondeston
 The Lady Willington
 H. H. Maharani Chinkoo Raja Sahiba Scindia
 Alijah Bahadur of Gwalior
 H. E. The Lady Irwin
 Countess of Lytton
 H. H. the Maharani Regent of Travancore State
 Viscountess Goochen
 Lady Birdwood

Distinctive Badges.—An announcement was made at the Coronation Durbar in 1911, that a distinctive badge should be granted to present holders and future recipients of the titles of 'Diwan Bahadur', 'Sardar Bahadur', 'Khan Bahadur', 'Rai Bahadur', 'Rao Bahadur', 'Khan Sahib', 'Rai Sahib' and 'Rao Sahib'. Subsequently the following regulations in respect of these decorations were issued:—(1) The decoration is to be worn by the holders of the titles above mentioned shall be a badge or medallion bearing the King's effigy crowned and the name of the title, both to be executed on a plaque or shield surrounded by a five-pointed star surmounted by the Imperial Crown, the plaque or shield being of silver gilt for the titles of Diwan, Sardar, Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur, and of silver for the titles of Khan, Rai, and Rao Sahib. (2) The badge shall be worn suspended round the neck by a ribbon of one inch and a half in width, which for the titles of Diwan and Sardar Bahadur shall be light blue with a dark blue border, for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur light red with a dark red border, and for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Sahib dark blue with light blue border.

A Press Note issued in November, 1914, states—The Government of India have recently had under consideration the question of the position in which miniatures of Indian titles should be worn, and have decided that they should be worn on the left breast fastened by a brooch, and not suspended round the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the

badge itself. When the miniatures are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaiser-i Hind Medal.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907 by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII. and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words For Distinguished Service. The medal, 1½ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon 1½ in wide, with blue edges ½ in wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Order of Merit.—This reward of valour was instituted by the H. L. I. Co. in 1837 to reward personal bravery without any reference to length of service or good conduct. It is divided into three classes and is awarded to native officers and men for distinguished conduct in the field. On the advancement from one class to another the star is surrendered to the Government, and the superior class substituted, but in the event of the death of the recipient his relatives retain the decoration. The order carries with it an increase of one third in the pay of the recipient and in the event of his death the allowance is continued to his widow for three years. The First Class consists of a star of eight points 1½ in in diameter, having in the centre a group of dark blue enamel bearing crossed swords in gold within a gold circle, and the inscription Reward of Valour, the whole being surmounted by two wreaths of laurel in gold. The Second Class star is of silver with the wreaths of laurel in gold, and the Third Class entirely of silver. The decoration is suspended from a simple loop and bar from a dark blue ribbon 1½ in in width with red edges bearing a gold or silver buckle according to class.

Order of British India.—This order was instituted at the same time as the Order of Merit, to reward native commissioned officers for long and faithful service in the Indian Army. Since 1878 however any person European or native, holding a commission in a native regiment became eligible for admission to the Order without reference to creed or colour. The First Class consists of a gold eight-pointed radiated star 1½ in in diameter. The centre is occupied by a lion statant guardant upon a ground of light-blue enamel, within a dark-blue band inscribed Order of British India and encircled by two laurel wreaths of gold. A gold loop and ring are attached to the crown for suspension from a broad ornamental band 7½ in in diameter, through which the ribbon, once blue, now red, is passed for suspension from the neck. The Second Class is 1½ in in diameter with dark blue enamelled centre there is no crown on this class and the suspension is formed of an ornamental gold loop. The reverse is plain in both classes. The First Class carries with it the title *Sirdar Bahadur* and an additional allowance of two rupees a day and the Second the title of *Bahadur* and an extra allowance of one rupee per day.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal—This was instituted on July 27th, 1888, and on receipt of the medal the order states "a non-commissioned officer must surrender his Long Service and Good Conduct medal" but on being promoted to a commission he may retain the M. S. medal, but the amulet attached to it will cease. On the obverse is the diademed bust of Queen Victoria facing left, with a veil falling over the crown behind, encircled by the legend Victoria Kaiser-i Hind. On the reverse

is a wreath of lotus leaves enclosing a wreath of palm tied at the base, having a star beneath, between the two wreaths is the inscription for meritorious service. Within the palm wreath is the word India. The medal, 1½ in in diameter, is suspended from a scroll by means of a red ribbon 1½ in wide. The medals issued during the reign of Queen Victoria's successors bear on the obverse their bust in profile with the legend altered to EDWARDVS or GEORGIVS.

THE KAISAR-I-HIND MEDAL

This decoration was instituted in 1900, the preamble to the Royal Warrant—which was amended in 1901 and 1912—being as follows:—Whereas We, taking into Our Royal consideration that there do not exist adequate means whereby We can reward important and useful services rendered to Us in Our Indian Empire in the advancement of the public interests of Our said Empire, and taking also into consideration the expediency of distinguishing such services by some mark of Our Royal favour. Now for the purpose of attaining an end so desirable as that of thus distinguishing such services aforesaid We have instituted and created and by these presents for Us, Our Heirs and Successors, do institute and create a new Decoration. The decoration is styled "The Kaiser-i Hind Medal for Public Service in India" and consists of two classes. The Medal is an oval shaped Badge or Decoration—in gold for the First Class and in silver for the Second Class—with the Royal Cypher on one side and on the reverse the words 'Kaiser-i Hind for Public Service in India' it is suspended on the left breast by a dark blue ribbon.

Recipients of the 1st Class.

Abdul Qayum Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir
Suhbizada J. C. F. E. M. L. A.
Abdus Samad Khan of Rampur
Advani M. S.
Aivar, Mrs. Parvati Ammal Chandra Sekhara
Alexander, A. L.
Allyn, Dr. (Miss) Jessie Matilda, M. D.
Aloysia, Rev. Mother Mary
Amarchand, Rao Bahadur Ramnarayan
Amphill, Margaret, Baroness
Anderson, The Rev. H.
Archer, George Barnes
Ashton, Albert Frederick
Ashton, Dr. R. J.
Baird Smith, J. R.
Balfour, Dr. Ida
Bandaruwalla N. M.
Banks, Mrs. A. E.
Barber, Benjamin Russell
Barber, Rev. I.
Bare, Doctor Kathar Gimson, M. D.
Barnes, Major Ernest
Barton, Mrs. Evelyn Agnes
Bawden, Rev. S. D.
Beale, Dr., American Marathi Mission, Bombay
Dear, Mrs. Georgiana Mary
Beaty, Francis Montagu Algermon
Beck, Miss Emma Josephine

Reil Lt Col Charles Thornhill
Benson, Doctor (Mrs) A. M.
Benson, Lady
Bentley, Dr. Charles Albert
Bestall A. H.
Bikanir Maharaja of
Bingley Major General Alfred
Blanche Annie, Sister
Blowers, Commissioner Arthur Robert
Bonington, Max Carl Christian
Booth Tucker, Frederick St. George de Lautour
Bosanguet, Oswald Vivian
Boso, Rai Bahadur Sir Lipin Krishna
Bott Captain E. H.
Brahmachari Rao Bahadur U. N.
Bramley, Percy Brooke
Bray, Denys DeSaumarez
Brayne, Mrs.
Broadway, Alexander
Brown, Rev. A. E.
Brown, Dr. Miss E.
Brown, Rev. W. E. W.
Brunton, James Forest
Buchanan, Rev. John
Bull, Henry Martin
Burn, Richard
Burnett, General Sir Charles John
Buttler, Lady Ann Gertrude
Caleb, Dr. G. O.
Calnan Denis
Campbell, Colonel Sir Robert Neil
Campbell, Dr. Miss S.
Campion John Montriou
Carleton, Dr. (Miss) Jessie, M. D.
Carleton Marcus Bradford
Carjile, Lady
Carmichael, Lady
Carter Edward Clark
Cassels, Mrs. Sylvia
Castor, Lieut. Col. R. H.
Chand Sakhi Rai Bahadur
Chand Rai Bahadur Lala Tara
Chandrasekhara Ayyar M. R. I. V. P. S. A.
Chapman R. A. B.
Chatterton, The Rt. Rev. Eyre D. D.
Chatterton, Alfred
Chatterton, Mrs. L.
Chaudhuri, Raja Sarat Chandra Rai
Chetty Dewan Bahadur K. P. Puttanza
Chitnavis Sir Shankar Madho
Chuts, Mrs.
Coldstrau, William
Comley, Mrs. Alice
Commissariat (Miss) Sherin Hormushaw
Copeland Theodore Ronney
Coppel, Right Rev. Bishop Francis Stephens

- Corbett Capt J E (Retd)
Cousens, Henry
Cox, Arthur Frederick
Crawford Francis Colomb
Croschwaite, The Rev C A.
Crouch, H N
- Dane, Lady
Darbyshire, Miss Ruth
Das, Ram Saran
Das, Sri Gadadhar Ramenuj
Das, Rai Bahadur Jala Mathra
- Davies, Arthur
Davies, Rev Can A W
Davis, Caleb
Davies Mrs Edwin
Davis, The Rev C
Davis, Miss Gertrude
Darys, Mrs
- Dawson Brevet-Colonel Charles Hutton
Deane, Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert Edward
Devil, Maharani Farhati
deLobiniere, Lieutenant-Colonel Alain O Joly
Devdhar, G K
Desika Acharivar D B SRT
- Dewas (Junior Branch), Maharaja of
Dhar Her Highness the Rani Sahiba Luxmibai
Pavar of
Dhingra, Dr Behari Lal
Dobson, Mrs Margaret
Dodson, Mrs L J
- Douglas Dr J
Drysdale, Rev J A
DuBern, Amadeo George
DuBern, Jules Emile
Dyson, Colonel Thomas Edward
- Earle, Sir Archdale
Ernest Dr A L
Edgley, N G A
Edith Lady Huald
Evans, The Rev J C
- Fargetson Father A.
Farrer, Miss E M
Istina Siddhika, Begum Saheba
Ferari Mrs Ida Margaret
Fosbrooke, Mrs M E. A
Francis Edward Belotum
Friedt Moller C F
- Ghosal, Mr Jyotannath
Gillmore, The Rev David Chandler
Glasbrook, N S
Glehn, Henry James Heamey
Gonzaga Rev Mother
Gordon The Rev D R
Gouchen, Viscountess
- Gould Miss Hilda
Graham, Miss A S
Gregory Brother
Graham The Rev John Anderson
Graham, Mrs Kate
Grattan Colonel Henry William
Griffin Miss E
Gulford The Rev E (with Gold Bar)
Guyer, H C
- Gwyther, Lieut. Colonel Arthur
Hahn, The Rev Ferdinand
Haig, Lieutenant-Colonel Patrick Balkur
Hall Harold Fielding Patrick
Halliday, Rev R
Hamilton, Major Robert Edward Archibald
- Hankin E H
Hanson The Rev O
Harper Dr E
Hart Dr Louisa Helena
Harvest, Lieut-Colonel Herbert de Vere
Harvey Miss R.
Hatch Miss Sarah Isabel
Hawker Miss A M
Henrietta Mother
Hey Miss D O delay
Hibberd Miss J F
Hickinbotham The Rev J H
Higginbotham, S
Hildesley, The Rev Alfred Herbert
Hodgson, Edward Marden
Hodgson, (Miss) F A
Hook, Rev Father L V
Hogan W J Alexander
Holmes, Major J A H
Holdersness Sir Thomas William
Holland H T
Home Walter
Hopkins Mrs Jessie
Hormusji, Dr S O
Houston, Dr (Miss) Charlotte, M D
Howard Mrs. Gabrielle Louise Caroline
Hoyland, John Somerwell
Hume, The Rev E. A
Husband Major James
Hutchinson, Major William Gordon
Hutchinson Sir Sydney Hutton Cooper
Hutchinson, J
Hutwa The Maharani Juan Manjari Kuarl
Hydari Mrs Amina
Irvine, Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Walter
Ives, Harry William Maclean
Iver Diwan Bahadur O S
- Jackson Lady Katharine Anna Dorothy
Jackson, Rev James Chadwick
Jackson Rev W H
James Lieutenant Colonel Charles Henry
Jamlet Rai Diwan Bahadur
- Jankihal
Jehangir Mrs Cowasji
Jehangir (Senior) Lady Dhanlal Cowasji
Jenvier Rev C A R
Jerwood Miss H D
Josephine Sister (B.N., Al)
Josephum Sister (Bomlay)
- Kamrival, Shri Rani Sahela, of Jaudan,
Kaye, G R
Kelly, The Rev E W
Kerr, Mrs Isabel
Kerr Rev George McGlashan
Khan, Khan Bahadur Kuli
Khan, Khan Bahadur Moghal Bas
King Mrs D
Kloppsch, Dr Louis
Kotbari Sir Jehangir Hormusji
Kugelberg Dr C E
Kunwar Maharani Surat
- Lamb, The Hon ble Sir Richard Amphlett
Laut, The Rev W R
Lee, Mrs.
Lee Ah Yain
Lindsay, D Arty
Ling, Miss Catharine Frances
Longmire, Miss Mary
Loubere Rev Father E F A
Lovett, The Hon'ble Mr Harrington Verney
Low, Miss Irene Helen

- Luck, Wilfred Henry
 Lusk, Lady
 Lyall, Frank Frederick
 Lyons, Surgeon General Robert William Steel
 MacLean, Rev J H
 Macnaghten, Mr F M
 Macswait, Major General Robert Charles
 Madhav Rao Vishwanath Patankar
 Mahant of Bimar Math, Puri
 Malagaon, Raja of
 Malvi, Tribhuvandas Narottamdas
 Manockchand, Seth Motilal
 Mann, Dr Harold
 Manners-Smith The Honble Mr Francis
 St. George
 Marie, Rev Mother
 Mary of St. Paula, Rev Mother
 Mathews, Rev Father
 Mayer, Herbert Frederick
 McGarrison, Major Robert
 McCloghry Colonel James
 McDougall, Miss E
 McKensie The Rev J R.
 McNeel The Rev John
 Mehta, Dr D H
 Mehta, Mrs Iravati
 Meiklejohn, Miss W J
 Merton, Rev W
 Millard, Walter Samuel
 Miller The Rev William
 Minto Dowager, Countess of O I
 Moogaokar, Dr S B
 Monahan, Mrs. Ida
 Monahan, Mrs Olive
 Morrison, F E
 Morgan, George
 Muir, Rev E
 Muir Mackenzie Lady Theresa
 Muir, V Krishnarao
 Nariman Dr Temuji Bhikaji
 Narasingh, Her Highness the Rani Shiv Ksh
 war Sahiba of
 Neve Dr Ernest
 Nichols, The Rev Dr Charles Alvord
 Nicholson, Sir Frederick Augustus
 Nisbet, John
 Noyce, William Forey
 Oakley, Rev E S
 O Byrne, Gerald John Evangelist
 O Donnell, Doctor J P
 O'Donnell, Dr Thomas Joseph
 Oh, Maung Ba (alias) Ahmedullah
 Oldham Charles Evelyn Arbutnot William
 O Meara Major Eugene John
 Padfield The Rev W H G
 Parakh, Dr N N
 Paranjpye Dr Raghunath Parashottam
 Parukutti Netayar Ammal, V K
 Paterson Miss M. M.
 Peare, S D
 Pennell, Mrs A M
 Perumal The Rev L C
 Pettigara Khan Bahadur Kavasji Jamshedji
 Phelps, Edwin Ashby
 Pickford Alfred Donald
 Piggott, Miss E
 Pitcher, Colonel Duncan George
 Pittendrigh, Rev G
 Plamondon, Rev Mother S. O
 Plant, Captain William Charles Trew Gray
 Gamb
 Platt, Dr Kate
 Posenett, Rev O W
 Poynder Lieut.-Colonel John Leopold
 Prasad, Pandit Sukhdeo
 Price John Dods
 Pursar Reverend, W C
 Ramchandrarao Pantulu D B M
 Ramanuja Acharyar D B V K A
 Ray, Rao Jogendra Narayan, Raja Bahadur
 Reading Countess of
 Reed, Miss M.
 Reid Frederick David
 Reid E N
 Reynolds Leonard William
 Richmond, Mr Thomas
 Rivington, The Rev Canon, C S
 Roberts, Dr H G
 Robson, Dr Robert George
 Rost, Lt.-Col Ernest Reinhold
 Row, Dr Raghavendra
 Roy, Babu Harendra Lal
 Ruddle, Mrs. M I
 Samthar, Maharaja of
 Rangli Her Highness Rani Sahib of
 Sarajva Rao Mrs Padma Bai
 Sarabhai Ambalal
 Sawday, Rev G W
 Schofield Miss M I
 Schuoren Rev Father T T Vander
 Scott Doctor A
 Scott, Mary H Harriot
 Scott, Rev Dr H E
 Scott, Rev W
 Seudder, Rev Dr Lewis Rousmean
 Seudder, Miss Ida
 Schuyler, Mrs Elsie Harris
 Sell, The Rev Canon Edward
 Semple Lieut.-Colonel Sir David
 Seabagiri Rao Pantulu D B D
 Sharp Henry
 Sharpe, Rev E D
 Sharpe, Walter Samuel
 Sheard, E
 Sheppard, Mrs. Adeline B
 Sheppard, William Didsbury
 Shillidy, The Rev John
 Shore, Lieut. Colonel Robert
 Shoubridge Major Charles Albanysrevis
 Singh, Munshi Ajit
 Singh, Raja Bhagwan Baksh
 Skinner, The Rev Dr William
 Skrefrud The Rev Larsoren
 Smith, Mrs A. C
 Smith, Lieut.-Colonel Henry
 Smith, S
 Solomon, Captain W E
 Sorabji Miss Cornelia
 Southon, Major Charles Edward
 Souza, Dr A
 Spence, Christina Philippa Agnes
 Spicer, Miss
 Stait, Dr Mrs
 St. Louis Reverend Mother
 Stamps, William Leonard
 Stanes, Robert
 Starr, Mrs. L. A (with bar)
 Stephens The Rev E C.
 Stokes, Dr William
 Stratford, Miss L. M.
 Subrawardy, Dr Hassan

Sutherland Rev W S
Symons, Mrs M L
Talati Eddaji Dorabji
Taylor, The Rev George Pritchard
Taylor Dr Herbert F Lechnere
Thakral Lala Mul Chand
Thomas, The Rev
Thompson, Miss E
Thurston, Edgar
Tilly, Harry Lindsay
Tindall, Christian
Todhunter, Lady Ellis
Tucker Lieut.-Col William Hancock
Tweddle Miss B M
Tydeman, E
Tyndale-Biscoe, The Rev Cecil Earle with Gold
Bar
Tyrrell Lieut.-Col Jasper Robert Foley
Vandyke, Frederick Reginald
Vaghnan, Lieut.-Colonel Joseph Charles Storke
Venkataratnam Nayudu D B, Sir Raghupati
Vernon, Mrs Margaret
Victoria Sister Mary
Wake, Lt.-Col R A
Wakefield, George Edward Campbell
Walker, Lady Fanny
Walker, Major Albert Elijah
Wanless, Mr W J
Ward, Lieut.-Col Ellicott Leamon
Waterhouse, Miss Agnes May
Watt, Rev J
Webb, Miss M V
Westcott, The Rt Rev Dr Foss
Whipham Miss F
Whithead, Mrs J
Wilkinson Lieut Colonel Edmund
Willingdon, The Lady
Wilson-Johnston, Joseph
Wilson, Lady
Winter, Edgar Francis Latimer
Wood Arthur Robert
Younghusband, Arthur Delaval
Younghusband Lieut. Col Sir Francis Edward

Recipients of the 2nd Class

Abdul Aziz, Khan Bahadur Hajji Hakim Muham
mad
Abdul Ghani
Abdul Hussain, Mian Bhai
Abdul Hussein
Abdul Kadir
Abdul Majid Khan
Abdur Razaq Khan, Subadar
Abul Hussain
Agha Mohamed Khalil Bin Mohamed Karim
Alfred, Miss A
Allen Mrs Beakley
Ali Shabash Khan Sahib Shaikh
Allen, Miss Fannie
Allen, Mrs M O
Allen, Miss Maud
Amar Nath, Lala
Amar Singh
Amella, Rev Mother
Anastasia, Sister
Anderson Miss Emma Deave
Anstie-Smith, Rev G
Antia, Jamshedji Marwanji

Antia, J D
Appaswami, Mrs S E
Arodt Mrs Phyllis Evelyn
Atkinson John William
Atkinson, Lady Constance
Augustin, The Rev Father
Austin Mrs. Hla
Avaral M R B. Tanjore Ekambaram Pillai
Azis Hussain, Khan Sahib Mir
Ba Nan
Baird San Ba Miss I J
Baker Honorary Major Thomas
Bala Krishna Shetty M R Ith A
Balbhadra Das Mirhontha
Ball Miss Marguerite Dorothy
Ballantine W J H
Banerjee Abinash Chandra
Bano Khanom Sahiba Farhat
Bapat Bhaladar Sadashiva Krishna
Barbara Mother
Barclay, Mrs Edith Martha
Bardley Miss Jane Blissett
Barnabas Thomas Cunningham
Barnett, Miss Maude
Barrow, Mrs M. Iaine
Barton Miss E G
Barton, Mrs Sybil
Baw, U San
Beardon, Dr M O'Brien
Beaton Bell The Rev Sir Nicholas Dodd,
K O S L K C I N
Beg, Mirza Kallish Beg Faridun
Benjamin Joseph
Berlie Albert Clifford
Best, James Theodore
Bhagwandas Bai Zaoorhai
Bhajan Lal
Bhan, Lala Udhai
Bhatia, Mr Biharlal
Bhatt Mrs Janki Bai
Bhilde Raoji Jamarshan
Bhatt Chhotelal Govershan
Biddkar, Shankar Vithal Bihari Lal, Babu Bir
Bigge, Mrs Violet Evelyn
Bihari Lal
Bilg Behari Lal
Birla, Bai Bahadur Baldeo Das
Birney Mrs S D
Bisachwar Nath, Lala
Blissett, Miss Mary Ronald
Biswas, Babu Ananda Mohan
Blackham, Lieut. Colonel Robert James
Blackmore Hugh
Blackwood, John Ross
Blair, The Rev J C
Blenkinsop Edward Robert Kaye
Bolster Miss Anna
Booth, Miss Mary Warburton
Booth Gravely Mrs Altha
Bose, Miss Kiroth
Bose, Miss Mona
Botting, W E
Bowen, Griffith
Brakuspathy, Dr E
Brander Mrs Isabel
Brey Lady

Bromner Lt.-Col Arthur Grant
 Brentnall Miss Nina Tillotson
 Brock, Miss Lillian Winifred
 Erough, The Rev Anthony Watson
 Browne, Charles Edward
 Brown, Mrs Jean
 Burkle, The Revd A W
 Buckley, Miss Margaret Elizabeth
 Bucknall Mrs Mary
 Bunter J P
 Burt, Bryce Chudleigh
 Burton, Miss
 Butt Miss L
 Cain, Mrs Sarah
 Calob, Mrs M
 Callaghan, H W
 Cama Dr Miss Fanny
 Campbell, Miss Gertrude Jane
 Campbell Miss Kate
 Campbell, Miss Susan
 Campbell, Miss Mary Jane
 Campbell, The Rev Thomas Vincent
 Carmichael, Miss Amy Wilson
 Carey, Miss B B
 Carr, Miss Emma
 Carr, Thomas
 Cashmore, The Revd S H
 Cassella, Mrs Laura Mary Elizabeth
 Catherine, Sister
 Cattell, Major Gilbert Landale
 Cecilia Sister Fannie
 Chakravarti, Rai Bahadur Birendra Nath
 Chakrabarti H K
 Chalmers, T
 Chamberlain, The Rev William Isaac
 Chandler, The Rev John Soudder
 Chatterji, Anadi Nath
 Chatterjee, Mrs Onila Bela
 Chitrag Din, Seth
 Chitale, Ganesh Krishna
 Chogmal, Karnidhas
 Clancey, John Charles
 Clark, Herbert George
 Clarke, Miss Flora
 Claypole, Miss Henrietta
 Clerk, Miss M
 Clarke, Honorary Major Louis Arthur Henry
 Cleur, A F
 Clutterbuck, Peter Henry
 Coelho, V A
 Colyer, Mrs
 Connor, W A
 Coombs George Oswald
 Coombes Josiah Waters
 Cooper Miss Marjorie Olive
 Cope, Rev Joseph Herbert
 Correa, Miss Marie
 Corthorn Dr Alice
 Cottle, Mrs Adela
 Coutts, J E
 Cox, Mrs E
 Coxon, Stanley William
 Crow, Charles George
 Crozier Dr J
 Cumming, James William Nicol
 Cummings, The Rev John Ernest
 Cutting Rev William
 DaCosta, Miss Zilla Edith
 Dadabhai, Lady Jerbanoo
 DaGama, Acaacio

D Albuquerque, Cajetaninho Francis
 Delrymple-Hay, Charles Vernon
 Daniel, J
 Daniels, Miss
 Dann Rev George James
 Das, Ram Lal
 Das, Niranjan
 Dattaraj P S
 Dass, Malik Nardin
 Datta, Dr Dina Nath Pritha
 Davidson, Captain D J
 Davies Miss Harriet
 Davis, Miss B E
 Davis, Miss M K
 Dawson, Alexander Thomas
 Dawson, Mrs Charles Hutton
 Deane, George Archibald
 DeLa Croix Sister Paul
 De Penning Capt H F
 Desmond J
 Devi, Biji Kashintri
 Dew Lady
 DeWachter, Father Francis Xavier
 Dewes Lieut.-Colonel Frederick Joseph
 Dexter, T
 Dhanpat Ram Rai Sahib
 Dharan Chand Lal
 Dickenson, Miss Ida
 Dilshad Begum
 Dip Singh, Thakur
 Dockrell Major Morgan
 Drake, Miss Joan
 Drummond, Rev C O
 Drysdale, Mrs Christiana Mary
 Dube, Bhagwati Charan
 Dun Miss L E
 Dunk Mrs M R
 Durjan Singh, Rao Bahadur
 Dutta, Mohita Harnam
 Dwane Mrs Mary
 Eaglesome George
 Edgell, Lieut. Colonel Edward Arnold
 Edie, Mrs M J
 Edward, E
 Ein Wein Daw
 Elliot, Mrs I B
 Elms, Mrs A
 Emily, Sister Edith
 Ennis Miss E J
 Esch Dr C D
 Evans, The Rev John Coredig
 Evans Miss Josephine Annie
 Fane Lady Kathleen Emily
 Farhat Bano
 Faridoodin, Mrs Hilla
 Farnur, Mrs K
 Farzand Ahmad Khan Bahadur, Kazi Saifyd
 Faul, Sister L
 Pawcote, Mrs Gertrude Mary
 Fazal Elahi, Mrs R. S
 Fee Grade, F S
 Fernandez, A P
 Fernandez Father Muller's Charitable Institution
 French Lieut.-Colonel Thomas
 Fielding Miss H M
 Fisk, Miss N B
 Fitzgerald Mr D H
 Flahavan Thomas Charles
 Fleming Sister Mary

- Flint, Dr H
 Foglieni Rev J P
 Ford, Miss Mary Angela
 Forman The Rev Henry
 Forrester G
 Foster Captum P
 Foulkes, R
 Fox, Alfred Charles
 Frances Sister Jane
 Francis W
 Franklin, Miss M H
 Fraser Robert Thomson
 Fyson, Hugh
 Gairola Rai Bahadur Pandit Tara Dutt
 Gajjar, Mrs. Shivagauri
 Gabriel, Ephraim Manasseh
 Gandhi, Mr Pestonji Jamssetji
 Garthwalke, Linton
 Gass Rev J
 Gaskell W
 Gateley, Thomas Joseph
 George, Miss Jessie Eleanor
 Ghose Babu Mahatap Chandra
 Ghose, Babu J N
 Ghose S K
 Ghulam Bari, Mrs
 Ghulam Hadur
 Ghulam Murtaza Bhutto Shah Nawaz
 Giffard, Mrs Alice
 Gillespie, Harry Rupert Sylvester
 Gilmore, J J
 Glenville Miss R E
 Godfrey, Thomas Leonard
 Goldsmith, The Rev Canon Malcolm George
 Goodbody, Mrs.
 Gorman, Patrick James
 Gowardhandas Chattrabhoj
 Govind Lal Lal
 Grant, Lieut Colonel John Weymss
 Grant, Miss Jean
 Grant, The Rev John
 Grant, Dr Lillian Wemyss
 Gray Mrs Hester
 Gray, Commissary William David
 Greany Peter Mawe
 Greenfield Miss R
 Greenwood, D A
 Greg, L H
 Griessen, Albert Edward Pierre
 Guilford The Rev Henry
 Gumbley Mr Douglas
 Gune, Trimbak Raghunath
 Haaf Rev E A
 Haaji Dr D A
 Hadow Rev Frank Burgess
 Halyati Malik
 Haubahan W G
 Harding, Miss O.
 Harper, The Rev A E
 Harris, Miss A M
 Harris, Dr B
 Harris, Miss S
 Harrison, Mrs M F
 Harrison, Robert Tullis
 Harvey Miss Minnie Elizabeth
 Haworth, Lieut Col Sir Lionel Berkeley Holt
 Hayes, Miss Mary Lavina
 Hayes, Captain F
 Haynes, A G
 Henry Sister L
 Hickman, Mrs Agnes
 Hicks, Rev G H
 Higgins, Andrew Frank
 Hill, Elliott
 Hodge Rev J Z
 Hoff Sister W J K
 Hoffman, The Rev Father John, S J
 Hogg Harry William
 Hogg Miss B K
 Holbrooke, Major Bernard Frederick Rope
 Holden, Major Hyla Napier
 Holdforth, Miss J J
 Holliday Miss Kileen Mabel
 Holman Miss Charlotte
 Homer Charles John
 Hoogewart, Edmund
 Hope Dr Charles Henry Standish
 Hopkyns Mrs. E
 Hookings, Rutherford Vincent Theodoros
 Hira Kyaw Mung
 Hughes, Frank John
 Hughes, Mrs Elizabeth Bell
 Hunt Major I H
 Hunter Honorary Captain James
 Hutchings, Miss Emily
 Ibrahim Naniyi Muhammad
 Ihsan Ali
 Inglis Mrs Ellen
 Ireland The Rev W F
 Iyer Subharayappa Rama
 Jackson, Mrs Emma
 Jackson, Mrs K
 Jaikar Raj (Mrs Pitt)
 Jamma Prasad
 Jervis Mrs Edith
 Jivanandan
 Joglekar, Rao Bahadur Ganesh Venkatesh
 John, Rev Brother
 Johnston Augustus Frederick
 Johnstone Mrs Edith Alma
 Johnstone, Mrs Rosalie
 Jones, Rev D E
 Jones, The Rev John Peter
 Jones, The Rev Robert
 Jones The Rev John Tangwen
 Jones Mrs A V
 Joshee D L
 Jones Mrs V R B
 Joseph, The Rev Mother Mary
 Joshi, Narayan Malhar
 Joshi Trimbak Waman
 Joti Prasad, Lal
 Joti Ram
 Joyce, Mrs E L
 Judd C K
 Jugaldas M
 Jung Sher, Khan Bahadur
 Jawa Prasad, Mrs.
 Kaji Hiralal Lalubhai
 Kalubava Azam Kesarkhan
 Kanow, Yusuf
 Kanga Mrs
 Kapadia M K
 Kapadia Miss Motibai
 Karanjia, Mr B N
 Karva, Dhondo Keshav
 Keene, Miss H
 Kelavkar, Miss Krishnabai

- Kelly, Claude Cyril
 Kelly, Miss Eleanor Sarah
 Kemp, V N, The Rev
 Kerr Thomas
 Khamilena Sajjo
 Khan Hon Lieut-Nawab Jausaid Ali
 Khan Mrs
 Khamhedji, Miss S N
 Khurjoorina Nadirahab Nowrojee
 Kidar Nath, Lala
 Kidar Nath
 King Miss Elsie
 King Rev Dr R A
 King, Robert Stewart
 Kirloskar Lakshman Kashinath
 Kitchin Mrs M
 Knight, H W
 Knollys Lieut-Col. Robert Walter Edmond
 Knox, Major Robert Welland
 Kothewala, Malik Yusuf Ali
 Kreyer, Lieut-Colonel Frederick August
 Christian
 Krishnan, Rao Bahadur Kottay
 Krishnaswami (Chetty M R R) C V
 Krishnaswami Chetty Mrs C
 Kugler Miss Anna Sarah
 Kumaran, P L
 Kwaik P P
 Lajja Ram
 Lal Miss Grace Sohan
 Lamb, Dr J
 Lambourn G E
 Lang John
 Langhorne, Frederick James
 Lankester Dr Arthur Colborne
 Latham Mrs J L
 Langhilla Miss I H M
 Lawrence Captain Henry Rundle
 Lawrence Henry Staveley
 Lear A M
 Leslie Leynester Hudson
 Levi Miss S F
 Lilawati Miss
 Little Mr M
 Lloyd Miss Elizabeth
 Lloyd Mrs E M
 Lobo Miss Laura Marie
 Locke, Robert Henry
 Longhurst Miss H G
 Lorime, Mrs
 Low, Charles Ernest
 Luce, Miss L F
 Luck, Miss Florence Ada
 Lund, George
 MacAllister, The Rev G
 MacFarlane Miss I M
 Mackay, Rev J S
 Mackenzie, Alexander McGregor
 Mackenzie, Howard
 Mackenzie, Miss Miss
 MacKenna, Lady Esther Florence
 MacKinnon Miss Grace
 Macleod Lieut Colonel John Norman
 MacKellar Dr Margaret
 MacMurquie I
 Macknoe, H C
 Macphail Miss Alexandrina Matilda
 Macphail, The Rev James Merry
 Macrae, The Rev Alexander
 Madan Mr Rustomji Hormasji
 Maddox Lieut-Colonel Ralph Henry
 Madeley Mrs E M
 Mahommed Allauddin Khan
 Malden, J W
 Mannabai Bapat, Mrs
 Manooan, Samail Kadir
 Margaret Mary, Sister
 Marier, The Rev Frederick Lionel
 Marshall, W J
 Mary, Mother A
 Mary of St. Vincent Sister
 Mary, Sister Eleanor
 Marzban Phiroozah Jehangir, J P
 Masani Rustam Pestonji
 Mathias, P F
 Maung Maung
 McCarthy, Lady
 McCowan, Oliver Hill
 McDonald Joseph James
 McGuire Hugh William
 McIlwrick Leslie
 McKee Rev William John
 McKenzie, Miss Alice Learmouth
 McMaster, Dr Elizabeth M D
 McNeil, Miss Mr W H
 Mead, Rev Cecil Elias
 Maderlet, Rev Father M
 Mehta, Mrs Homia, M.B.E.
 Mehta, Khan Seheb M N
 Mehta Vankuntal Lalabhai
 Menesse, N H
 Mill, Miss C R
 Miller, Capt L G
 Mirika Narayansao Yeshwant
 Misra Miss Sundri Singh
 Mitchell, Miss
 Mitra Mrs Dora
 Modi D M
 Mohammed Khan
 Mon U
 Moore, Dr Albert Ernest
 Moore Mother T
 Moore, Nursing Sister Dora Louise Truskove
 Moore Miss Eleanor Louise
 Moorehouse Rev H A D
 Morrison Miss H H
 Mostlal Seth of Piparia
 Mount, Captain Alan Henry
 Moxon, Miss Lavin
 Mousundar Jade Nath
 Mudaliar, Rao Sahib Conjeevaram Manickam
 Mugssoth Dr K D
 Mukharji Babu Jendura Nath
 Mukerji, Babu Hari Mohan
 Mukerji, Rai Sahib A K
 Muller, Miss Jenny
 Murphy Edwin Joseph
 Mya, U Po
 Nag, Mrs Sasi Mukhi
 Naimullah, Mohamed
 Nand Lal
 Naoum Abbo
 Napier, Alan Bertram
 Narain, Har
 Narayan Canaji Rao Rao Sahib
 Narayanjee Laljee
 Narayanaswami (Chetty D B)
 Narayan Singh, Rai Sahib
 Nariman Khan Bahadur Manekji Kharnedji
 Nayakar Miss Ruby
 Nasrulla Khan Mirza
 Naylor, Miss M F
 Navdu Rao Sahib Gudakore Rangnayakula
 Neill, Rev C
 Newman, Miss Elisabeth Mary

Nicholson, Rev
Noemi, Boy Mother
Norris, Miss Margaret
Oakley, Mrs Winfred Nelly Vale
O'Brien, Lieut Colonel Edward
O'Connor, Brian Edward
O'Hara, Miss Margaret
Old, Frank Shephard
Oldrieve, Rev F
Orman, Honorary Captain Charles Henry
Orr, Adolphe Ernest
Orr, James Peter
Orr, Mrs Amy
Outram, The Rev A
Owen, Major Robert James
Owens, Miss Bertha
Pal, Babu Barada Sundar
Pallin, Major Randle Harry
Park, The Rev George W
Parker, Miss Ada Emma
Parker, Dr (Miss) H E
Parker, Mrs R J
Parsons, Ronald
Patch, Miss K
Patel, Khan Bahadur Barjorji Dorabji, C I
Patel K G
Paterson, Miss Rachel
Patrick, Sister
Pearce, Miss G A
Pearce, Miss M M
Pearce, W R
Pearson, E A
Penn, The Rev W O
Penner, Rev Peter Abraham
Perroy, Rev Father
Petigara, B J
Pettigrew, The Rev William
Phadke, V K
Phadibus, Miss Rose Margaret
Phelps, The Revd A C
Phelps, Mrs. Maude Marion
Phelps H
Phillip, Mrs. A J
Pierce, Miss Ada Louise
Piggott, Miss E
Piggott, C W O M
Pillay, Chinnappa Singaravaul
Pim, Mrs Rancee
Pinney, Major John Charles Digby
Pinto, Miss Preciosa
Pitamberdas, Laxmidas
Pittar D A
Plowden Lt-Col Trevor Charles
Pollett-Roberts, Miss Adelaide
Popen, Sister Lillian Victoria
Porter, Miss E
Pousett, Miss E
Powell, John
Prabhu Anant Rao Raghunath
Prance, Miss G
Prasad, Capt Tuls, of Nepal
Prasad, Ishwari
Pribbidas Shevakram
Price, The Rev Eustace Dickinson
Prideaux, Frank Winckworth Austen
Provost, Father F
Pugh, Mrs E E
Purshotamdas Thakurdas
Pvo, Maung Tet
Rahman, Mrs / A
Rahmat Bibi
Rai, Babu Ram Kinkar

Rait, Miss Helen Anna Macdonald
Rajadnya, R N
Ram Lal Diyal
Ram Lal Kanah
Ram, Rai Bahadur Ruzula
Ramaswami, Rao Sahib Colattur
Ramanbhai Mrs Vithyagauri V B
Rangopal, Mallani, Seth
Rangaswami Brahuspathi Dr
Ranjit Singh
Raphael, Raphael Abraham
Ratan Chand
Ratanji Dinkshah Dalvi
Rattani Mulji
Rautan Lal
Ray, Babu Sarat Chandra
Ray, Harendra Nath
Rebero, Louis John Alfred
Reed, Lady
Reeve, The Rev Thomas Willoughby (also Bar)
Richard, Mrs H I
Richardson, Mrs Catherine Stuart
Rieu, Rev Father Peter John
Rivenburg, The Revd Dr
Roberts, Major Charles Stuart Hamilton
Robert, Mrs H
Roberts, The Rev
Roberts, The Rev J W
Robertson, Miss M
Robillard, H
Robinson, Lieut Colonel William Henry Banner
Robson J
Rocke, Captain Cyril F A Spencer
Roe, Colonel Cyril Harcourt
Roe, Mrs Edith Mary
Rokade, Mrs Jahabai
Rosecare, Miss Eva Mary
Rose, Miss Maude
Rukhmabai, Dr Mte
Rusach, Rev George Bernard
Rushforth, Mrs W
Rustomji Faridoonji
Rutherford, Miss Mary Elizabeth
Sabawani, Mrs. Bap y
Sackett, Mrs E
Sadiq, Shams-ud din
Sadler, A W Woodward
Sage, Miss M D
Saini, Ram
Sahan Ram Kail
Sahay, Lala Deonath
Sahavale, Khan Sahib Ismailji Abdul Hussain
Salamatullah, Capt Mohammad
Salkield, Tom
Samuel, Joseph
Savidge, Rev Frederick William
Saw, Da La
Sawhney, Lala Isher Das
Schultz, The Rev Frederick Volkmar Paul
Scott, Dr D Jf
Scotland, Lieut-Colonel David Wilson
See, Dr F C
Seetha, Dr K S
Shah, Babu Lal Behari
Shah, Moamed Kamal
Shah, Mohammad Nawaz
Shah, Reverend Ahmad
Shammath, Rai Bahadur
Sharifa Hamid Abdul Ali, Mrs
Shaw, Mrs. Hawthorne
Shroff, Dr E D

Shunker, Olaf Perival Vanoontro
 Shyam Bikh Raja Francis Xavier
 Siddons, Mrs
 Sumcox, Arthur Henry Addenbrooke
 Simkins Charles Wykios
 Simon, Miss M
 Simonsen J L
 Simpson, Miss J F
 Simson Mrs
 Sinclair, Reginald Leahy
 Singh, Kanwar Ghansandi
 Singh, Apji Dhul
 Singh, Babu Kesho
 Singh, Babu Ramtari
 Singh, Bhai Ganga
 Singh Bhai Lehas
 Singh Bhai Takhut
 Singh, Makkhan
 Singh, Rev P L
 Singh, Raj Bahadur Sunder
 Singh, Kulkarna
 Singh, Rasalder Major Hanmant
 Singh, Sardar Gurdit
 Singh, G Sher
 Singh Sohan
 Singha, Mrs L. N V
 Singhi, J
 Small, Miss J M
 Smith, Miss Ellen
 Smith, The Rev Frederick William Ambrey
 Smith, Miss Katherine Mahc
 Smith, Miss Jessie Edith
 Solomon, Dr Jacob
 Somerville T W
 Sommerville, The Rev Dr James
 Sorabji Miss S
 Spencer, Mrs E M
 Sri Ram Kunwar
 Stanley Mrs S A
 Starke, Oliver Harold Baptist
 Steel, Alexander
 Steele, The Rev John Ferguson
 Stephens, John Hewitt
 Stephens, Mrs Grace
 Stevens, Miss L K
 Stevens, Mrs (Ethel)
 Stevenson Surgeon General Henry Wickham
 Stewart Miss E F
 Stewart, Major Hugh
 Stewart, Mrs. Lillian Dorothea
 Stewart Thomas
 Stillwell, Dr (Miss) Miss M D
 St Gregory, Rev Mother
 St Joseph, J D
 Stockings The Rev H M
 Strip, Samuel Algernon
 Stratton, Rev H H
 Stuart, Dr (Miss) Gertrude
 Subbu Lakshmi Ammal
 Subrahmanya Ayyar Rikhiyur
 Sultan Ahmed Khan
 Sunder Lal
 Sundrabai, Bai
 Swain, Mrs Walker
 Swainson Miss Florence
 Swift, Miss Eva
 Swinchatt, C H
 Swinhoe, R C J
 Swine, Miss Emily Constance
 Symes, Miss Kathleen Mabel
 Talcherkar, Mr M C A

Talyarkhan, Mrs M
 Taleyarkhan, Mr Manekshah Cawasha
 Talib Mahdi Khan Malik
 Tambe, Dr Gopal Rao Ramohandra
 Tarafdar, Mr S K
 Tarr, Mrs
 Taylor, Rev Alfred Prideaux
 Taylor, Mrs. Florence Prideaux
 Taylor John Norman
 Tea, Maung Po
 Tea, Maung Shwe
 Tein, Maung Po
 Teobald Miss
 Thimmaraya, Mrs K S
 Thiruvankata Acharyar Mrs Sita
 Thomas Miss Frances Elizabeth
 Thomas Mrs Mabel Fox
 Thomas, Samuel Gilbert
 Thompson, Mrs Alice
 Thompson, R O
 Thoy Herbert Dominick
 Thringamma Miss Balar
 Thak H Vishwanath
 Timothy Samuel
 Thirunaryana Acharyar M R R, M A P
 Tomkins Lionel Linton
 Tomkinson, Mrs Edith
 Tudball Miss Emma
 Turner Mrs Vera
 Umar Khan Malik Zorawar Khan
 Usman Bahadur Bahadur, Khan Bahadur
 Muhammad
 Vail C F
 Vajifdar, Mrs. Hormusji Manerji
 Vale, Mrs K
 Valentine Capt C R
 Varma, Babu Mahendra Deo
 Vijayaraghava Acharyar
 Visvesvaraya, Mokshagundam
 Vurghese, Diwan Bahadur George Thomas
 Walt, William Robert Hamilton
 Wakefield George Edward Campbell
 Waliman Mrs E
 Walayatullah, Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad
 Walewalker P Bahurao
 Waller, Frederick Chighton
 Walters, Miss W F
 Ward Mr W A P
 Warhurst Capt A E
 Warren Miss Edmund
 Warren Donald Horne
 Webb Ware Mrs Dorothy
 Weighell Miss Anna Jane
 Western Miss Mary Frisella
 Weth Mrs Rosa
 White Miss J
 Whitk Mrs A M W
 Wilman, Miss Elizabeth Anne
 Wilkinson, Mrs A
 Wilson, Francis Henry
 Wilson Miss Anna Margaret
 Wince, Miss Jane
 Wiseman, Capt Charles Sheriffe
 Wisner Mrs C V
 Woerner Miss Lydia
 Wool The Rev A
 Woodward, Dr Miss Adele
 Wright, Mrs R
 Wythe, Miss Iris Eleanor
 Wyness, Mrs Ada
 Yerbury Dr J
 Young Dr M Y

THE VICTORIA CROSS.

The announcement made at the Delhi Durbar in 1911, that in future Indians would be eligible for the Victoria Cross, gave satisfaction which was increased during the War and afterwards by the award of that decoration to the following—

Subadar (then Sepoy) Khudadad Khan 129th Baluchis.—On 31st October 1914, at Holbeke, Belgium, the British Officer in charge of the detachment having been wounded, and the other gun put out of action by a shell, Sepoy Khudadad, though himself wounded, remained working his gun until all the other five men of the gun detachment had been killed.

Naik Darwan Sing Negi 138th Garhwal Rifles.—For great gallantry on the night of the 23rd/24th November 1914 near Postubert, France, when the Regiment was engaged in retaking and clearing the enemy out of our trenches, and, although wounded in two places in the head, and also in the arm, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and mines at the closest range.

Subadar (then Jamadar) Mir Dast 55th Coke's Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery and great ability at Ypres on 26th April 1915, when he led his platoon with great gallantry during the attack, and after wards collected various parties of the Regiment (when no British Officers were left) and kept them under his command until the retirement was ordered. Jamadar Mir Dast subsequently on this day displayed remarkable courage in helping to carry eight British and Indian Officers into safety, whilst exposed to very heavy fire.

Rifleman Kulbir Thapa 2nd Gurkha Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery during operations against the German trenches south of Manguisart. When himself wounded, on the 25th September 1915, he found a badly wounded soldier of the 2nd Leicestershire Regiment behind the first line German trench, and though urged by the British soldier to save himself, he remained with him all day and night. In the early morning of the 26th September, in misty weather, he brought him out through the German wire, and, leaving him in a place of comparative safety, returned and brought in two wounded Gurkhas one after the other. He then went back in broad daylight for the British soldier and brought him in also, carrying him most of the way and being at most points under the enemy's fire.

Navildar (then Lance Naik) Lala 41st Dogras.—Finding a British Officer of another regiment lying close to the enemy he dragged him into a temporary shelter which he himself had made, and in which he had already bandaged four wounded men. After bandaging his wounds he heard calls from the Adjutant of his own Regiment who was lying in the open severely wounded. The enemy were not more than one hundred yards distant, and it seemed certain death to go out in that direction, but Lance-Naik Lala insisted on going out to his Adjutant, and offered to crawl back with him on his back at once. When

this was not permitted, he stripped off his own clothing to keep the wounded officer warmer and stayed with him till just before dark when he returned to the shelter. After dark he carried the first wounded officer back to the main trenches, and then, returning with a stretcher carried back his Adjutant. He set a magnificent example of courage and devotion to his officers.

Sepoy Chatta Singh, 8th Bhawal Infantry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in leaving cover to assist his Commanding Officer who was lying wounded and helpless in the open. Sepoy Chatta Singh bound up the officer's wound and then dug cover for him with his entrenching tool, being exposed all the time to very heavy rifle fire. For five hours until nightfall he remained beside the wounded officer shielding him with his own body on the exposed side. He then under cover of darkness, went back for assistance and brought the officer into safety.

Naik Shahamad Khan, 89th Punjabis.—For most conspicuous bravery. He was in charge of a machine-gun section in an exposed position in front of and covering a gap in our new line with in 150 yards of the enemy's entrenched position. He beat off three counter-attacks, and worked his gun single-handed after all his men, except two belt fillers, had become casualties. For three hours he held the gap under very heavy fire while it was being made secure. When his gun was knocked out by hostile fire he and his two belt-fillers held their ground with rifles till ordered to withdraw. With three men sent to assist him he then brought back his gun, ammunition, and one severely wounded man unable to walk. Finally, he himself returned and removed all remaining arms and equipment except two shovels. But for his great gallantry and determination our line must have been penetrated by the enemy.

Lance-Dafadar Govind Singh, 28th Cavalry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in three volunteering to carry messages between the regiment and brigade headquarters, a distance of 14 miles over open ground which was under the observation and heavy fire of the enemy. He succeeded each time in delivering his message although on each occasion his horse was shot, and he was compelled to finish the journey on foot.

Rifleman Karan Bahadur Rana 23rd Gurkha Rifles.—For conspicuous bravery and resource in action under adverse conditions, and utter contempt of danger during an attack. He with a few other men succeeded, under intense fire, in creeping forward with a Lewis gun in order to engage an enemy machine gun which had caused severe casualties to officers and other ranks who had attempted to put it out of action. No 1 of the Lewis gun party opened fire and was shot immediately. Without a moment's hesitation Karan Bahadur pushed the dead man off the gun, and in spite of bombs thrown at him and heavy fire from both flanks, he opened fire and knocked out the enemy machine gun crew then switching his fire on the enemy bombers.

and riflemen in front of him, he silenced their fire. He kept his gun in action, and showed the greatest coolness in removing defects which had twice prevented the gun from firing. He did magnificent work during the remainder of the day and when a withdrawal was ordered assisted with covering fire until the enemy was close to him. He displayed throughout a very high standard of valour and devotion to duty.

Rescaldar Badin Singh, 14th Lancers attached 29th Lancers—For most conspicuous bravery and self-sacrifice on the morning of the 23rd September 1918, when his squadron charged a strong enemy position on the west bank of the River Jordan between the river and Kh. es Samariyeh Village. On nearing the position Rescaldar Badin Singh realised that the squadron was suffering casualties from a small hill on the left front occupied by machine guns and 200 infantry. Without the slightest hesitation he collected six other ranks and with the greatest dash and an entire disregard of danger charged and captured the position, thereby saving very heavy casualties to the squadron. He was mortally wounded on the very top of the hill when capturing one of the machine guns single-handed, but all the machine guns and infantry had surrendered

to him before he died. His valour and initiative were of the highest order.

Rifleman Gobar Singh Negi, 2nd Battalion 39th Garhwal Rifles—For most conspicuous bravery on 10th March 1915 at Neuve Chapelle. During an attack on the German position he was one of a bayonet party with bombs who entered their main trench, and was the first man to go round each traverse, driving back the enemy until they were eventually forced to surrender. He was killed during this engagement.

Sepoy Ishaw Singh, 28th Punjab—For devotion and bravery 'quite beyond all praise' in Waziristan on 10th April, 1921. He received a severe gunshot wound in the chest while serving a Lewis gun and when all the havildars had been killed or disabled he struggled to his feet, called to his assistance two men and charged and recovered the gun restoring it to action. He refused medical attention insisting first on pointing out where the other wounded were and on carrying water to them. While the medical man was attending to these wounded he shielded him with his body and he submitted to medical attention himself only after he was exhausted through three hours continual effort and by loss of blood.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

A.—British Subjects.

1 British Indian passports are issued only to—(1) British subjects by birth (2) wives and widows of such persons (3) British subjects by naturalization and (4) British protected persons.

2 The Indian Passport Regulations do not require persons to be in possession of passports for leaving India, but as practically every other country requires travellers to be in possession of passports before they are allowed to land at the port of such country, travellers are advised to obtain passports before embarkation. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military, or Air Force or of the Indian Marine Service travelling on duty and members of the families of such persons when travelling to the United Kingdom on military entitled passages need not have passports.

3 Passports are not required for journeys by sea from Bombay to ports in India or to Burma, nor are passports required for permanent residents of Ceylon or India being British subjects to travel between India and Ceylon. Natives of India travelling to the Federated Malay States or the Straits Settlements require passports unless they propose to continue their journey onward.

4 In order to obtain a passport an application form (showing among other things the reasons for the proposed journey) should be filled in by the applicant and the applicant's declaration certified by a Political Officer, Magistrate, Justice of the Peace, Police Officer not below the rank of Superintendent or Notary Public resident in India. Copies of the form can be obtained from any District Magistrate from the Commissioner of Police, Bombay by post from the Passport Officer to the Government of Bombay, by personal application at the

Passport Office or from any of the leading Banking and Shipping Agents in Bombay. Small duplicate unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant and a fee of Rs 3 in cash should be forwarded with the application form. Fees are not accepted in stamps or by cheque.

5 The application form when filled in should either be posted with the photographs and fee to the Passport Officer to the Government of Bombay or should be presented at the Passport Office Bombay.

6 The Passport Office in Bombay is situated in the Civil Secretariat. The office is open from 11 a.m. to 4 p.m. daily except on Saturdays when it closes at 1 p.m. and on Sundays and public holidays.

7 As a passport is valid for five years there is no objection to anyone applying for a passport weeks or even months in advance of the date of sailing and much inconvenience will be avoided by early application. A notice of at least four days should be given for the preparation of a new passport and at least two days for an endorsement, renewal or visa. The Passport Officer cannot issue passports outside office hours and as the preparations of a passport takes time, applicants who postpone application to the last moment do so at their risk.

Iraq

8 Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Force or of the Indian Marine Service in uniform and bona fide Muhammadan pilgrims (Haj or Zair) holding individual pilgrim passes do not require passports for their journey to Iraq. If such pilgrims desire to continue their journey to Ceylon for the purpose of pilgrimage they must obtain a Persian Consular visa in India. All other travellers must be in possession of national passports and visas for Iraq. In the absence of Iraqi Consular Officers in

India, visas for Iraq are granted by Passport Issuing Authorities in India on behalf of the Iraq Government subject to the conditions stated below. The Iraq visas are of two kinds—Ordinary valid for all entries into Iraq during a period of twelve months and Transit valid for a single journey only allowing for stay of not more than fifteen days in Iraq. The fee for these visas is the same as for British visas—*vide* paragraph 17 below. Iraqi national passports are valid for return to that country without any further visa or endorsement.

Except in the case of *bona fide* tourists, business representatives and employees of well established firms and persons with definite guarantee of employment in Iraq visas for Iraq will not be granted without the previous permission of the Iraq Government. The Passport Offices will on request ask for this permission by post or if the applicant is prepared to defray the cost by cable. Applicants must state clearly the nature of their business and give one or more references in Iraq to enable the local authorities to make inquiries regarding the purpose of their journey.

With the exception of tourists who may remain for three months in Iraq without registration all persons are required to obtain a permit de séjour from the police within fifteen days of their arrival in Iraq. Travellers are also warned that before departure from Iraq even on a transit visa they must obtain a passport endorsement of departure.

Egypt

9 In the absence of Egyptian Consular Officers in India visas for Egypt are granted by Passport Issuing Authorities in India on behalf of the Egyptian Government. The fee for these visas is the same as for British visas—*vide* paragraph 17 below. Applicants for non transit visas for Egypt should be able to produce evidence to show that they are in possession of ample and independent means or are the agents of houses of business of good standing or have secured permanent employment in Egypt. In all other cases the previous permission of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Egypt is necessary for the visit. Holders of the new form Egyptian passports do not require visas to return to Egypt.

10 Restrictions also exist on travel to various parts of the British Empire and to certain foreign countries. Among these may be mentioned Australia, Canada, Mexico, Malabar, Abadan, New Zealand, Palestine, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, South West Africa and the United States of America. The restrictions apply particularly to Indians. Detailed particulars with respect to each country will be supplied on application.

Foreign Countries

11 Passports for journeys to or through foreign countries require after issue, the visa of the Consul concerned. The addresses of the foreign consulates in Bombay will be found in the appendix below. Visas are, however, not necessary for Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Czechoslovakia, provided the names of these countries are entered on the passport by a British Passport Issuing Authority.

Renewal

12 A passport is valid for five years from the date of issue and is renewable for a further period of from one to five years from the date of expiry of its validity at the option of the holder, but in no case can a passport be extended beyond ten years from the original date of issue. On expiration of this period or, if at any time the space provided for visas is covered and the holder wishes to travel to countries for which fresh visas are required, a new passport must be obtained. Application for renewal must be made in the prescribed form, copies of which may be had from any of the officers mentioned in paragraph 4 above. The fee for renewals is Re 1 for each year or portion of a year for which the passport is renewed.

Endorsements

13 A passport is valid only for the country or countries endorsed on it and fresh endorsements from a British Passport authority are not needed during the validity of the passport for subsequent journeys to these countries. Fresh endorsements may however be obtained on the passport for additional countries. Passports endorsed as valid for the British Empire are also available for travelling to territories under British protection or mandate not however including Palestine and Iraq for which countries the passport must be specially endorsed. No fees are payable for endorsements made on British passports but a fee of Rs 18 is payable for an additional endorsement as for Palestine.

Marriage

14 A lady on marriage or on marriage re-quires a fresh passport.

15 In the case of a joint passport issued in favour of a husband and wife, the latter cannot travel alone on it but should take out a fresh passport surrendering the joint passport for cancellation of her name from it.

B—Foreigners

16 Foreigners proceeding direct to their own country or to or through, any other foreign country or countries do not require a British visa on their passports. The nationals of the following countries do not require a British visa for travelling to the United Kingdom. The concession also applies to certain nationals proceeding to certain British Dominions and Colonies and information on this point can be obtained from the Passport Officer. The concession does not apply to India.

Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Czechoslovakia.

17 Foreigners who are subjects of the countries shown in the appendix below and who are travelling to British territories for which a British visa is necessary should first obtain passports from their consular representatives and should then present them to the Passport Officer for visa together with a written statement of the reasons for the journey. British visas are of two kinds, viz the Non Transit and Transit. The fees for these are Rs 5.00 and Re 0.00, respectively except in the case of nationals of states which levy higher fees, when the retaliatory scale of fees will be applied.

18 Other foreigners should apply for Identity certificates through the Commissioner of Police, Bombay or where such foreigners reside to the mofussil, through the District Magistrate of the district in which they are residing. Small duplicate copies of the applicant's photograph should accompany the application. The fee for an Identity Certificate is Rs 1-8-0.

19 The holder of a foreign passport who has obtained a visa granted by a British Passport Authority outside India for a destination which involves landing in, or passing through India does not need a further visa from the authorities in India.

20 Copies of this notice can be had free of charge on application.

ADDRESSES OF FOREIGN CONSULATES IN BOMBAY.

Afghanistan—Amra Bungalow Walkeshwar Road Malabar Hill
Austria—C/o E Stella and Co 7aj Building, Wallace Street Fort
Belgium—17, Cuffe Parade Colaba
Brazil—Asian Building Nicol Road, Ballard Estate
Cuba—Jer Mahal Dhobi Lalao
Czecho-Slovakia—15 Banpart Row Fort
Denmark—C/o Lloyd's Bank Fort
Finland—Alice Building Hornby Road, Fort
France—11 Cuffe Parade Colaba
Germany—Karandas Building, Spcott Road Ballard Estate
Greece—25, Waudby Road
Italy—Adenwala Mansion Ground floor Choupatti
Japan—Sukhadwala Building 192 Hornby Road Fort
Luxemburg—17 Cuffe Parade Colaba
Netherlands—204, Hornby Road Fort
Nicaragua—Alice Building, Hornby Road Fort
Norway—Imperial Chambers, Wilson Road, Ballard Estate
Peru—Seaside 147 Hanson Dock Road Middle Colaba
Portugal—21 Cuffe Parade Colaba
Siam—C/o Wallace and Company, Wallace Street Fort
Spain—Patropolis Building, Colaba Road
Sweden—Vulkan House Nicol Road, Ballard Estate
Switzerland—Volkart Building Graham Road Ballard Estate
United States of America—Jehangir Wadia Building Lepian Road, Fort
India—Forbes Building Home Street Fort
Romania—Mathew Road, Choupatti
Uruguay—Do do

States having Consulates in Calcutta but not in Bombay

Argentine Republic—8 Kalyanade East Suite No 12
Bolivia—Tagore House 27 Park Lane
Chile—17 Paul Mansion Suite No 12 Bishop Iffroy Road
Panama—The Italian Trading Society Ltd, 14 Chiv Street
Peru—29 Palace Court, 1 Kyd St
Salvador—Messrs Bird & Co (Chartered Bank Buildings)
Venezuela—C/o Messrs Becker Gray & Co House, Bank House, 2, Fairlie Place

N B—There are at present no Consuls for Costa Rica, Liberia and Mexico at Calcutta. The Consulate for Guatemala has been abolished.

The School of Oriental Studies

This School was established by Royal Charter in June 1919. The purposes of the School (as set out in the Charter) are to be a School of Oriental Studies in the University of London to give instruction in the Languages of Eastern and African peoples, Ancient and Modern, and in the Literature, History, Religion and Customs of those peoples especially with a view to the needs of persons about to proceed to the East or to Africa for the pursuit of study and research, commerce or a profession, and to do all or any of such other things as the Governing Body of the School consider conducive or incidental thereto, having regard to the provision for those purposes which already exists elsewhere and in particular to the co-ordination of the work of the School with that of similar institutions both in Great Britain and

in its Eastern and African Dominions and with the work of the University of London and its other Schools.

The School possesses noble and interesting buildings in Finsbury Circus provided by the British Government under the London Institution (Transfer) Act of 1912. The sum of £25,000 required for the alteration and extension of the buildings of the London Institution for the purposes of the School was voted by Parliament. The School buildings are quiet, although they are in the heart of the City. The School provides teaching in more than seventy subjects in a considerable proportion of the spoken languages. Instruction is given by teachers belonging to the countries where the languages are spoken as it is the aim of the School to provide as far as possible both European and

Oriental Lectures in the principal languages included in the curriculum

Courses on the History, Religions, and Customs of Oriental and African countries form a special feature in the teaching of the School. There is now a whole time Reader in Phonetics the classes for which are numerically larger than in any other subject. It is intended to record fully in phonetic symbols all the languages taught at the School.

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientalists not on the staff. Various Scholarships are given.

Patron, H. M. the King, Chairman of the Governing Body, Sir Harcourt Butler G.C.S.I. Director, Professor Sir E. Denison Ross, G.I.E. Ph.D.

Teaching Staff.

Name	Subjects	Status
Kethel O. Ashtou	Swahili	Lecturer
H. W. Bailey, M.A.	Iranian Studies	
1. I. Grahame Bailey, M.A., B.D., D.Litt.	Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)	Reader
G. P. Bargery	Hausa	Lecturer
3. L. D. Barnett, M.A., D.Litt.	Indian History and Sanskrit	"
2. C. O. Blagden, M.A., D.Litt.	Malaya	Reader
4. J. Percy Bruce, M.A., D.Litt.	Chinese	Professor
R. T. Butlin, B.A.	Phonetics	Lecturer
G. H. Darab Khan, B.A.	Persian	"
5. Caroline A. Rhys Davids, M.A., D.Litt.	Pali	"
6. C. O. Davies, Ph.D.	History	"
5. H. B. Dodwell, M.A.	"	Professor
3. E. Dora Edwards, M.A.	Chinese (Mandarin)	Lecturer
3. D. E. Evans, B.A.	Hindustani	"
1. H. A. R. Gibb, M.A.	Arabic (Classical)	Professor
Sheikh M. M. Gomaz	Arabic	Lecturer
Rev. A. Guillaume	"	"
3. Sir Wolsley Haig, K.C.I.E., C.M.G., C.B.E., M.A.	Persian	"
W. A. Hertz, C.S.I.	Burmese	"
G. E. Iles, O.B.E., M.A.	Arabic	"
Commander N. R. Isenberger, R.N. (retired)	Japanese	"
1. G. Kanhere	Marathi and Sanskrit	"
G. E. Leeson	Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)	"
2. A. Lloyd James, M.A.	Phonetics	Reader
Dr. Chiu Hien Ming	Chinese	Lecturer
2. W. Sutton Page, O.B.E., M.A., B.D.	Bengali	Reader
O. S. K. Pathy, M.A., D.C.S.L.	Tamil and Telugu	Lecturer
Ali Riza Bey	Turkish	"
7. Sir E. Denison Ross, G.I.E., Ph.D.	Persian	Professor
3. C. A. Rylands, B.A.	Sanskrit	Lecturer
2. A. Sabonadere, L.O.S. (retired)	Indian Law	Reader
2. W. Stede, Ph.D.	Pali and Sanskrit	Lecturer
S. Somanian	Armenian and Turkish	"
6. E. L. Turner, M.O., M.A.	Sanskrit	Professor
1. W. W. W. W. W.	Modern Hebrew	Lecturer
3. M. de Z. Wokremasingshe, M.A., D.Litt.	Sinhalese and Epigraphy	"
W. Perceval Yetts, O.B.E., M.R.O.S.	Chinese Art and Archaeology	"
S. Yoshitake	Japanese	"
Kadry Zafir, M.A.	Arabic	Assistant.

1. University Professor of Arabic and Appointed Teacher
2. University Reader and Appointed Teacher
3. Recognised Teacher in the University of London
4. University Professor of Chinese and Appointed Teacher
5. University Professor of the History and Culture of British Dominions in Asia, with special reference to India and Appointed Teacher
6. Ahmed Hamam Lectureship in Modern Hebrew
7. University Professor of Persian and Appointed Teacher (Director).
8. University Professor of Sanskrit and Appointed Teacher

The Fisheries of India

The fisheries of India, potentially rich, as yet yield a mere fraction of what they could were they exploited in a fashion comparable with those of Europe, North America or Japan. The fishing industry, particularly the marine section has certainly expanded considerably within the last 20 years concurrently with improvement in the methods of transport and increase in demand for fish cured as well as fresh, from the growing population of the great cities within reach of the seaboard. The caste system however exerts a blighting influence on progress. Fishing and fish trade are universally relegated to low caste men who alike from their want of education the isolation caused by their work and caste and their extreme conservatism are among the most ignorant, suspicious and prejudiced of the population extremely averse from amending the methods of their forefathers and almost universally without the financial resources requisite to the adoption of new methods even when convinced of their value. Higher caste capitalists have hitherto thought shy of associating with the low caste fishermen and except in large operations on new lines these capitalists cannot be counted upon to assist in the development of Indian fisheries. As in Japan it appears that the general conditions of the industry are such that the initiative must necessarily be taken by Government in the uplift and education of the fishing community and in the introduction and testing of new and improved apparatus and methods.

The first local Government to lead the way was that of Madras which in 1905 initiated an investigation of the industry both marine and fresh water appointing Sir F. A. Nicholson to supervise operations. Bengal followed suit in 1906 and from these beginnings have sprung the local Fisheries Departments of Madras, Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Bombay the remaining seaboard province has comparatively small fresh water interests compared with Madras and Bengal and as it happens that her marine fisheries are favoured with good harbours and the most enterprising race of fishermen in India there was less urgent need for State help in the industry. Fisheries there were a subject of Government solicitude for five years after the war but they finally ceased to receive any attention after the abolition in 1924 of the short-lived Department of Industries to which this subject was allotted.

Madras.

The Madras coast line of 1750 miles is margined by a shallow water area within the 100 fathom line of 40,000 square miles outside of the mere fringe inshore this vast expanse of fishable water lies idle and unproductive. The surf-swept East coast is singularly deficient in harbours whereon fishing fleets can be based and so from Ganjam to Negapatnam, the unsinkable catamaran, composed of logs tied side by side is the only possible easy going fishing craft. Its limitations circumscribe the fishing power of its owners and consequently these men are poor and the produce of their best

efforts scarce compared with what it would be if better and larger boats were available and possible. The West coast is more favoured. From September till April weather conditions are good enough to permit even dugout canoes to fish daily. No difficulty is found in beaching canoes and boats throughout this season. The fishing population is a large one. In the census taken by the Department of Fisheries in 1927-28 the fisher population on the West coast totalled 114,002. The esteemed table fish of the coast consist of the Seer (*Cyrtium* or *Scomberomorus*), Pomfret (*Apolectus* and *Stromateus*) several large species of Horse Mackerel (*Caranx*), Jew fish (*Seriola*), Whiting (*Sillago*), Thread fins (*Polynemus*), Sardines (*Clupea*) and Mackerel (*Scomber*). In economic importance however shoaling fish and fish of inferior quality such as Sardine (*Clupea*), Mackerel (*Scomber*), Cat fish (*Arius*), Ribbon fish (*Trachurus*), Goggles (*Caranx crumenophthalmus*) and Silver bellies (*Egusila* and *Cassia*) take precedence of the former. Sardine and Mackerel overshadow all others. So greatly in excess of food requirements are the catches of sardines that every year large quantities are turned into oil and manure. Fishing outside the 5 fathom line is little in evidence save by Bombay boats (*Mahagiri*) which are engaged in drift netting for bonito seer and other medium sized fishes. These strangers are enterprising fishers and bring large catches into Malpe and Mangalore and other convenient centres. The material is largely cured for export.

The Madras Department of Fisheries —

As Government attention has been given in Madras over a longer period to the improvement of fisheries and a larger staff concentrated upon the problem involved than elsewhere this Presidency has now the proud position of knowing that her fisheries and collateral industries are better organised and more progressive than those in other provinces. The credit for the wonderful success which has been achieved and the still greater promise of the future is due in large measure to the wise and cautious plans of Sir F. A. Nicholson who from 1906 to 1918 had the guidance of affairs entrusted to him. In 1906 he was appointed on special duty to investigate existing conditions and future potentialities. In 1907 a permanent status was given by the creation of a fisheries bureau and this in turn has developed into a separate Department of Government which till August 1923 was being administered by Mr. James Hornell F.L.S., as Director and is now controlled by his successor Mr. B. Sundara Raj M.A., Ph.D. The activities of the Department have greatly expanded since its inception. A Committee constituted by Government to inquire into the working of the Department and make recommendations for its future development have just published their report in two volumes. The Evidence collected by the Committee is an octavo volume of 431 pages and the Report of the Committee is another similar volume of 284 pages. The Report is a remarkable production which summarises the aims and achievements of the Department.

during the last quarter of a century and contains detailed proposals for the expansion of the Department activities in different directions. The whole work of the Department has received a great impetus as a result of the report of this Committee. The Committee have emphasised the true purpose and aim of a technical Department of Fisheries to be essentially the material amelioration of the lot of the sea-going fishermen. The activities of the past 25 years were largely concerned with curing and canning manufacture of oil and guano and safe guarding of Government revenue. Remarkably successful as they were under the able guidance of Sir Frederick Nicholson they seemed somewhat to obscure what should be the primary object and policy of the Department. Technological improvements in curing and canning and allied industries should follow ultimately in the wake of improved catches. So far economic and humanitarian endeavours however necessary and important in view of the caste system of India could not directly add one fish to the actual catch of the fisherman. The Committee have therefore urged that efforts to improve the professional knowledge of the sea-going fishermen and the catching powers of his craft and tackle which were inaugurated with the qualification of the trawler in 1926 must necessarily occupy the first place of the departmental programme. The higher staff now consists of five Assistant Directors and an Assistant Biologist. These are respectively in charge of (1) the shark and beche-de-mer fisheries, (2) the Co-operative and educational work and the West Coast fish curing yards, (3) inland pisciculture, (4) deep sea fishing, (5) propaganda for rural pisciculture and (6) biological investigations and fishery research. Other officers have charge respectively sections dealing with technological research, trout fisheries and the fisheries of the Northern Circars. A special staff of officers trained in co-operation have been appointed for intensive work among fishermen. The miscellaneous institutions controlled by the Department consist of a small demonstration cannery, a research station for curing canning and allied industries, a Fisheries Training Institute at Calicut for imparting special training to teachers selected to teach in schools for fisher children of which there were 43 with a total of 3,657 pupils in 1930. All the public fish curing yards which were under the control of the Salt and Abkari Department till 1924 have passed into the charge of the Fisheries Department. It is now possible to introduce the better methods of cure and improved hygiene which the Department has been striving to popularise in all the yards. Due to the transfer of the yards, the Fisheries Department has a large ramified staff of yard officers (Salt Sub-Inspectors, Petty Yard Officers and Peons) in almost every large fishing village on the coast. Besides the direct work of issuing salt for curing the Department acts itself to train these officers into expert advisers in curing methods and marketing fish, social workers for the inculcation of thrift, co-operative and progressive ideas and new industries and lastly as trained observers for recording and reporting on various biological questions connected with fish and fisheries and collecting statistics regarding the value and

quantity of sea fish caught and landed. Statistics have been published since 1925-26 regularly every year in the bulletins.

The activities of the Department are so varied and so far reaching that it is difficult even to enumerate them in the space available much less to give details. So far its most notable industrial successes have been the reform of manufacturing processes in the fish oil trade, the creation of a fish guano industry and the opening of an oyster farm conducted under hygienic conditions. (For details see the bulletins of the Department issued from the Government Press Madras). Twenty four volumes have been issued to date and the twenty fifth volume is in Press. All this work has been carried on under serious handicaps for want of adequate staff and equipment.

The educational work of the Department is becoming one of its most important branches whether it be specially training teachers for schools in fishing villages or training men in the technology of curing canning and oil manufacture in co-operative propaganda and in the supply of zoological specimens for the use of college classes and museums. The last named has filled a long felt want and is contributing materially to the advancement of the study of Zoology throughout India. There is now no need to obtain specimens from Europe as they can be had from the Research Assistant Fisheries Station Linnur Madras at moderate prices.

Fish Curing—Fish curing is practised extensively everywhere on the Madras coasts. Its present success is due primarily to Dr Francis Day who after an investigation during 1869-71 of the fisheries of the whole of India pressed for the grant to fishermen of duty free salt for curing purposes within fenced enclosures. He advocated much else but the time was not ripe and the salt concession was the sole tangible result of his long and honourable efforts. His salt suggestions were accepted by the Madras Government and from 1882 a gradually increasing number of yards or bounded enclosures were opened at which salt is issued free of duty and often at rates below the local cost of the salt to Government. At present about 118 of such yards are scattered along the coast and over 5,000 tons of wet fish are annually cured therein. The total receipts on the administration of these yards for the year 1929-30 was Rs 360,574 and expenditure Rs 389,654.

Pearl and Shank Fisheries—In the absence of the pearl fishery during the year the shank fisheries prospered. An unprecedented number of 412,362 shanks were landed yielding a gross revenue of Rs 250,867 3 2.

The Inland Fisheries—The inland fisheries of Madras compare unfavourably with those of Bengal. Many of the rivers dry up in the hot season and few of the many thousands of irrigation tanks throughout the province hold water for more than 6 to 9 months. As a consequence inland fisheries are badly organised and few men devote themselves to fishing as their sole or even main occupation. The custom is to neglect or ignore the fishery value of these streams and tanks so long as

they are full of water only when the streams shrink to pools and the tanks to puddles do the owners or lessees of the fishing rights turn out to catch fish. The result is a dearth of fish throughout the greater part of the year a glut for a few days, and often much waste in consequence. The chief fresh water fishes of economic importance are the Murrel notable for its virtue of living for a considerable period out of water, and various carps including Labeo Catla and the well known favourite of sportsman in India the Mahseer. Cut-fishes and Hilsa. In the Nilgiris the Rainbow Trout has been acclimatised and thrives well. The Government working in conjunction with the Nilgiri Game Association maintain a hatchery at Avalanche where quantities of fry are hatched and reared for the replenishment of the streams of the plateau. Fishing rights in the large irrigation tanks were transferred from Government to local authorities many years ago these tanks are now being reacquired by Government in order that they may be stocked periodically by the Department the results so far have shown a profit on the operations. To breed the necessary fry 7 fish farms are in operation. In these the chief fish bred are the Gourami, obtained from Java and Etroplus suratensis which has the excellent attribute of thriving and breeding as well in brackish as in fresh water both protect their eggs while developing, a useful habit. Both the Gourami and Etroplus are largely vegetarian in diet. A further activity is represented by the breeding of small fishes especially adapted to feed upon the aquatic larvae of mosquitoes. These are supplied in thousands to municipalities and other local authorities at a nominal price for introduction into mosquito haunted sheets of water, these antimalarial operations have proved successful in the places where the local authorities have given proper attention to the direction given.

Marine Aquarium—Perhaps a word is necessary about this institution at Madras. The building was constructed under the auspices of the Superintendent Government Museum Madras and was thrown open to the public on 21st October 1909. The Superintendent, Government Museum, had charge of the Aquarium for ten years till 1919 when it was transferred to the Department of Fisheries. Ever since its opening, being the first institution of its kind in Asia it has been immensely popular with the Public.

Four tanks were added during the course of the year and the construction of a turtle tank is in progress.

Deep Sea Fishing and Research—The fishermen have a fairly exhaustive knowledge of the fisheries along the coast up to 7 fathoms. If the catches of fish are to be improved it is necessary to ascertain—

- (1) what kinds and quantities of fish are available beyond 7 fathoms, and,
- (2) how to exploit these deep sea fisheries economically.

The department's trawler Lady Goschen has been exploring the off shore belt of the sea up to 100 fathoms from Point Calimere to

Madras on the East Coast and Calicut to Pigeon Islands on the West Coast with a view to ascertain the kinds and quantities of fish available there. An Assistant Biologist and staff to work on board the trawler and additional equipment for the Fisheries Research Stations at West Hill and Krusadal Islands were sanctioned by Government during the year. On remarkable discovery made by this systematic survey is that fish of better quality and in larger quantity are available in deeper waters on the East coast from Point Calimere to Madras than on the West coast from Calicut to Pigeon Islands, during the months of the survey. Whether it is the case throughout the year is yet to be ascertained. However it has helped to revise the general belief that fish are much more abundant on the West coast than on the East coast and opens up possibilities for large fishery developments on the East Coast which will ultimately increase the supply of fish food and fish manure.

Rural Pisciculture—As a result of the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Agriculture that all practical measures should be adopted to add fish to the diet of the cultivator thereby improving his nutrition a scheme of rural propaganda was inaugurated in 1930. An Assistant Director with necessary staff was appointed to advise ryots in the stocking of village ponds which number over 106,050 in the Presidency. The work though begun in July 1930 has already completed a survey of ponds in 63 villages suitable for the introduction of quick growing varieties of fish fry. As a demonstration measure two irrigation wells and a big municipal well at Chingleput were stocked with the famous North Indian Carp, Catla.

Welfare Work—A remarkable feature in the work of the Madras Fisheries Department is the energy which it devotes to the improvement of the condition of the fisherfolk. On Sir Frederick Nicholson's initiative the Department has always recognised the duty of spreading among them education and the habits of thrift, temperance and cooperation. The work has been specially successful on the West Coast. The number of fishermen's cooperative societies in 1929-30 was 60.

An important event of the year was the appointment of 3 cooperative inspectors to assist the Assistant Director of Fisheries (Coast) in intensive work among fishermen. The need for special efforts to promote cooperation among fisherfolk and to renew and stimulate cooperative societies to more efficient work has been recognised by Government for some years. The Committee on Fisheries recommended that all cooperative work among fishermen both on the West and East Coasts in the Presidency should be done by the Fisheries Department and that on the analogy of the system in vogue in the Labour Department, the staff of Inspectors of Cooperative societies should work under the Fisheries Department the Cooperative supplying trained inspectors and auditing the books of the societies. The Government partially accepted the recommendations and sanctioned the deputation of 3

Inspectors of Co-operative Societies for exclusive work among fishermen under the department.

The new industrial societies were started one at Blangad and the other at Palapatty on the West Coast in 1927 with the object of weaning the fishermen gradually from the influence of middlemen capitalists. The Government sanctioned a loan of Rs 1,00 each to the two societies for purchasing boats, nets and other accessories for fishing purposes. They are working since 1927 with varying degrees of success.

To promote the education of fishermen a training institution was opened in the middle of 1918 at Calicut to train teachers to work in elementary schools for the fisherfolk. The pupil teachers under training are familiarised with the work carried on in the fishery stations at Tanur and Lulliyam. They are given practical instructions in fishing a boat having been purchased for the purpose. In some places the villagers themselves started the schools and then handed over to the Department. In other places schools were opened by the Department at the request of the fishermen. Local men are appointed as honorary managers of schools.

Bengal & Bihar & Orissa

The fishing value of this extensive deltaic region lies primarily in the enormous area occupied by inland waters—rivers, creeks, jheels, and swamps,—to say nothing of paddy fields and tanks. These swarm with fish and, as the Hindu population are free to a large extent from the aversion to a fish-diet which is widely prevalent among the better castes in the south, the demand for fish is enormous. Eels and fish are indeed the principal mainstays of the population and not less than 80 per cent. of the people consume fish as a regular item of diet. It is calculated that 1.6 per cent. of the population is engaged in fishing and its connected trades, a percentage that rises to 2.6 in the Presidency, Raj Shahi, and Dacca Divisions. 644,000 persons in Bengal subsist by fishing with 324,000 maintained by the sale of fish, and this in spite of the fact that fishing is not considered an honourable profession. As a fresh-water fisherman the Bengali is most in genius his traps and other devices exceedingly clever and effective—in many cases too effective—so eager is he for immediate profit, however meagre this may be. The greatest inland fishery is that of the hilsa (*Clupea tilapia*) which annually migrates from the sea in innumerable multitudes to seek spawning grounds far up the branches of the Ganges and the other great rivers. Other valued and abundant fishes are the rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and the katla (*Catla catla*) mrigela (*Channa argus*), prawns and shrimps abound everywhere. Of important fishes taken in the lower reaches of the rivers and in the great network of creeks spread throughout the Sunderbans, the bicki (*Labeo*), and the mullets are the most esteemed, apart from these estuarine fish the most valuable sea-fishes are the mango-fishes (*Polydora*) pomfrets. The sea-fisheries are as yet little exploited, the fishermen of Orissa, where alone coastal fishing is of any local importance, having no sea craft save catamarans of inferior design and construction.

Following the inquiry begun in 1908 by Sir K. G. Gupta, an investigation of the steam trawl possibilities of the head of the Bay of Bengal was undertaken the trawler Golden Crown being employed for the purpose. The results showed that there are extensive areas suitable for trawling and capable of yielding large quantities of high class fish. Much attention was devoted during these trawl cruises to the acquisition of increased knowledge of the marine fauna, the results being published in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum. For various reasons, the chief perhaps being the hostility of vested interests, the lack of cold storage facilities and the loss of time involved by the trawler having to bring her catches to Calcutta instead of sending them by a swift tender, the experiment was financially a failure and was dropped. With ever increasing demand for fish in Calcutta and the concurrent rise in prices, the prospects of remunerative steam trawling are now much more promising, trawling companies being floated in the immediate future. The trade is a difficult one to organise and without a rare combination of technical fishery knowledge and far-sighted and comprehensive organization the danger run by the investing public will be considerable. Originally one Fisheries Department served the needs of the two provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Separation was effected in 1912 after which fisheries in Bengal were administered by the Director of Agriculture. The Bengal Fishery Department was abolished under retrenchment in 1923. In Bihar and Orissa, Fisheries form a section of the Department of Industries.

Government has ordered that the Bengal Fisheries Department be reconstituted on an improved basis as soon as funds permit. A Bengal Fisheries Department has of necessity a more limited scope for its activities than in the case of Madras. Practically no coastal minor industries exist, neither do the natural conditions lead us to suppose that any can be created without extreme difficulty, and in the absence of a great trawl industry which alone might be able to call into existence factories devoted to the uplift of the general utilization of fish by-products. Apart from this, much can be done by its officers for the uplift of the general fishing population with a view to free them from the tyranny of the mahajans (fish contractors and middle men) and enable them to put more capital into their business and to conduct it co-operatively. This is necessarily extremely slow work, but the old Department made a beginning and once a few societies can be made successful, the news of the benefits conferred on the members will constitute the best possible form of propaganda. The temporary abolition of the Bengal Fisheries Department was regretted by many and it is hoped that it will soon be revived. The fishery wealth of Bengal is enormous and nothing but good can come of intensive investigation and propaganda.

Fresh water mussels are used extensively at Dacca in the manufacture of cheap pearl buttons and in many cases pearls also are found in the mussels which the pearl dealers gather and sell in the various parts of India. The

Dacca bangle factories carry on an important local industry of very ancient standing their material is almost entirely obtained from the South Indian and Ceylon chank fisheries already alluded to

Bombay.

Whereas Bengal's fisheries are at present confined principally to inland waters those of Bombay are concerned save in Sind, almost entirely with the exploitation of the wealth of the sea. Bombay is favoured with a coast line abounding with excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fair-weather season lasting for some seven months, and a fishing population more alive to their opportunities and more daring than those of the sister Presidencies. Bombay sea-fisheries are of very great importance financially as well as economically and, though there is less necessity for a special department to develop marine industries, there is ample scope for most useful work in improving curing methods, in introducing canning, and in the development of minor marine industries particularly those connected with the utilization of by-products. With this end in view the Director of Industries administered the subject of "Fisheries" from 1918 and had for a time two officers in the Department engaged upon fishery investigation and development. A steam trawler was bought for work in Bombay waters in 1920 and began work in May 1921 off Bombay. The experiment continued until February 1922 and the trawler was subsequently sold to the Government of Burma. At the outset the results seemed promising, but the experiment as a whole showed that the cost of maintaining a trawler of the type used could not be met by sales of fish at current market rates. Cold storage has since been installed at the principal fish market in Bombay, but for a trawler special facilities are needed also for rapid coaling, supplying ice and stores and for unloading catches. More than this a change is needed in the medieval conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularising little known species of edible fish such as kareel, pain, tambura and particularly the ray or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent of the total catch but which is so little esteemed locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs for a rupee.

Owing to retrenchment the appointments of Fisheries officers have been abolished.

The more important sea-fish are pomfrets, soles and sea-perches among which are included the valuable few-fishes (*Somus* spp.) often attaining a very large size and notable as the chief source of "fish-maw" or "scanda" largely exported from Bombay for eventual manufacture into bangles. The fleet of Bombay fishing boats hail from the coast between Basmin and Surat. These boats are beautifully constructed, attain a considerable size and are capable of keeping the sea for weeks together. In the season they fish principally off the Kutch and Kathiawar coasts and in the month of the Gulf of Cambay. Their main method of fishing is by means of huge anchored stow nets, which are left down for several hours

and hauled at the turn of the tide. The chief catches are bombil (Bombay duck), pomfrets and few fishes. The first named are dried in the sun after being strung through the mouth upon lines stretched between upright posts. South of Bombay the fishermen of Ratnastri and Rajapur make use of another and lighter class of fishing boat, specially designed for use in drift-net fishing. Fine hauls of bonito seer (a large form of mackerel) and allied fishes are often made during the season from September to January and later of shark and ray fish. For the latter specially large and powerful nets are employed. For part of the fair season, when fishing is not usually remunerative, many of the larger Bombay fishing boats are employed as small coasters, a fact which shows how large they run in size.

In Sind considerable sea-fishing is carried on in the neighbourhood of Karachi chiefly for large and coarse fish, as shark, ray and few-fishes. The edible oyster trade of Karachi was once extensive, the creeks of the Indus producing a species of oyster superior to that found in Bombay and Madras backwaters and estuaries. Unrestricted exploitation of beds of limited extent inflicted great harm, and now, when various salutary restrictions are imposed the beds are slow to respond. Occasionally large deposits of the window pane oyster (*Pisum pizans*) are found in the Indus creeks and at these produce seed pearls in abundance. Government leased the beds to the highest bidder. The pearls are largely exported to China for use in medicine. Considerable fisheries exist in the River Indus, chiefly for the fish known as palla, which are annually leased out by Government for about Rs. 20,000.

In the Gulf of Kutch two pearl fisheries exist, one for the true pearl oyster, the other for the window pane oyster. The former is carried on by His Highness the Maharaja of Jamnagar the other partly by this Prince and partly by the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda. The latter industry owes its local existence to the enterprise of the Baroda Government which in 1905 obtained the services on deputation of Mr J Hornell formerly Director of Fisheries in Madras for the purpose of examining the marine possibilities of the Baroda territory in Kathiawar. One of the consequences was the discovery of large deposits of pearl bearing window pane oysters until then unknown. Of late years these beds have produced annually from Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 25,000 in revenue perhaps the best example we have in India of the profitable nature of well-directed scientific enquiry into fishery problems. The Baroda Government continuing their enlightened interest in the fishery developments have had two officers trained in the Madras Fisheries Department and now employ them in development work on the Baroda coast.

Experiments in canning are now in progress at one of the chief fishing centres on the Southern Kathiawar coast and already promise considerable success particularly with regard to pomfrets.

In 1910 Mr W H Lucas, Collector of Salt Bawuna, drew up a report on the improvement of the sea fisheries in the Bombay Presidency.

The main conclusions at which he arrived were that the Indian consumer is so conservative that new methods of curing, canning etc. have no chance of succeeding without the help of patient demonstration by Government as an initial step towards the investment of Indian capital in a new enterprise, and that therefore the establishment of a Government demonstration fishing station at some large fishing centre on the Ratanagiri or Kanara coast may be found advisable after the results of the Madras Government fishing station have been studied.

In 1930 the Bombay Government asked the present Collector of Salt Revenue to make a fresh survey of the fishing industry in order to bring up-to-date the report by Mr. Lucas which is referred to above.

Burma

The exclusive right of fishing throughout the province of Burma belongs by custom of the country to Government and the Burma Fisheries Act provides for the protection of this right and for conceding the enjoyment of it to the people subject to certain restrictions for the conservation of the fish. The work of the fisherfolk, involving as it does the taking of life is generally viewed with disfavour by the Burman Buddhists. In certain tracts this attitude is intensified where the proportion of the fisherfolk is not only small but their economic conditions are more or less demoralised. Though fishing is generally denounced by Burman Buddhists, yet they consume the fish. The usual argument of the consumers is that they have not taken the life of the fish and therefore have committed no sin. Where fishing is the principal means of livelihood of the majority as in some Delta Districts, religious scruples tend to disappear.

Revenue.—The economic value of any industry or tract of country can to some extent be gauged by the revenue it yields. The fisheries yield a substantial revenue (about one-eighth of the total land revenue), and therefore they are one of the most important sources of national wealth. There are two methods of catching fish, namely by nets in the rivers and seas and by traps in leased fisheries. The fishery revenue demand from net-licences amounts to over four lakhs while that from the leased fisheries amounts to more than 41 lakhs. Of the net licences the greatest revenue comes from Mergal District where not only is the Pearl net industry carried on, but leases for collecting green snails and sea algae are issued. Open lakes, pools of water and small rivers are classed as leased fisheries and are leased by Government to the highest and best bidder at public auction. Here the Irrawaddy Division equals in importance the rest of the province and of the five districts in the Irrawaddy Division Maubin District alone yields as much as half of the whole division. Maubin District therefore stands easily first in respect of fishery revenue, and out of the total collected in any year from the whole province, this district alone contributes about a quarter.

The Delta consists of a series of saucer-shaped islands, many of which have embankments round the greater part of them along the north,

east and west in the hollows of these islands most of the fish come into spawn, and with the floods which overflow the embankment during October the young fry come down-country from Upper Burma.

The principal kinds of fish caught in nets on the sea-coast are (1) Kakkuyan, (2) Kathabang, and (3) Kathahmyin. These are generally made into salt fish which fetch Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per viss. The creek and fresh water fish from fisheries are generally ngakhu, ngayan and ngayyi. Most of them are sold fresh, but some are converted into salt fish. The fish caught in the rivers are generally ngathalauk, Ngayyin and ngaymyin, the predaceous fish.

Fees for net licences are charged according to the size of the nets. Fisheries which consist of lakes, pools and streams are put up to auction but as no Burman fisherman has ever been known to keep a proper system of accounts, he seldom or never can gauge the real worth of the fisheries. This coupled with his impulsive nature frequently results in his bids at auction exceeding the value of the fisheries. Several fishermen have thus not only brought ruin on themselves but also on their sureties who have not infrequently been sold up. Until these fisheries are brought under some settlement system for revenue assessment, *bona fide* fishermen must suffer from time to time. Moreover, the local authorities demand adequate securities and the furnishing as well as the verifying of these securities invariably mean much expenditure of time and money, both to the fisherfolk and to the Government staff. With a view to ameliorate uneconomic conditions by rendering the provisions of security easier as well as to facilitate collection Government introduced what is known as the group system whereby the value of the fisheries is fixed at a reasonable rental and in stead of an individual system of furnishing security, the groups hold themselves severally responsible. It was thought that in order to enable the poorest of the actual workers to reap the benefit of their labours nothing short of a co-operative system would be of any avail. This co-operative system was tried in the Thariawaddy District. In spite of large sacrifices of revenue in allotment of group fisheries on unjustifiably low rents they have not been popular with fishermen have not prevented defaults and have tended to collapse by dispute among the group members and civil suits over their liability for each others defaults.

Another system known as Fair Rent and Tender System was introduced in Maubin as an experimental measure. Under this system the lease is fixed at a fair rent and tenders of premium invited and the lease is given on a consideration of the premium offered, plus the character of the person tendering and his previous connection with the fishing industry. The system, it is reported is unpopular with lessees in spite of the favourable rents and the long-term leases. The Government has now stopped this system altogether. The Fishery Settlement Enquiry which was set on foot in 1923 will, it is

hoped, lead to improvement of the Fishery Revenue Administration. The final report of the Enquiry is not yet out.

The principal articles of manufacture are ngapi (fish-paste) and salt-fish the manufacturing methods are primitive and with more industrial education and capital, these could be considerably improved.

The Punjab.

The years 1928-29 and 1929-30 were both somewhat hard on the fish and fisheries as well as on the fishermen of the Punjab. The abnormal autumn floods of 1928 and 1929 did considerable damage in the riverain tracts and complaints were received from many districts that fish were very scarce, especially in those through which the Chenab and Sutlej Rivers flow. A large number of fishermen found work at the Head Works at Islam and Basul which took them away from their usual occupation of fishing and hence there was a small drop in the licences issued on the Sutlej and Chenab.

In July 1929 the Carp again spawned in very large numbers in the Government Fish Farm at Chennawan and enabled the Research Officer to make a number of observations but in the summer of 1930 no spawning took place and the department is still at a loss to account for the omission. For five years the fish refused to spawn. In the following two years (1928 and 1929) they spawned in considerable numbers, and again in 1930 showed no activity in this line whatever. Experiments are necessary in a number of places far apart, and a good deal of patient research, to elucidate this problem.

These two years started auspiciously as a pretentious 5 year programme had been presented to Government, and most of it had been approved by a special Committee which sat in Simla to consider it and had received the administrative approval of Government, but had to

be abandoned owing to the prevailing financial stringency.

Trout culture in the Kangra Hills continues to flourish. Another stream was opened to trout fishing during the year and provided fair sport.

The Uhl River in Mandi State (which was stocked by the department) provided excellent sport. One angler caught 18 fish weighing 72 lb his biggest being 64 lb. Another later in the season was fortunate in getting a 14½ lb trout and a number varying between 2 lb and 9 lb.

The Beas and its tributaries in Kulu suffered heavily from a very severe hailstorm in September 1929 when several thousand trout were picked up dead on the banks and an epidemic among the rainbow trout in the Hatcheries very nearly wiped out the stock.

Licences fell from 8,355 in 1928-29, to 5,504 in 1929-30. The Kangra District alone accounted for 2,508 of this deficit, owing primarily to this district being brought into line with the plain districts and during the period of 1928-29 licences extended from 1st January to 1st April.

Travancore

This State has affiliated fisheries to the Department of Agriculture and with the help of two officers trained in Madras and another officer trained in Japan, the Department has already accomplished a notable amount of development work. Special attention has been given to the regulation of fisheries in backwaters, to the establishment of co-operative societies among the fishing community and to the introduction of improved methods of sardine oil and guano production. Useful work has been done by one of the officers in elucidating the life-histories of the more valuable food fishes and prawns. Improved methods of curing fish are being introduced. Special Schools have been opened for the education of fisher lads.

The Forests.

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of India indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy but whether or not our earlier administrators realised the importance of the forests to the physical and economic welfare of the country, the fact remains that little or nothing was done. The year 1855 marked the commencement of a new era in the history of forestry in India, for it was then that Lord Dalhousie laid down a definite and far-sighted forest policy. Further progress was delayed for a time by the Mutiny, but from 1860 onwards forest organisation was rapidly extended to the other provinces. The earlier years of forest administration were beset with difficulties, which is not surprising considering that the Department was charged with the unpopular duty of protecting the heritage of Nature from the rapacity of mankind. A duty which naturally roused the antagonism of the agricultural population of India. Exploitation, demarcation and settlement followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of regular management, were the first duties of the Forest Department. Work on these lines, which is not yet completed in the more backward parts of the country, has been pursued steadily from the commence-

ment, and in consequence large tracts of forest have been saved from ruin and are gradually being brought under efficient management. Whatever may have been the opinions held in some quarters half a century ago as to the need for a policy such as that expressed in Lord Dalhousie's memorable enunciation of 1855, there is no longer any doubt that results have amply justified the steps taken, and that in her forests India now possesses a property of constantly increasing value, the future importance of which it is hardly possible to over-estimate.

Types of Forest.—More than one fifth of the total area of British India (including the Shan States) is under the control of the Forest Department. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassified State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated, in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated, while in the unclassified forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenues.

until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of British India (including the Shan States) on 31st March 1927 was 231,755 square miles or 22.8 of the total area. This was classed as follows: Reserved 105,285 Protected 8,226, Unclassed State, 137,844.

Throughout this vast forest area scattered over the length and breadth of India from the Himalayan snows to Cape Comorin and from the arid juniper tracts of Baluchistan to the eastern limits of the Shan States, there is, as may be imagined, an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on variations of climate and soil and on other local factors. Broadly speaking the following main types of forest may be distinguished—

(1) Arid country forests, extending over Sind, a considerable portion of Rajputana, part of Baluchistan and the south of the Punjab in dry tracts where the rainfall is less than 20 inches. The number of species is few, the most important tree being the babul or *kikar* (*Acacia arabica*) which however in the driest regions exists only by the aid of river inundations.

(2) Deciduous forests, in which most of the trees are leafless for a portion of the year. These forests, which extend over large areas in the sub-Himalayan tract, the Peninsula of India and Burma, are among the most important comprising as they do the greater part of the oak and sal forests.

(3) Evergreen forests.—These occur in regions of very heavy rainfall such as the west coast of the Peninsula, the eastern sub-Himalayan tract and the moister parts of Burma and are characterised by the great variety and luxuriance of their vegetation.

(4) Hill forests.—In these the vegetation varies considerably according to elevation and rainfall. In the Eastern Himalaya, Assam and Burma, the hill forests are characterised by various oaks, magnolias and laurels while in Assam and Burma the Khassia pine (*Pinus khasya*) grows gregariously at elevations of 3,000 to 7,000 feet. In the North-Western Himalaya the chief timber tree is the deodar (*Deodar deodara*), which occurs most commonly at elevations of 3,000 to 8,000 feet and in association with oaks or blue pine (*Pinus waltonii*), towards its upper limit the deodar merges into very large areas of spruce and silver fir, while below it are found extensive forests of the long needled pine (*Pinus longifolia*) which is tapped for resin.

(5) Littoral forests.—These occur on the sea coast and along tidal creeks. The most characteristic trees belong to the mangrove family (*Rhizophoraceae*). Behind the mangrove belt is an important type of forest occasionally inundated by high tides, in which the most valuable species is the 'sundri' (*Heritiera foetida*).

Forest Policy.—The general policy of the Government of India in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1904 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely—

(a) Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds. These

are usually situated in hilly country where the retention of forest growth is of vital importance on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosions and sudden floods.

(b) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example as the teak forests of Burma, the sal forests of Northern, Central, and North-Eastern India, and the deodar and pine forests of the North-Western Himalaya.

(c) Minor forests containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber, and managed for the production of wood fodder, grazing and other produce for local consumption, these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(d) Pasture lands.—These are not "forests" in the generally understood sense of the term, but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration.—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Inspector General of Forests is also President of the Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun and is the technical adviser to the Government of India in forest matters. Under the Constitution of 1919 Forests were made a transferred subject in Bombay and Burma where they had long been administered by the Provincial Governments and in 1924 the Reforms Inquiry Committee presided over by the Hon. Sir Alexander Muddiah, Home Member of the Government of India, recommended that they be transferred in other provinces now unless any local Government on examination of the position can make out a convincing case against the transfer to its own province.

Territorial charges.—The various provinces are divided into one or more Forest Circles, each in charge of a Conservator of Forests, provinces containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his province. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the Imperial or Provincial Forest Service, these Divisions in most cases correspond to civil districts. Each Division contains a number of Ranges in charge of junior members of the Provincial Service or of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers, heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Subdivisions. The Ranges are further subdivided into a number of beats or protective charges held by Forest Guards or in some cases by Foresters.

Non-territorial charges.—Apart from territorial charges there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with Forest Research and Education, the preparation of Forest Working Plans, and other special duties.

The Forest Service. The Forest Service comprises three branches—

(1) The Indian (Imperial) Forest Service with a sanctioned total personnel of 399 officers (con-

sisting of the Inspector General of Forests, Chief Conservators, Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators. Of these 263 are to be recruited direct to the service and the balance obtained by promotion from the Provincial Forest Service. The officers of this service are recruited as probationers subject to the following methods prescribed in the Indian Forest Service (Recruitment) Rules 1928 —

- (a) by nomination in England in accordance with these rules and such supplementary regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of State in Council
- (b) by competitive examination in India in accordance with these rules and such supplementary regulations as may be prescribed by the Governor-General in Council,
- (c) by direct appointment in accordance with these rules of person selected in India otherwise than by competitive examination,
- (d) by the promotion in accordance with these rules on the recommendation of local Governments of members of the Provincial Forest Service,
- (e) by the transfer of promotion in accordance with these rules of an officer belonging to a branch of Government Service in India other than a Provincial Forest Service

The Rules provide that all appointment in the Indian Forests Service shall be made by the Secretary of State for India in Council, that no appointment shall be made to the Indian Forest Service by any method other than the five just quoted and that subject to this last mentioned condition, the method or methods of recruitment to be employed for the purpose of filling any particular vacancies in the Indian Forest Service or such vacancies therein as may be required to be filled during any particular period and the number of candidates to be recruited by each method, shall be determined by the Secretary of State in Council.

(2) **The Indian Forest Engineering Service**—This service was created in 1919 and at present consists of 17 Forest Engineers.

(3) **The Provincial Service**—Formerly it consisted of Extra Deputy and Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests. All Extra Deputy Conservators who were considered to be fully qualified to hold a major charge were transferred to the Imperial Forest Service in 1920. Except for five unpromoted officers the class of Extra Deputy Conservators has been abolished and the service now consists of Extra Assistant Conservators only. The fixation of the strength of the personnel of the service rests with the local Governments.

Officers of this service are eligible for promotion to 12½ per cent of the posts in the Indian Forest Service, such promotion being made by the Secretary of State for India. These officers are recruited and trained in India, their

recruitment being a matter for the local Governments. A certain number of posts in the service are filled by the promotion of specially promising Rangers. Owing to the establishment of a course for the training of probationers for the Indian Forests Service at Dehra Dun since 1924, the Provincial Service course ceased to exist from 1923.

(4) The Subordinate Service consists of Forest Rangers (about 840), Deputy Rangers (about 900), Foresters (about 2,000) and Forest Guards (about 11,500). The Rangers are at present trained at three different centres—the Forest College at Dehra Dun (for provinces other than Burma, the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, and Madras), the Burma Forest School at Pyinmana (for Burma) and the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore (for Madras, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and the Central Provinces). These three institutions were established in 1878, 1898 and 1912, respectively. The training of subordinates below the rank of Ranger is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

Research—For the first fifty years of the existence of the Forest Department in India no attempt was made to organize the conduct of forest research, and thus to co-ordinate and elaborate the scientific knowledge so necessary to successful economic working. A commencement in organized forest research was at last made in 1906 by the establishment, at the instance of Sir Sainthill Bartley Wilnot, then Inspector-General of Forests of a Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The Forest Research Institute which is under the administrative control of the Inspector General of Forests, is in the charge of a President. There are five main branches of research, namely Sylviculture, Forest Botany, Forest Economic Products, Entomology and Chemistry, each branch being in charge of a research officer. In addition specialists are appointed temporarily when necessary and are attached to the Institute to carry out investigations in subjects of particular economic importance. Thus a paper pulp expert has been employed for some time to investigate possible new sources of paper making materials of which the forests of India contain abundant supplies. Besides this there are the Seasoning, the Timber Testing, and the Wood Preservation experts engaged temporarily on short term contracts. Indian Assistants have been appointed under them to receive the necessary technical training and experience in these subjects, with the object of eventually taking the place of experts if and when properly qualified.

Since 1906 research work has been prosecuted energetically so much so that in 1920 a new scheme was sanctioned for the expansion of the staff and site of the Institute. Since then new land has been acquired, on which new buildings are being built for accommodating the various expanded branches and the new machinery obtained from the United Kingdom. As a result of this and the employment of specialists in Seasoning, Timber Testing and Wood Preservation steady progress is being made in the investigations which should ultimately lead to the fuller and better utilization of the raw products produced by Indian forests.

Forest Products.—Forest produce is divided into two main heads—(1) Major products, that is timber and firewood, and (2) Minor products, comprising all other products such as bamboo, leaves, fruits, fibres, grass, gums, resins, barks, animal and mineral products etc. The average annual outturn of timber and fuel from all sources during the quinquennium ended 31st March 1924, the latest date for which statistics are available was 38,06,40,000 cubic feet against an average of 30,72,00,000 cubic feet per annum attained in the preceding quinquennium. The highest figure ever attained under this head occurred in 1921-22, when a total of 38,18,83,000 c ft was reached the year 1923-24 coming next with 35,86,90,000 c ft. The figures for 1921-22 and 1923-24 represent respectively 2.3 and 2.4 c ft per acre of all classes of forests. For reserved forests only the yield in 1923-24 was 3.7 c ft per acre as compared with 3.3 c ft per acre in 1918-19 the last year of the last preceding quinquennium. The year 1921-22 was marked by a phenomenal output of teak in Burma viz., 600,000 tons (30,000,000 cubic feet), which was more than 74 per cent above the average annual output of the preceding quinquennium. With the output of teak for the year the revenue in Burma soared to Rs 2,21,16,788 and the surplus to Rs 1,30,83,992. The total outturn for the five years amounted to 2,478,849 tons, an increase of 751,000 tons, or 44 per cent over the output in the preceding quinquennium.

The figures for the last quinquennium for which a report has been issued show that in 1923-24 the ratio of timber extracted by Government agency to that removed by purchasers was 5 to 29 compared with a ratio of 5 to 27 in 1919-20. During the period the outturn removed by Government agency rose by 41 per cent, whilst that removed by purchasers increased by 19 per cent. Timber and fuel to the value of Rs 11,14,00 lakhs and minor products, including bamboo and grass valued at Rs 375 lakhs were removed by purchasers during the period. For the quinquennium 1918-19 the figures were Rs 10,19,00 lakhs and Rs 355 lakhs respectively.

Financial Results of Forest Administration in British India from 1864-65 to 1923-24 (in lakhs of rupees)

Quinquennial period	(Gross revenue average per annum)	(Expenditure average per annum)	Surplus (average per annum)	Percentage of surplus to gross revenue
	Lakhs	Lakhs	Lakhs	Lakhs
1864-65 to 1868-69	27.4	23.8	13.6	36.4
1869-70 to 1873-74	56.3	39.8	17.0	30.2
1874-75 to 1878-79	66.6	45.8	20.8	31.2
1879-80 to 1883-84	88.2	56.1	32.1	36.4
1884-85 to 1888-89	116.7	74.3	42.4	36.2
1889-90 to 1893-94	150.5	86.0	73.5	46.1
1894-95 to 1898-99	177.2	93.0	79.2	44.7
1899-1900 to 1903-04	196.6	112.7	83.9	42.7
1904-05 to 1908-09	237.0	141.0	116.0	45.1
1909-10 to 1913-14	296.0	168.7	132.3	44.7
1914-15 to 1918-19	371.3	211.1	160.2	43.1
1919-20 to 1923-24	551.7	367.1	184.6	33.5

Reviewing the figures of outturn Government in a report issued in October 1925, says: "The results on the whole, considering the general trade depression, are most satisfactory and point to more intensive working of the forests and to better exploitation."

Forest Industries.—The important rôle which the forests of a country play in its general commercial welfare and in providing employment for its population is not always fully recognized. Fifteen years ago it was estimated that in Germany work in the forests provided employment for 1,000,000 persons while 3,000,000 persons, earning 250,000,000 a year were employed in working up the raw material yielded by the forests. If accurate estimates were available for India, they would no doubt show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forests and the large numbers of wood cutters, sawyers, carters, carriers, raftermen and others working in and near them, employment on an extensive scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw products. Among these latter may be mentioned carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, boat-builders, tanners, rope makers, lac-manufacturers, basket-makers and many other classes of skilled labourers. The Indian census shows over a million people and their dependents so employed in British India and nearly a further half million in Native States, but these are probably below the actuals, as much forest labour is not whole-time labour, devoting seven or eight months in the year to forest work and the rest to agriculture. With the opening up of the forests, the extension of systematic working, the wider use of known products, and the possible discovery of new products, a steady and extensive development of industries dependent on the forests of India may be confidently anticipated in the future.

Financial Results.—The steady growth of forest revenue, expenditure and surplus during the past 50 years is shown in the following statement, which gives annual averages for quinquennial periods—

The gross revenue and surplus were Rs 468 2 lakhs and Rs 179.4 lakhs in 1918-19 and Rs 544 9 lakhs and Rs 195.6 lakhs in 1923-24 respectively. The surplus rose from Rs 1,79,42,726 in 1918-19 to Rs 2,10,12,540 in 1919-20, but during the next three years it steadily decreased, rising again to Rs 1,84,80,547 during the last year of the quinquennium. The surplus in 1923-24 represents an average of 2.1 annas per acre of all classes of forest against 1.8 annas in 1918-19. The total surplus rose from Rs 1,79,42,726 in 1918-19 to Rs 1,95,60,945 in 1923-24. Government, reviewing the figures, state. Financially, the Forest Department has had during the quinquennium to undergo a severe strain, even since the slump set in following on the short lived post-war boom in trade. But development solely with a view to increase the resources and earning capacity of the forests has never been lost sight of. Judging by the perceptible improvement in the general financial results all round, it is confidently expected that the improvements initiated in this quinquennial period will produce much better results when the slump ends.

Prospects.—The past work of the Forest Department has already borne fruit, not only in a steady rise of revenue but also in the improved condition of the forests resulting from careful protection and tending. Much has been done in the way of opening up the forests to regular exploitation, but there is still room for enormous development in this respect for there are extensive areas of valuable forest as yet almost untouched, and these represent a vast capital locked up and not only lying idle but even deteriorating. Perhaps the two most pressing needs at present are the introduction of improved silvicultural systems and the extension of roads and other export works to facilitate and cheapen extraction. These two must proceed simultaneously since they are inter-dependent, for it is obvious that timber and other produce can be extracted far more economically if it is available in large quantities within a limited radius than if it is scattered in small quantities over large tracts of country. Indeed this question must often decide whether extraction is possible or not. Silviculture teaches us how to effect this concentration and is therefore the bed rock on which future results, financial and otherwise, must rest. It is of little avail to seek and develop new markets for timber and other products if these cannot be produced in regular and sufficient quantities and extracted at a reasonable cost.

Forest Products Exploitation.—The exploitation by the Forest Department as a Commercial Department on business lines, of

the great timber forests which are among the most valuable natural assets of the country, continues to attract the special attention of the various local Governments. In Madras, for instance, the working of the Forest panchayat system, whereby the increased knowledge of the difficulties of forest administration which the villager obtains when he has a voice in forest management is bringing home to him an understanding of the necessity for that administration. A further important step taken in regard to forest exploitation was the recruitment of a Chief Forest Engineer and a Logging Engineer from America. In Burma the work under way in the Government Timber Depot at Mangoon proves to be of great value to Government from the point of view of revenue and of considerable importance to the public from the point of view of industrial development. Research work on the seasoning of timbers has been started and results which promise to be of great value have already been obtained. Experimental work on the manufacture of furniture and in other similar directions are expected to give a value to a number of different timbers which are at present more or less unknown. The Myittha River Trading Works started in 1905, which have since then been continued for the sale of Government teak timber, are of more than departmental interest. These works have also proved of great value to local people inasmuch as they have led to the reclamation of a very considerable amount of land which was previously too low lying and swampy to be fit for cultivation. In the United Provinces, the institution of the Government Sawmill and Turnery, the Government Central Wood Working Institute and the Resin Distillery have led to important results. These and many other examples which could be quoted go to show that local Governments are fully alive to the importance of exploiting their forest resources to the fullest possible extent for the benefit of the country.

Agencies.—An agency has been established in India by the Government of India for the sale of Government timber and it is at present held by Messrs Martin & Co. Calcutta. The agency held in England by Messrs W. W. Howard Brothers terminated in December 1926 and the work of marketing Indian timbers in England (especially Andaman timbers) is now done under the direction of a Timber Adviser who is attached to the Office of the High Commissioner for India.

Bibliography.—A large number of bulletins and other publications has been issued by the Forest Research Institute, and of these a list can be obtained from the Superintendent, Government Printing, India, Calcutta.

AREA OF FOREST LANDS, OUTPUT OF PRODUCE AND REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF FOREST DEPARTMENT

Province.	Forest Area		Proportion of Forests to whole Area of Province		Output of Produce		Revenue	Expenditure	Surplus.
	Reserved Forests.	Un-classed State Forests, &c.	sq miles	sq miles	Timber and Fuel	Minor Produce			
Madras	18,914	348	12,537	13.4	22,234,000	19,86,981	61,54,777	46,50,508	15,05,270
Bombay	132,280	1,105	1,023	12.7	5,043,000	19,96,431	73,42,035	44,92,445	28,50,590
Bengal	76,785	6,482	6,824	13.7	38,143,000	19,96,431	73,42,035	44,92,445	28,50,590
United Provinces	106,720	5,139	4,388	4.8	34,920,000	14,84,088	61,50,391	33,48,716	28,01,675
Punjab	97,251	8,210	5,999	5.9	32,561,000	27,83,828	28,36,025	24,93,319	3,42,706
Burma (including Federated Shan States and Karami)	92,257	115,345	147,592	90	127,691,100	10,54,110	1,81,09,143	84,24,771	96,75,372
Bihar and Orissa	92,083	5,973	5,973	3	9,387,000	2,68,103	10,97,161	8,60,377	1,76,783
Central Provinces & Berar	98,951	19,641	19,641	19.6	46,878,000	82,55,259	54,49,818	86,06,259	17,37,567
Assam	55,156	14,302	20,407	36.9	1,91,185,000	9,70,266	37,67,873	21,25,066	16,42,807
North-West Frontier Province	245	472	245	1.8	2,948,000	1,14,383	8,29,877	8,24,935	51,583
Vinoh	318	785	785	1.4	299,208	44,888	23,423	30,875	-13,453
British Baluchistan	141	141	141	5.1	406,245	40,866	5,56,023	7,75,185	11,680
Ajmer-Merwara	1,682	519	323	32.3	529,432	59,029	5,56,023	8,55,133	2,60,503
Coorg	3,145	2,190	2,190	69.6	3,004,500	9,539	15,00,708	12,98,927	2,01,779
Andaman and Nicobar	1,108 .005	1,046	249,822	22.7	389,923,085	1,31,75,316	5,78,09,143	2,50,51,260	2,27,57,883
Totals 1924-25	1,038,579	6,398	6,398	22.7	770,173,767	1,31,75,316	6,18,09,143	3,56,84,674	3,62,48,453
1927-28	1,038,579	6,398	6,398	22.7	770,173,767	1,31,75,316	6,18,09,143	3,56,84,674	3,62,48,453
1928-29	1,038,579	6,398	6,398	22.7	770,173,767	1,31,75,316	6,18,09,143	3,56,84,674	3,62,48,453
1929-30	1,038,579	6,398	6,398	22.7	770,173,767	1,31,75,316	6,18,09,143	3,56,84,674	3,62,48,453
1930-31	1,038,579	6,398	6,398	22.7	770,173,767	1,31,75,316	6,18,09,143	3,56,84,674	3,62,48,453
Totals	1,038,579	6,398	6,398	22.7	770,173,767	1,31,75,316	6,18,09,143	3,56,84,674	3,62,48,453

* Excludes Delhi Province and the British Possessions of Mesopotamia (Central India).

† Unclassified state forests or public forest lands which are often called, included in many provinces all unoccupied waste, often entirely devoid of trees. No statistics do not necessarily represent the wooded area.

(a) Includes 2,614 square miles for the Imperial Forest College.

(b) Excluding figures for Shan States and Karen.

(c) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

(d) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

(e) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

(f) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

(g) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

(h) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

(i) Including expenditure under the head Imperial Forest College.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY AND TELEPHONY

Beam Stations.—The year 1927 saw the commencement of Beam wireless services on the Marconi system between India and the United Kingdom. Powerful transmitting and receiving stations erected at Poona and Dhond respectively by the Indian Radio Telegraph Company are connected by land lines with the Central Telegraph Office in Bombay whilst stations at Skegness and Grimsby are similarly connected with the General Post Office in London, and the circuits are so arranged that messages are exchanged between Bombay and London without intermediate hauling at the Beam stations at either end. The huge aerial systems at Poona and Dhond each supported on five steel towers 287 feet in height, are landmarks over a distance of many miles. The service was inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy on 23rd July 1927 at the Central Telegraph Office, Bombay when His Excellency transmitted a message to the King and His Majesty's reply was received a few minutes later.

It is noteworthy that the opening of the Beam wireless service coincided with a reduction in rates by the cable companies. The Eastern Telegraph Co. which operates the cable from Europe to India has become merged in the New Imperial and International Communications Ltd.

For reasons of economy most of the inland wireless stations in India were practically closed down and placed in charge of Care and Maintenance parties which carry out tests twice a month the exceptions being Peshawar Radio which always maintained official communication with Kabul in Afghanistan and Kashgar in China and Jodogh Radio which receives British Official Wireless sent out from Oxford and Rugby and passes the messages to Moulvi's Agency for distribution to subscribing newspapers. The stations at Delhi and Allahabad have now been equipped with apparatus to enable them to function as aeronautical wireless stations and they are used as such. New wireless stations for aeronautical purposes have been erected at Jodhpur in Bikaner and Gaya. The wireless installations at Karachi and Okhutta have been modified so as to meet all the Wireless requirements of aircraft passing over India. New stations equipped for aeronautical communication purposes are under construction at Chitragong, Akra, Bandoway and Bassein.

The coast stations however have been maintained in a state of high efficiency and many improvements effected. The application of the Bandot system to the high speed continuous wave wireless stations at Madras Port and Mingalod (Rangoon) has proved extremely satisfactory, and a large portion of the traffic between Southern India and Burma is regularly worked by this direct route instead of the circuitous route via Calcutta. The traffic is interrupted occasionally by atmospheric interference, particularly during the hot weather but the difficulties have been largely overcome by handspeed working during the worst periods.

For many years the Bombay stations known as Bombay Radio was located on Butcher Island in the Harbour but during 1927 a fine new station equipped with modern apparatus was erected and taken into service at Santa Cruz, just outside the limits of Bombay Municipality.

Radio telegrams exchanged with ships at sea by coast stations in India and Burma continue to increase in number and now total about 30 000 per annum. Official telegrams are exchanged with the British Naval stations at Matara (Ceylon) via Bombay Radio. Regular services are also maintained between Burma and the Malay Peninsula via Rangoon and Penang and between Burma and Sumatra, whilst radio traffic is passed between Madras and Colombo when the normal route is interrupted.

Wireless telephonic communication between pilot vessels, lighthouses and shore stations are maintained by the Port Trusts at Bombay and Rangoon. In the early hours of March 19 telephonic communication between Bombay and London was established for the first time. The conversations were initiated from the *s.s. Belgenland* a tourist ship lying in Bombay Harbour and were made possible through the courtesy of Standard Telephones and Cables Limited in conjunction with the International Marine Radio Company.

Safety at Sea.—A noticeable feature of wireless development during the past two years has been the provision of direction finding apparatus at Bombay and Karachi and facilities at other coast stations whereby ships at sea equipped with direction finding apparatus can obtain bearings on coast stations and thus determine their position with a remarkable degree of accuracy. The latest style of Marconi beacon was erected on Kennedy Island during 1931 to guide shipping approaching Bombay harbour. All ships equipped with wireless direction finders will now be able to obtain exact knowledge of their whereabouts at a distance of 150 miles from the coast. Tide beacon is an experiment and is likely to be the first of many others along the coast of India. Improved arrangements for broadcasting time signals, weather reports and navigational warnings from coast stations have also proved of value to ships at sea.

Broadcasting.—For several years, limited broadcasting services were maintained by Radio Clubs in Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi and Rangoon, and although the transmitting sets employed by them were of very low power, the broadcasts were tuned in over practically the whole of India. The clubs were assisted financially by a Government contribution based upon the revenue from license fees, but this did not nearly suffice to cover the cost of the transmissions, and the greatest credit is due to the members of those clubs for the sporting manner in which they provided additional funds and undertook the entire responsibility for the programmes. Credit is also due to the Indian States and Eastern Agency for the loan of transmitting apparatus without which the broadcasts would have been impossible.

After negotiations extending over several years, an Indian Broadcasting Company was granted a license to establish broadcasting services upon lines similar to those of the British Broadcasting Corporation, and transmitting stations were erected in Bombay and Calcutta, the services at the former being inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy in July 1927 and the latter by the Governor of Bengal a month later. These stations had each an aerial input of three kilowatts the same as that of the B.I.O. stations in London, of which they are practically duplicates. The programmes were so arranged that both Indian and European music are broadcast daily and the news bulletins and market and weather reports are read in two languages.

Bombay broadcasts normally on a wavelength of 857 metres, and Calcutta on 870 metres. Reception in either of these cities, and for a distance of twenty or thirty miles around is possible on crystal sets, of which a very large number have been sold. Valve sets are necessary for those living further afield, but although there has been a considerable demand for these, the sales have not reached expectation. One of the greatest difficulties in India is the maintenance of batteries which is no inconsiderable item when sets containing five or six valves are employed. Partly with a view to overcoming this problem and to render broadcasting available on two-valve sets in any part of India, the Broadcasting Company investigated the possibility of transmitting simultaneously on long and short waves. It took no action on the results of such investigations.

The Indian Broadcasting Company was wound up in 1930 and its operations have since been conducted by the Government of India in the Industries and Labour Department. Government for this purpose formed an Indian State Broadcasting Service and instituted a Central Broadcasting Advisory Committee representative of the non-official public in association with the Departmental officials to keep them in touch with public opinion. The Committee has as its chairman the Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of the Subject (now the Hon. Sir Joseph Bhore) and upon it sit at the present time Messrs V. B. Macbeth and N. M. Dumasie M.L.A. Bombay, H. H. Reviand and K. C. Neogi M.L.A. Calcutta, M. B. Colburn Bikaner, Advisor to Government in the Posts and Telegraphs Department and B. Rama Rao, Joint

Secretary to Government in the Industries and Labour Dept. It is now proposed to establish a series of additional broadcasting stations in different parts of India so as to spread broadcasting service on low powered sets throughout the land. Important proposals with this purpose in view were discussed by the Advisory Committee in Calcutta in December 1930.

Licenses.—Broadcast receiving licenses are issued at Head Post Offices at a fee of ten rupees per year and cover the use of receiving sets throughout British India except Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Licenses for fixed stations for transmitting and experimental purposes are much sought after and despite a careful scrutiny of the applicants more than 800 have been issued. The number of traders in wireless apparatus who are required to take out special Import licenses has increased considerably during the past year. This improvement must be ascribed primarily to the commencement of broadcasting.

Prospects.—The Government of India have always encouraged the development of wireless in India by private enterprise and to this source that India may look in the future for considerably increased internal radio communication. There are two most promising lines of development viz.—

(a) Erection of small sets either for speech or morse in districts where no land lines exist and to link such districts with the existing landlines. In this connection it may be remarked that modern small radio sets are capable of using either morse or speech at will and if used for speech can be operated by the ordinary desk telephone instrument in daily use all over India.

(b) The use of radio as a substitute for land line to form the trunk telephone route between two cities which already have telephone facilities.

These would if it is thought open up a new industry which if properly fostered would very soon extend its sales outside the limits of India. It is believed that the majority of parts for small radio sets could be more cheaply manufactured in this country than they can be imported and such an industry would find the right kind of skilled labour already in India.

The Press.

The newspaper Press in India is an essentially English institution and was introduced soon after the task of organising the administration was seriously taken in hand by the English in Bengal. In 1773 was passed the Regulating Act creating the Governor-Generalship and the Supreme Court in Bengal and within seven years at the end of the same decade, the first newspaper was started in Calcutta by an Englishman in January 1780. Exactly a century and a third has elapsed since, not a very long period certainly, a period almost measured by the life of a single newspaper, *The Times*, which came into existence only five years later in 1785, but then the period of British supremacy is not much longer, having commenced at Plassey, only twenty-three years earlier. Bombay followed Calcutta closely, and Madras did not lag much behind. In 1789 the first Bombay newspaper appeared, *The Bombay Herald*, followed next year by *The Bombay Courier*, a paper now represented by *The Times of India* with which it was amalgamated in 1861. In Bombay the advent of the press may be said to have followed the British occupation of the island much later than was the case in Calcutta. In Calcutta the English were on suzerainty before Plassey, but in Bombay they were absolute masters after 1665, and it is somewhat strange that no Englishman should have thought of starting a newspaper during all those hundred and twenty-five years before the actual advent of *The Herald*.

The first newspaper was called *The Bengal Gazette* which is better known from the name of its founder as *Hicky's Gazette* or *Journal*. Hicky like most pioneers had to suffer for his enterprising spirit, though the fault was entirely his own, as he made his paper a medium of publishing gross scandal and he and his journal disappeared from public view in 1782. Several journals rapidly followed Hicky's, though they did not fortunately copy its bad example. *The Indian Gazette* had a career of over half a century, when in 1833 it was merged into the *Bengal Herald*, which came into existence only a little later, and both are now represented by *The Indian Daily News* with which they were amalgamated in 1866. No fewer than five papers followed in as many years, the *Bengal Gazette* of 1780 and one of these, *The Calcutta Gazette*, started in February 1784, under the avowed patronage of Government, flourishes still as the official gazette of the Bengal Government.

In 1821 a syndicate of European merchants and officials commenced the publication of *John Bull in the East*, a daily paper which was intended to reflect Tory opinion in India and set as example to the Press generally in the matter of moderation and restraint. The name of this journal was altered to *The Englishman* by the famous Stockholder in 1836.

From its commencement the press was jealously watched by the authorities, who put serious restraints upon its independence and pursued a policy of discouragement and

rigorous control. Government objected to news of apparently the most trivial character affecting its servants. From 1791 to 1799 several editors were deported to Europe without trial and on short notice, whilst several more were censured and had to apologise. At the commencement of the rule of Wellesley Government promulgated stringent rules for the public press and instituted an official censor to whom everything was to be submitted before publication, the penalty for offending against these rules to be immediate deportation. These regulations continued in force till the time of the Marquis of Hastings who in 1818 abolished the censorship and substituted milder rules.

This change proved beneficial to the status of the press, for henceforward self-respecting and able men began slowly but steadily to join the ranks of journalism, which had till then been considered a low profession. Sir Buckingham, one of the ablest and best known of Anglo-Indian journalists of those days availed himself of this comparative freedom to criticise the authorities, and under the short administration of Adam, a civilian who temporarily occupied Hastings' place, he was deported under rules specially passed. But Lord Amherst and still more Lord William Bentinck were persons of broad and liberal views, and under them the press was left practically free though there existed certain regulations which were not enforced, though Lord Clive who was Governor of Bombay from 1831 to 1835, once strongly but in vain urged the latter to enforce them. Metcalfe who succeeded for a brief period Bentinck, removed even these regulations, and brought about what is called the emancipation of the press in India in 1835 which was the beginning of a new era in the history of the Indian press. Among papers that came into being, was the *Bombay Times* which was started towards the close of 1838 by the leading merchants of Bombay, and which in 1861 changed its name to the *Times of India*. *The Bombay Gazette*, founded in 1791, ceased publication in 1914.

The liberal spirit in which Lord Hastings had begun to deal with the press led not only to the improvement in the tone and status of the Anglo-Indian press, but also to the rise of the Native or Indian Press. The first news paper in any Indian language was the *Samachar Darpan* started by the famous Serampore Missionaries Ward, Carey and Marshman in 1818 in Bengal, and it received encouragement from Hastings who allowed it to circulate through the post office at one-fourth the usual rate. This was followed in 1823 by a purely native paper in Bombay called the *Bombay Samachar* which still exists, and thus was laid the foundation of the Native Indian Press which at the present day is by far the largest part of the press in India, numbering over 650 papers.

From 1835 to the Mutiny the press spread to other cities like Delhi, Agra, Gwalior, and even Lahore, whereas formerly it was chiefly confined to the Presidency towns. During

the Mutiny its freedom had to be temporarily controlled by the Censoring Act which Canning passed in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to public interests. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more free.

On India passing to the Crown in 1858 an era of prosperity and progress opened for the whole country in which the press participated. There were 16 Anglo-Indian papers at the beginning of this period in 1858 and 25 Native papers and the circulation of all was very small. The number of the former did not show a great rise in the next generation but the rise in

influence and also circulation was satisfactory. Famous journalists like Robert Knight, James Maclean and Harris Mookerji flourished in this generation. The *Civil and Military Gazette* was originally published in Simla as a weekly paper, the first issue being dated June 22nd, 1872. Prior to and in the days of the Mutiny the most famous paper in Northern India was the *Mofussillee*, originally published at Meerut, but afterwards at Agra and then at Ambala. After a lively existence for a few years in Simla the *Civil and Military Gazette* acquired and incorporated the *Mofussillee*, and in 1876 the office of the paper was transferred from Simla to Lahore, and the *Gazette* began to be published daily.

INDIAN PRESS LAW

Before 1835 all printing of books and paper was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and made a few minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1847 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act and except for an Act which was in force for one year during the Mutiny, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1858 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907, but the dissemination of sedition through the Press continued. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910 was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

The Act deals, not only with incitements to murder and acts of violence, but also with other specified classes of published matter, including any words or signs tending to reduce soldiers or sailors from their allegiance or duty, to bring into hatred or contempt the British Government, any Native Prince, or any section of His Majesty's subjects in India, or to intimidate public servants or private individuals.

The different sections of the Act have in view (i) Control over presses and means of publication, (ii) control over publishers of newspapers, (iii) control over the importation into British India and the transmission by the post of objectionable matter, (iv) the suppression of seditious or objectionable newspapers, books, or other documents wherever found.

Repeal of Press Legislation.—By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than once consulting Local Government, a Committee was appointed in February 1921 after a debate in the Legislative Assembly, to examine the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867, and the Indian Press Act, 1910, and report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made an unanimous report in July 1921, recommending—

- (1) The Press Act should be repealed.
- (2) The Newspapers Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed.
- (3) The Press and Registration of Books Act and the Post Office Act should be amended where necessary to meet the conclusion noted below.
 - (a) The name of the editor should be inscribed on every issue of a newspaper and the editor should be subject to the same liabilities as the printer and publisher, as regards criminal and civil responsibilities.
 - (b) any person registering under the Press and Registration of Books Act should be a major as defined by the Indian Majority Act.
 - (c) local Governments should retain the power of confiscating openly seditious leaflets, subject to the owner of the press or any other person aggrieved being able to protest before a court and challenge the seizure of such document in which case the local Government ordering the confiscation should be called upon to prove the seditious character of the documents. The powers conferred by Sections 13 to 15 of the Press Act should be retained.
 - (d) Customs and Postal officers being empowered to seize seditious literature within the meaning of Section 124A of the I.P.C. subject to review on the part of the local Government and challenge by any persons interested in the courts.
 - (e) any person challenging the orders of Government should do so in the local High Court.
 - (f) the term of imprisonment prescribed in Sections 12, 13, 14 and 15 of the Press and Registration of Books Act should be reduced to six months.
 - (g) the provisions of Section 16 of the Press Act should be reproduced in the Press and Registration of Books Act.

Effect was given to these recommendations during the year 1922.

Press Association of India.—At the end of 1915 this Association was formed in Bombay. According to the articles of constitution "its objects shall be to protect the press of the country by all lawful means from arbitrary laws and their administration, from all attempts of the Legislature to encroach on its liberty or of the executive authorities to interfere with the free exercise of their calling by journalists and press proprietors, and for all other purposes of mutual help and protection which may be deemed advisable from time to time." Members pay a minimum subscription of Rs. 10 annually. The affairs of the Association are managed by a Council.

Number of Printing Presses at Work and Number of Newspapers Periodicals and Books Published

Province.	Printing Presses	Newspapers	Periodicals	Books.		
				In English or other European Languages	In Indian Languages (Vernacular and Classical) or in more than one Language	
Madras	(a) 1,515	(a) 310	991	805	3,237	
Bombay	1,031	321	545	224	1,987	
Bengal	1,173	240	446	745	2,090	
United Provinces	813	217	288	231	3,068	
Punjab	423	104	300	123	1,865	
Burma	318	55	163	4	76	
Bihar and Orissa	222	49	10	109	1,135	
Central Provinces and Berar	(b) 173	35	(c) 11	17	197	
Assam	67	17	21	2	50	
North-West Frontier Province	21	4	6	4	3	
Ajmer-Merwara (d)	28	7	18	4	91	
Coorg	5	3	—	—	—	
Delhi	10	64	60	24	393	
Total 1927-28	5,610	1,525	2,954	2,332	14,815	
Totals	1926-27	5,724	1,485	3,627	2,147	15,246
	1925-26	5,362	1,378	3,089	2,117	14,276
	1924-25	5,312	1,401	3,146	2,302	14,728
	1923-24	4,809	1,363	2,858	2,237	13,802
	1922-23	4,518	1,287	2,559	1,951	12,804
	1921-22	4,093	1,094	2,252	1,856	11,807
	1920-21	3,795	1,017	2,297	1,690	10,105
	1919-20	3,371	941	2,151	2,019	9,162
1918-19	3,146	883	2,049	2,092	8,857	

(a) Relate to the calendar year 1928.

(b) Includes 18 Presses which are reported not working.

(c) This includes 39 periodicals which are treated as newspapers as they contain public news or comments on public news.

(d) Relate to the calendar year 1927.

Newspapers and News Agencies registered under the Press Rules and arranged alphabetically according to Station where they are published and situated.

NOTE — News Agencies are distinguished by an asterisk

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press.
Agra	Agra Akhbar Jain Path Pradarshak Navyug Sanadhyap Karak	Wednesdays Daily On the 3rd and 14th of every month
Ahmedabad	Gujarati Punch Navajivan Political Bhoomiya Praja Bandhu Young India	Sundays. Fridays. Thursdays. Saturdays. Thursdays
Akola, Berar .	Praja Paksha	Saturdays
Akyab	Arakan News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Aligarh	Aligarh Institute Gazette	Wednesdays.
	Abhyudaya	Fridays.
	Bhavisbha	Weekdays
Allahabad	Democrat Hindustan Review Leader	On first of every month Daily except Mondays
	Navyug	Daily
	Pioneer	Daily
Allahabad Extra Alleppey	Sri Dharan Shikshak Travancore Publicity Bureau	Monthly
Amravati .	Bharat	Wednesdays
	Udaya	Mondays
	Akali te Pardesi Daily Vakil Gurumukhi Daily Khalsa	Daily except Sundays Daily Daily
Amritsar	Punjab Press Bureau Qaumi Dard Tanzeem	Daily Daily
Amroha .	Ittihad	Saturdays.
Asansol	Ratnakar	Sundays
Bagalkot	Kannadiga Navina Bharat	Thursdays Tuesdays.
Bagerhat .	Jagaran	Sundays.
Bangalore	Daily Post Kashim-ul Akhbar Truth	Daily Mondays and Thursdays. Mondays and Thursdays
Barisal . .	Barisal Hitaishi	Sundays

Stations,	Title in full,	Day of going to Press,
Baroda	Jagriti Shree Sayaji Vijaya	Weekly Thursdays
Basseln, Burma	Basseln News	Tuesdays and Fridays
Belgaum	Belgaum Samachar	Mondays
Benares City	Aj Awaz-e-Khalik	Daily Every Wednesday
	Bharat Jiwan Hindi Kewari	Sundays, Thursdays.
	Kashi Temperance Samachar Mahamandal Magazine	Monthly Monthly
	Trishul Varanasi	Monthly On Mondays and Fridays
	Daily Market Report Jain	Saturdays.
Bhavnagar	Jainhasan Market News	Tuesdays, Daily, except Sundays.
Bhilwani	Sandesh	Sundays
Bijapur	Karnatak Valbhav	Saturdays.
Bombay	Akhbar-e-Islam and Akhbar-e-Hind	Daily, except on Sundays.
	Bombay Chronicle	Daily
	Bombay Samachar	Daily
	Breel Co's Market Report	Daily, except Sundays
	Catholic Examiner	Saturdays.
	Commercial Sporting News	
	Dnyana Prakash	Daily except Mondays
	Evening News of India	Daily
	Goan World	Monthly
	Gujarati	Saturdays
	Gujarati Kewari	Wednesdays.
	Indian Daily Mail	Daily
	Indian Industries and Power	On the 15th each month
	Indian Social Reformer	Saturdays
	Indian Textile Journal	Monthly
	Islam	Every Saturday.
	Jam-e-Jamshed Kulser-e-Hind Kashaf	Daily except Sundays. Sundays. Every Friday
	Khilafat Daily Khilafat Bulletin	Saturdays.

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Bombay— <i>contd</i>	Muldo Roskar Muslim Herald	Sundays. Daily
	Nawa Kai	Daily except Monday
	Nyayadarshak	Thursdays.
	Nuzat	Daily
	O Amigo do Goano	Fridays.
	O Anglo-Lusitano	Saturdays.
	Parsi & Praja Mitra & Hindustani	Daily except Sunday
	Railway Times	Fridays.
	Rashtreebhak	1st week of every month (accord- ing to Hindu Calendar)
	Ranj Vartaman	Daily, except Sundays.
	Shri Venkateshwar Samachar	Fridays.
	Times of India	Daily
	Illustrated Weekly of India	Sundays
	Wahdat	Daily
Bowringpet	Young Messenger of India	Monthly
Budaon	Kolar Gold Fields News	Tuesdays
Calangute (Goa) .	Akhbar Zukurnain .	6th 13th, 20th and 27th of every month
	A Voz do Povo	Saturdays
Calcutta .	Alkamel	Daily
	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Daily
	Ananda Bazar Patrika	Daily, except Sundays
	Asiatick	Daily
	Bangabasi	Wednesdays
	Basumat	Daily
	Bengalce ..	Daily, except Sundays
	Bhagavan Gandhi	Mondays.
	Bharata Mitra .	Thursdays
	Business World	Monthly
	Capital	Thursdays.
	Cottogian	Bi monthly
	Commetee	Wednesdays.
	Commercial News . . .	On the 10th of each month,
	Dowajudd . .	Daily

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Calcutta— <i>contd.</i>	Englishman	Every Monday
	Gandya	Every Friday
	Guardian	Fridays
	Hindu Patriot	Daily, except Saturdays
	Hindustan	Daily, except Sundays
	Hitabadi	Wednesdays
	Indian and Eastern Engineer	14th of each month
	Indian Engineering	Thursdays
	Indian Mirror	Daily
	Indian News Agency	Monthly
	Industry	Monthly
	Inqilab-i-Azad	Daily, except Sundays
	Jain Gazette	Saturdays
	Liberty	Daily except Sundays
	Maheshwari	Every Monday
	Market Intelligence	Daily
	Muslim Standard	Tri-weekly
	Mussalman	Thursdays
	Nayak	Daily
	Planters Journal and Agricultural	Saturdays
	Prakash	Daily
	Rayat Bhandi	Sundays
	Sanjibani	Wednesdays.
	Samay	Wednesdays.
	Sarnyavadi	Daily
	Servant	Daily
	Statesman	Daily, except Mondays
	Sultan	Every Wednesday
	Swatantra	Daily
	Swarnaj	Daily, except Mondays
	Telegraph	.
	United Press Syndicate	.
	Vishwanitra	Daily,
	Vyspar	Daily
	Young Men of India	Monthly
	World Peace	Wednesdays.
Calicut	Alameen	On Mondays, Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Kerala Sanchari	Wednesdays
	Manorama	Tuesdays and Fridays
	Mathrubhumi	On Mondays, Wednesdays and Thursdays
	Mithavadi	Daily
	West Coast Reformer	Sundays and Thursdays
	West Coast Spectator	Wednesdays and Saturdays

Stations	Titles full	Day of going to Press
Cawnpore	Asad Cawnpore Journal	Wednesdays Daily
	Daily Vartaman	
	Hurriat	Daily except Sundays
	Prabha	Monthly
	Pratap, Hindi Daily and Weekly Paper	Saturdays.
	Renters Telegram Company Limited Zamana	25th day of every month
Chandernagore	Probastak	Bi-monthly
Chindwara	Lokmitra	Saturdays
Chinsurah	Education Gazette	Tuesdays.
Chittagong	Jyoti	Wednesdays
Cochin	Cochin Argus	Saturdays.
	Cochin News Agency Malabar Herald	Saturdays.
Cochin Mattancherry	Malabar Islam	
Cocanada	Ravi	Thursdays
Colombc	Ceylon Catholic Messenger	Tuesdays and Fridays
	Ceylon Daily News	Daily
	Ceylonese	Daily
	Ceylon Independent	Daily
	Ceylon Morning Leader	Daily
	Ceylon Observer	Daily
	Dinakara Prakasa	Mondays Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays
	Dinamina	Daily, except Sundays
	Dravida Mitran	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Gnanartha Pradipaya	Mondays and Thursdays
	Islam Mitran	Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Lakmina People	Daily, except Sundays Daily
Contaj	Sarasavi Sandaresa Times of Ceylon	Tuesdays and Fridays Daily
	Nihar	Mondays
Outback	Utkal Deepika	Fridays
	Indian Sunday School Journal	Monthly
Daoca	Daoca Gazette	Mondays.
	Daoca Prakash	Sundays.

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Darjeeling	Darjeeling Times and Planters Gazette	Tuesdays.
	Alaman	Daily
	Arjun	Daily
	Asa	Daily
	Daily Hamdard	Daily except Fridays.
	General News Agency and Book Depot.	Daily
	General News Bimaran	
	Hindu Sansar	Weekdays
	Hindustan Times	Daily
	Indian News Agency Maheswari (Hindi)	Weekly.
Delhi	Mail Trading	Monthly
	National News Agency	Weekly
	Quam	
	Esjasthan	Tuesdays
	Elyasat	Thursdays
	Sabha	Daily
	Swarajya	Daily
	Tej	Daily
	Tamadun	Monthly
	Vijaya	Saturdays.
Dharwar ..	Weekly Hindi Paper	
	Weekly Mohallig	
	Weekly Bharat Sewak	Saturdays.
	Dharwarvritt	Wednesdays.
	Karnatakavritta and Dhannojaya	Tuesdays.
Dhaka	Karm Veer	Fridays.
	Raja Hansa	Daily
	Vijaya	Daily
Dibrugarh	Khandesh Vaibhav	Fridays
	Prabodh	Saturdays
Dibrugarh	Times of Assam	Fridays.
Gauhati	Assamiya	Saturdays
Gorakhpur	Swadesh	Saturdays.
Guntur	Deshabhimani	Daily
Hawrah ..	Raja Duta	Daily
Hyderabad Deccan	Munshoor-i Deccan	Daily
	Sahifa-i Romana	Daily
	Ummun Gazette	Daily.
Hyderabad, Sind	Bharatvasi	Daily.
	Hindu	Daily
	Munsafir	Saturdays.
	Prakash	Daily, except Sundays.
	Sind Journal	.. Wednesdays.
Hyderabad, Sind	Sind Mail	Daily
	Sindvasi	.. Daily

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Jaffna	Ceylon Patriot and Weekly Advertiser Jaffna Catholic Guardian Sithia Veda Pathukavalan Vasavilan Jaffna Native Opinion	Tuesdays Saturday Morning Fortnightly Fortnightly
Jaffna (Vannarponnai)	Hindu Organ	Wednesdays
Jalgaon (Khandesh)	Pragatik	Weekly
Jaramoola	Daily Beopar Patar	Daily
Jhansi	Free India	Fridays
Jhansi City	Sahas	Sundays
	Nyaya	Wednesdays
Jubbulpore	India Sunday School Journal Karmaveer	Third Thursday of every month Fridays
	Alwabad	Daily, except Sundays
	Bhatat	Daily
	Chowkidar	Fridays
	Daily Gazette	Daily
Karachi	Kemari	Daily, except Sundays
	New Times	Daily
	Parvi Sansar	Saturdays
	Rosana Bimbar	Daily
	Rosana Samachar	Daily
	Sind Observer	Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Sind Sudhar	Saturdays
	Weekly Memon Samachar	Thursdays
Kasal Kudi	Lahana Vista Ootran Kumaran	Fridays Wednesday
Khulna	Khulna Basi	Thursdays
Kolhapur City	Vidyavilas	Fridays
Kottayam	Kerala Varathi Malayala Manorama Malayalam Daily News Nazrani Deepika	Tuesdays and Fridays Wednesdays and Saturdays Daily Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays
	Powtraprabha	Tuesdays and Fridays
Kumta	Kanara News	Thursday
	Kanara Leader	Thursday
	Akali	Daily
	Akhbar-i Am	Daily
	Bande Mataram	Daily, except Sundays
	Civil and Military Gazette	Daily (Sundays excepted)
	Congress Publicity Bureau Daily Karamvir	Daily, except Tuesdays
Lahore	Daily Millat Daily Updehshak	
	Daily Urdu Itifag Daily Zamindar Desh Darpan	Daily Daily

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press
Lahore—contd .	Maq Kesari	Fridays. Daily except Sundays.
	Muslim Outlook Paigham-i-Salah	Daily Sundays and Wednesdays
	Panth Pratap	Daily, except Sundays Daily
	Rajput Gazette	1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of every month
	Scientific World	Monthly
	Siyaat Sudarshan	Daily except Sundays Mondays.
	Sunday Times The People	Sundays Saturdays
	Tribune N W Railway Union Gazette Watan	Daily, except Sundays. Weekly Thursdays.
	Khairkhab Larkana Gazette	Saturdays. Fridays.
	Advocate Anand Daily Hamdani Haqiqat	Wednesdays and Saturdays. Thursdays Daily Daily
Lucknow	Hindusthani Indian Daily Telegraph Indian Witness	Bi weekly Daily Wednesdays
	Kankab-i-Hind Lucknow Times Muslim Gazette	Wednesdays Daily Tuesdays.
	Gudh Akhbar Patriot The Huque	Daily, except Sundays Every Saturday Daily
	Daily Commercial News Daily Market Report	Daily Daily
	Al-Mazmun Andhra Patrika Anglo-Indian Anandhind Catholic Leader Christian Patriot Daily Express	On the first of every month Tuesdays. Thursdays. Daily Wednesdays Saturdays Daily, except Sunday and Mon- day mornings Daily
Madras	Deenbhakatan Jhama Jothi Hindu Indian Railway Journal Indian Review	Daily 15th of every month Monthly
	Jananarthaman Jarida-i-Rozgar Justice Law Times Madras Mail	Weekdays Saturdays. Daily Saturdays. Daily

Stations.	Title in full	Day of going to Press.
Madras—contd. ..	Muhammedan Mukhbis-4-Deccan Vyayadipika New India	Mondays and Thursdays Wednesdays Daily Daily
	Shamshul Akbar Swadesa Mitran	Mondays Daily
	Swarajya To-day	Daily Daily
Madras Mandalay	South Indian Mail Upper Burma Gazette	Mondays Daily
Margao (Goe)	A Terra Noticias Ultimear	Wednesdays and Saturdays Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays,
Mattancheri Meerut Mhow	Chakravathi Roznama Qaum Satyarth Patrika	Saturdays. Daily Thursdays
Mirpurkhas Mirpur City Moulmein Mount Road, Madras	Mirpurkhas Gazette Khichri Samachar Moulmein Advertiser Hindu	Wednesdays Saturdays Daily Daily, except Sundays
Mussorie Muttra Muvattupuzha Muzaffarnagar Mymensingh	Mussorie Times Jain Gazette Kerala Dheepika Weekly Sewak Chand Minir	Thursdays, Mondays Saturdays Weekly Tuesdays,
Mysore	Sadbvi Sampadabhyudaya Wealth of Mysore	Thursdays. Daily, except Sundays (No
Nagereoli	Travancore Times	Tuesdays
Nagpur	Desha-Sewak Hitavada Maharashtra Khabbar	Mondays. Wednesdays Tuesdays Daily
	Marwadi Pranavir Samaj Sewak Sankalpa	Tuesdays Mondays and Thursdays Mondays Daily
	Sankalpa Mahal Swatantrya Young Patriot	Fridays. Daily, except Mondays Sundays.
Naini Tal Nasik Nasrabad	Naini Tal Gazette Lokmat Shakti	Wednesdays Saturdays Mondays.
Nova Goa	Diario de Noite Heraldin	Daily Daily, except Mondays
	O'Debate O'Herald	Mondays Daily, except Sundays and holidays.
	South of India (Observer) and Nilgiri News. Nilgiri Times	Daily issue, except Sundays Wednesdays

Stations.	Pide in full.	Day of going to Press.
Oral	Utseh	Thursday.
Pandbarpur ..	Pandhari Mitra ..	Sundays.
Pangsa	Kangal	Fridays.
Panjim, Gou	O Orente	Saturdays
Farur	Uttara Tharaka	Saturdays
Patna	Behar Herald	Saturdays.
	Express	Daily
	Searchlight	Saturdays
Pea	Kolaba Samachar	Fridays.
	Deccan Herald	Daily
	Dnyana Prakash	Daily, except Mondays
Poona	Kemari	Tuesdays.
	Mahratta	Sundays.
	Poona Star	Daily
	War Cry	Monthly
Poona City	Satyagraho	Bi weekly
	Servant of India	Weekly
	Affazul	Bi-weekly
	Alhakam	Weekly
	Affarooq	Weekly
Quadian (via Batala)	Nur	Fortnightly
	Review of Religions (in English)	Monthly
	Do (in Urdu)	Monthly
Quetta	Baluchistan Gazette	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Baluchistan Herald Daily Bulletin	Daily
Quilon	Desabhimani	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Malayali	
Rajkot	Kathiawar Opinion	Bi-weekly
	Kathiawar Times	Wednesdays and Sundays
	Lohana Hitechhu	Wednesdays
Rampur (Kathiawar)	Saurashtra	Daily
	Burma Sunday Times	Sundays
	Burma Exchange Gazette and Daily Advertiser	Daily
	Chinese Daily News	
	Free Burma	Daily
Rangoon	New Burma	Tri-weekly
	New Light of Burma	Daily, except Mondays
	Rangoon Daily News	Thursdays
	Rangoon Evening Post	Week-days
	Rangoon Gazette	Daily, except Mondays
	Rangoon Times	Daily, except Sundays.
	Rangoon Mail	Saturdays
	The Sun	Daily, except Sundays.
Ratanagiri	Bakool	Saturdays.
	Balvant	Tuesdays.
	Satya Shodhak	Sundays

Stations	Title in full	Day of going to Press.
Rawalpindi	Daily Prem Frontier Bulletin Shanti	Daily Saturdays Daily
Samastipur Satara Satara City	Vigilant Shubha Suchaka Prakash	Saturdays. Fridays Wednesdays
Secunderabad	Hyderabad Bulletin Notice Sheet	Daily Daily
Shahjahanpur	Sarpunch	Daily
Sholapur	Kalpatare Karmayogi Sholapur Samachar	Sundays Thursdays Tuesdays
Silchar	Navajug Surma	Monthly Sundays
Simla	Sunday Times Simla Edition	Mondays
Sikkur	Sindhi	Saturdays.
Surat	Deeshbandhu Deshi Mitra Deeshodaya Gujrat Mitra and Gujarat Darjan Jain Mitra	Daily, except Sundays Thursdays, Tuesdays Saturdays, Wednesdays
	Navayuga Weekly	
	Praja Pokar Samachar Surat Akhbar	Wednesdays. Daily, except Mondays. Sundays
Sylhet	Paridarsaka	Wednesdays
Tinnevely	Kalpaka	Monthly
Trichinopoly	Wednesday Review	Wednesdays.
Trichur	Lokaprakasam	Mondays
Tirupur	Commercial News	Daily, except Sundays
Tiruvalla	Kerala Kahalam Kerala Taraka	Wednesdays Wednesdays
Trivandrum	Dharata Kesari Samadam	Bi-weekly Tuesdays, Thursdays and Satur- days
	Travancore Press Service Trivandrum Daily News Western Star	Daily Tuesdays, Thursdays and Satur- days.
	Satyagrahi Andhra Advocate	Thursdays Fridays.
Udipi		
Vizagapatam		
Wai	Modavritta Vrittasar	Mondays Mondays
Wardha	Maharashtra Dharma	Tuesdays
Yeshmal	Rajasthan Kesari Lokamat	Saturdays. Thursdays

Banking.

An event of great importance in the history of Indian banking was the formation on the 27th January 1921 of the Imperial Bank of India by amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

The idea of a Central Banking establishment for British India was mooted as early as 1838, and was the subject of a minute by Mr James Wilson when Finance Member, in 1860. Again, in 1867 Mr Dickson, the well-known Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for an amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. On various later occasions the matter was brought forward without result and it was discussed by the Chamberlain Commission on Indian Finance and Currency in 1918. The present scheme which has come to fruition was however the result of a rapprochement on the part of the Banks themselves as a result of the experience gained during the war and the realisation of the desirability of strengthening and extending the Banking system in India.

The Presidency Banks—The history of the Presidency Banks in their relationship with Government falls into three well-defined stages. Prior to 1842 the Presidency Banks had the right of note issue but were directly controlled by Government and the scope of their business was restricted by their charters. The second period was from 1842 to 1876. In 1842 the Banks were deprived of the right of note issue, though by their agreements of that year they were authorised to transact the paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given the use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work at the Presidency towns and at their branches. The old statutory limitations on their business were at the same time greatly relaxed though the Government's power of control remained unchanged. In 1866 the agreements were revised and the paper currency business was removed from their control and placed under the direct management of Government. The third period dates from the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 by which nearly all the most important limitations of the earlier period were reimposed. Put very briefly, the principal restrictions imposed by this Act prohibited the Banks from conducting foreign exchange business, from borrowing or receiving deposits payable out of India, and from lending for a longer period than six months, or upon mortgage or on the security of immovable property or upon promissory notes bearing less than two independent names or upon goods, unless the goods of the title to them were deposited with the Bank as security. At the same time Government abandoned direct interference in the management, ceasing to appoint official directors and disposing of their shares in the Banks. The Banks no longer enjoyed the full use of the Government balances. Reserve Treasuries were constituted at the Presidency towns into which the surplus revenues were drawn and the balances left at the disposal of the Banks were strictly limited.

This system continued with only minor modifications until 1920. During the war, however the policy was deliberately adopted of reducing the amount of the balances held in the Reserve Treasuries and leaving much larger balances with the Headquarters of the Presidency Banks in order to assist the money market.

The Imperial Bank—Under the Imperial Bank of India Act (XLVII of 1920), the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Governors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council may determine. The Central Board of Governors consists of—

- (a) Managing Governors not exceeding two in number, appointed by the Governor-General in Council on recommendation by the Central Board,
- (b) the Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards,
- (c) the Controller of the Currency, or other officer nominated by the Governor-General in Council and
- (d) not more than four non-officials, nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

Representatives of any new Local Boards, which may be constituted may be added at the discretion of the Central Board.

The Controller of the Currency and the Secretaries of the Local Boards are entitled to attend the meetings of the Central Board but not to vote under the agreement with Government. The Governor-General in Council is entitled to issue instructions to the Bank in respect of any matter which in his opinion vitally affects his financial policy or the safety of the Government balances, and if the Controller of the Currency or such other officer of Government as may be nominated by the Governor-General in Council to be a Governor of the Central Board shall give notice in writing to the Managing Governors that he considers that any action proposed to be taken by the Bank will be detrimental to the Government as affecting the matters aforesaid such action shall not be taken without the approval in writing of the Governor-General in Council. Under the Imperial Bank of India Act provision was made for the increase of the capital of the Bank. The capital of the three Presidency Banks consisted of 3½ crores of rupees in shares of Rs. 500 each, fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised was 7½ crores in shares of Rs. 500 each, of which Rs. 125 has been called up, making the present capital of the Bank Rs. 11½ crores, of which Rs. 5,62,50,000 has been paid up. The Reserve Fund of the Bank is Rs. 5,37,50,000 and the Balance Sheet of 30th June 1930 showed the Government balance at Rs. 13,91,45,190, other deposits at Rs. 70,03,57,913 and Cash Rs. 16,96,74,750 with a percentage of Cash to liabilities of 20.001.

Class of Business—The Imperial Bank of India Act follows the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 in defining absolutely the class of business

in which the Bank may engage, though the older limitations are modified in some minor points. It permits for the first time the constitution of a London Office and the borrowing of money in England for the purpose of the Bank's business upon the security of assets of the Bank, but not the opening of cash credits, keeping cash accounts or receiving deposits in London except from former customers of the Presidency Banks. The Act provides for an agreement between the Bank and the Secretary of State, and this agreement, which was signed on the 27th January 1921 and is for a period of ten years determinable thereafter by either party with one year's notice, provides, *inter alia*, for the following important matters—

- (1) All the general banking business of the Government of India is to be carried out by the Imperial Bank

- (2) The Bank will hold all the Treasury Balances at Headquarters and at its branches. This involves the abolition of the Reserve Treasury system.
- (3) Within five years the Bank undertakes to open 100 new branches of which the Government of India may determine the location of one in four. The branches and agencies of the three Presidency Banks prior to the date of amalgamation numbered 69, including the Colombo branch of the Bank of Madras. The Bank of Bengal had no branches prior to the proposal to transfer Government business to the Bank in 1861-62 but no less than 18 branches were established before 1868.
- (4) The management of the Public Debt will continue to be conducted by the Bank for specified remuneration

THE DIRECTORATE

Managing Governors

{ Sir Osborne A. Smith Kt
A. M. MacDonald, Esq. K.C.

Presidents Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards

CALCUTTA—

Id C. Bentham Esq.
Id de M. Kellock Esq.
M. G. Stewart Esq.

President
Vice President
Secretary

BOMBAY—

Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas Kt C.I.E. M.B.E.
Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy Bart. K.C.S.I.
J. G. Ridland Esq.

President
Vice President
Secretary

MADRAS—

C. E. Wood Esq.
S. V. Ramaswami Mudaliar, Esq.
A. O. Bentley Esq.

President
Vice President
Secretary

Controller of the Currency

J. B. Ingham Esq. I.C.S.

Nominated by Government

The Hon'ble Sir Dinshaw E. Wacha Kt J.P., Bombay
The Hon'ble Sir Maneckji B. Dadabhai Kt C.I.E. Nagpur
Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee K.C.I.E. K.C.V.O., Calcutta
The Hon'ble Rajah Sir D. R. M. Aonmalai Chettiar Kt Madras

MANAGER IN LONDON

R. A. Gray, Esq.

BRANCHES

Burna Bazaar Calcutta
Oliver Street, Calcutta
Park Street, Calcutta
Byculla, Bombay
Mandvi, Bombay
Sandhurst Road, Bombay
Mount Road Madras
Abbotabad.
Agra
Ahmedabad
Ahmedabad City
Ahmednagar
Ajmer
Akola
Akyab
Aligarh
Allahabad
Alleppey
Amboina
Amboina Cant.

Amraoti
Amritsar
Asansol
Bangalore.
Barilly
Barrackpore
Bellary
Bengal
Berhampur (Ganjam)
Bhavnagar
Bhopal
Brihat
Bulandshahr
Calcutta
Cawnpore
Chandpur
Chhapra
Chittagong.
Coimbatore
Cochin

Coimbatore.
Colombo
Conjeveram (Sub-Agency)
Cuddalore
Cuddapah
Cuttack
Dacca
Darbhanga
Darjeeling
Dehra Dun
Delhi
Dhanbad
Dhulia
Dibrugarh
Ellore
Errode
Etawah
Farrukhabad
Ferozepore
Fyzabad
Gaya.

Godhra.
Gofra
Gorakhpur
Gujranwala
Guntur
Gwalior
Hathras
Howrah.
Hubli

Hyderabad (Deccan)
Hyderabad (Sind)
Indore
Jaipur
Jaigaon
Jalga
Jaipalguri.
Jamshedpur
Jhansi

Jodhpur
Jubbulpore
Jullundur City
Karachi
Kasur
Katni
Khamgaon
Khandwa
Kumbakonam.

Lahore.
Larkana.
Lucknow
Ludhiana.
Lyallpur
Madura
Mandalay
Mangalore

Masulipatam.
Meerut
Mirzapore
Montgomery
Moradabad
Moulmein.
Multan
Murree.
Mussoorie

Muttra
Muzaffarnagar
Muzaffarpur
Myingyan
Mymensingh
Nadlad
Nagpur
Naini Tal
Nanded (Sub-Agency)

Nandyal
Narangung
Nasik
Nogapatam
Nellore
New Delhi
Nowabera
Ootacamund.
Patna

Peshawar
Peshawar City (Sub-Agency)
Poona
Poona City
Porbandar
Purnea
Ratetia.
Raichur

Raipur
Rajahmundry
Rajkot.

Rangoon.
Raigarh
Rawalpindi
Roharapur

Salem.
Sargodha.
Secunderabad

Shillong
Sholapur
Sialkot.

Simla
Sitapur
Srinagar (Kashmir)
Sukkur
Surat.
Tellecherry

Tinnevely
Tirupur
Trichinopoly

Trichur
Tritandram.
Tuticorin
Ujjain.

Vellore
Vizagapatam.
Vizianagram.
Wardha.
Yeotmal.

In Schedule 1, Part 1, of the Act the various descriptions of business which the Bank may transact are laid down, and in Part 2 it is expressly provided that the Bank shall not transact any kind of banking business other than that sanctioned in Part 1

Briefly stated, the main classes of business sanctioned are —

- (1) Advancing money upon the security of —
 - (a) Stocks, &c., in which a trustee is authorised by Act to invest trust moneys
 - (b) Securities issued by State aided Railways, notified by the Governor General in Council
 - (c) Debentures, or other securities issued under Act, by, or on behalf of, a District Board
 - (d) Goods, or documents of title thereto deposited with, or assigned to the Bank
 - (e) Accepted Bills of Exchange or Promises.
 - (f) Fully paid shares and debentures of Companies with limited liability or immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, as collateral security where the original security is one of those specified in a, b, c, d and e, authorised by the Central Board in e

(2) With the sanction of the Local Government, advancing money to Courts of Wards upon security of estates in their charge

(3) Drawing, accepting, discounting, buying and selling bills of exchange and other negotiable

securities payable in India and Ceylon and, subject to the directions of the Governor-General in Council the discounting, buying and selling of bills of exchange payable outside India for and from or to such Banks as may be approved

- (4) Investing the Bank's funds in the securities referred to in (1) a, b, c
- (5) Making Bank Post Bills and Letters of Credit payable in India and Ceylon
- (6) Buying and selling gold and silver
- (7) Receiving deposits
- (8) Receiving securities for safe custody
- (9) Selling such properties as may come into the Bank's possession in satisfaction of claims
- (10) Transacting agency business on commission.
- (11) Acting as Administrator, for winding up estates
- (12) Drawing bills of exchange and creating letters of credit payable out of India for the use of principles in connection with (11) and also for private constituents for *bona fide* personal needs
- (13) Buying, for the purpose of meeting such bills, &c., bills of exchange payable out of India at any time not exceeding six months
- (14) Borrowing money in India
- (15) Borrowing money in England upon security of assets of the Bank, but not otherwise

The principal restrictions placed on the business of the Bank in Part 2 are as follows —

- (1) It shall not make any loan or advance —
- (a) For a longer period than six months,
- (b) upon the security of stock or shares of the Bank
- (c) save in the case of estates specified in Part 1 (Courts of Ward) upon mortgage or security of immoveable property or documents of title thereof

(2) The amount which may be advanced to any individual or partnership is limited

(3) Discounts cannot be made or advances on personal security given unless such discounts or advances carry with them the several responsibilities of at least two persons or firms unconnected with each other in general partnership

The Balance Sheet of the Bank as at 30th June 1930 was as follows —

LIABILITIES	Rs a p	ASSETS	Rs a p
Subscribed Capital	11 25 00,000 0 0	Government Securities	26 98 02,707 7 0
Capital paid up	5 62 50 000 0 0	Other authorised Securities under the Act	2 71 71 353 1 11
Reserve	5 77 50 000 0 0	Loans	11 24 38 7 7 15 0
Public Deposits	13 91 45 199 4 7	Cash (credits)	32 81 13 035 15 4
Other Deposits	70 03 57 913 1 4	Inland Bills discounted and purchased	3 09 13 891 13 0
Loans against Securities per contra	1,68 42 105 4 0	Foreign Bills discounted and purchased	1 57 470 1 0
Loans from the Government of India under Section 20 of the Paper Currency Act against Inland Bills discounted and purchased per contra		Bullion	2 77 68 415 4 1
Contingent Liabilities		Dead stock	
Sundries	88 24 61 8 2	Liability of Constituents for Contingent Liabilities per contra	01 70 091 1 2
		Balances with other Banks	25 70 794 5 5
		Cash	89 4,9, 082 15 11
			18 98 74,790 2 4
Rs	97 51 69 833 2 3	Rs	97 51 69 833 2 3

The above Balance Sheet includes —

Deposits in London
Advances and Investments in London
Cash and Balances at other Banks in London

1 080 590 6 1
2 284 064 0 3
192 78 18 1

Government Deposits

The following statement shows the Government deposits with each Bank at various periods during the last 40 years or so —

In Lakhs of rupees

—	Bank of Bengal	Bank of Bombay	Bank of Madras	Total	—	Bank of Bengal	Bank of Bombay	Bank of Madras	Total
30 June 1881	280	61	53	344	1913	247	187	68	452
1886	320	82	39	450	1914	290	197	91	530
1891	372	97	53	482	1915	283	187	102	552
1896	225	58	57	370	1916	336	264	115	714
1901	187	90	63	340	1917	1738	716	209	2263
1906	186	93	46	325	1918	664	546	213	1423
1911	198	139	77	404	1919	346	288	142	736
1912	210	155	75	440	1920	801	663	170	1634
					26 January 1921	344	204	198	709

IMPERIAL BANK

30th June 1921
" 1922
" 1923
" 1924
" 1925
" 1926
" 1927
" 1928
" 1929

2,320
1,672
1,256
2,208
2,252
3,254
1,004
796
2,074

Government Deposits

The proportions which Government deposits have borne from time to time to the total Capital Reserve and deposit of the three Banks are shown below —

In Latin of Russia

IN LAKHS OF RUPEES					
—	1 Capital.	2 Reserve.	3 Government deposits.	4 Other deposits.	Proportion of Government deposits to 1, 2 & 4
1st December					2 per cent
1893	250	158	399	1292	14 2
1901	360	213	340	1463	14 3
1906	490	279	307	2745	8 3
1907	560	294	335	2811	8 3
1908	560	309	325	2861	8 4
1909	560	318	307	3265	7 4
1910	560	331	339	3234	9 7
1911	560	340	435	3419	9 6
1912	375	361	426	3578	9 0
1913	375	370	587	3644	11 2
1914	375	386	561	4002	10 5
1915	375	369	457	3860	9 5
1916	375	355	520	4470	9 0
1917	375	364	771	4771	9 3
1918	375	340	864	5097	12 9
1919	375	355	772	7226	3 8
1920	375	378	901	7726	9 6
30th June (Imperial Rank)					
1921	547	371	2220	7016	21 6
1922	562	411	1672	6336	18 6
1923	562	435	1256	7047	18 5
1924	562	457	2208	7682	20 2
1925	562	477	2252	7588	20 7
1926	561	492	3254	7540	27 4
1927	562	07	1004	7317	10 6
1928	562	517	706	7331	8 6
1929	562	527	2074	7233	19 9
1930	562	537	1841	7003	14 6

Recent Progress

The following statements show the progress made by the three Banks prior to their amalgamation into the Imperial Bank —

In Lakhs of Rupees

BANK OF BENGALE

	Capital	Reserve	Govt. depo- sits	Other depo- sits	Cash	Invest- ments.	Dividend for year
31st December							per cent
1895	200	68	184	877	422	132	10
1900	200	103	155	582	243	186	11
1905	200	140	187	1204	896	181	12
1906	200	150	160	1505	628	149	12
1907	200	157	127	1573	460	279	12
1908	200	165	178	1575	507	349	13
1909	200	170	168	1760	615	411	14
1910	200	175	198	1609	514	368	14
1911	200	180	270	1677	729	321	14
1912	200	185	234	1711	665	310	14
1913	200	191	301	1824	840	319	14
1914	200	200	237	2160	1160	621	16
1915	200	*204	206	1718	785	793	16
1916	200	*213	274	2147	772	708	16
1917	200	1221	448	2634	1482	773	17
1918	200	1189	584	2392	894	779	17
1919	200	1200	406	3254	907	864	17
1920	200	1210	434	3398	1221	910	19 1/2

* Includes Rs 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation of investments.

1	21	67	2	22	23	24
2	22	25	23	24	25	26

BANK OF BOMBAY

	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
1895	100	51	75	358	228	105	11 per cent
1900	100	70	87	452	129	69	"
1905	100	87	92	575	259	158	12
1906	100	92	101	582	354	177	"
1907	100	95	112	521	324	164	13
1908	100	101	94	532	377	149	13
1909	100	103	120	1085	415	183	13
1910	100	105	152	1058	436	149	14
1911	100	106	107	1104	463	208	14
1912	100	108	117	1124	315	210	14
1913	100	108	200	1015	477	232	14
1914	100	110	183	1051	646	202	15
1915	100	109	136	1079	423	276	15
1916	100	90	142	1267	667	312	15
1917	100	92	235	2817	1896	744	17
1918	100	101	177	1749	542	353	18
1919	100	110	262	2756	928	315	19
1920	100	120	340	2748	876	298	22

BANK OF MADRAS.

	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
1895	50	16	45	278	144	46	10 per cent
1900	50	22	35	260	82	67	"
1905	50	30	41	344	140	71	10
1906	50	32	54	355	151	81	"
1907	50	35	35	416	162	64	10
1908	50	40	52	447	153	84	11
1909	50	44	49	500	141	79	12
1910	50	48	72	567	184	85	12
1911	50	52	59	625	165	104	12
1912	75	70	75	743	196	113	12
1913	75	73	86	805	219	117	12
1914	75	76	91	761	267	124	12
1915	75	75	86	803	256	184	12
1916	75	55	104	960	286	161	12
1917	75	50	87	1020	496	94	12
1918	75	59	102	954	271	139	12
1919	75	45	104	1215	436	175	12
1920	75	45	118	1279	506	211	16

IMPERIAL BANK

	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
30th June 1921	547	271	22,30	70 16	84,11	16,52	16 per cent
1922	562	411	16,72	63,36	33,95	900	16
1923	562	435	12,56	70,47	20,13	925	16
1924	562	457	22,08	76,62	21,95	11,75	16
1925	562	477	22,52	75,88	35,82	14,13	16
1926	562	482	32,54	75,30	45,08	27,88	16
1927	562	507	10,04	73,17	22,63	20,50	16
1928	562	517	796	73,31	13,77	25,35	16
1929	562	527	2074	72,33	30,41	24,00	16
1930	562	537	1,791	7,003	1,696	2,069	16

THE EXCHANGE BANKS

The Banks carrying on Exchange business in India are merely branch agencies of Banks having their head offices in London, on the Continent, or in the Far East and the United States. Originally their business was confined almost exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India, but in recent years most of them, while continuing to finance this part of India's trade, have also taken an active part in the financing of the internal portion also at the places where their branches are situated.

At one time the Banks carried on their opera-

tions in India almost entirely with money borrowed elsewhere, principally in London—the home offices of the Banks attracting deposits for use in India by offering rates of interest much higher than the English Banks were able to quote. Within recent years however it has been discovered that it is possible to attract deposits in India on quite as favourable terms as can be done in London and a very large proportion of the financing done by the Exchange Banks is now carried through by means of money actually borrowed in India.

No information is available as to how far each Bank has secured deposits in India, but the following statement published by the Director General of Statistics in India shows how rapidly such deposits have grown in the aggregate within recent years

**TOTAL DEPOSITS OF ALL EXCHANGE BANKS
SECURED IN INDIA
In Lakhs of Rupees.**

1896	1080
1900	1050
1905	1704
1910	2479
1911	2816
1912	2958
1913	3103
1914	3014
1915	3354
1916	3803
1917	6337
1918	6185
1919	7485
1920	7480
1921	7519
1922	7338
1923	6844
1924	7063
1925	7054
1926	7164
1927	6866
1928	7117

Exchange Banks Investments.

Turning now to the question of the investment of the Banks' resources so far as it concerns India this to a great extent consists of the purchase of bill drawn against imports and exports to and from India.

The financing of the import trade originated and is carried through however for the most part by Branches outside India, the Indian Branches share in the business consisting principally in collecting the amount of the bills at maturity and in furnishing their other branches with information as to the means and standing of the drawers of the bills, and it is as regards the export business that the Indian Branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able however by a system of rediscount in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through. No definite information can be secured as to the extent to which rediscounting in London is carried on but the following figures appearing in the balance sheets dated 31st December 1929 of the undernoted Banks will give some idea of this.

LIABILITY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE RE-DISCOUNTED AND STILL CURRENT

	£
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China, Ltd	8,666,000
Eastern Bank, Ltd.	1,136,000
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	8,985,000
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd	2,304,000
National Bank of India, Ltd	4,974,000
P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd	3,787,000
	29,862,000

The above figures do not of course relate to re-discounts of Indian bills alone, as the Banks operate in other parts of the world also, but it may safely be inferred that bills drawn in India form a very large proportion of the whole.

The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well known firms at home or against credits opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first possible mail so that presuming they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London the Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 16 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.

The Banks place themselves in funds in India for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal—

- (1) Proceeds of import bills as they mature.
- (2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and elsewhere out of India.
- (3) Purchase of Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the Secretary of State.
- (4) Imports of bar gold and silver bullion.
- (5) Imports of sovereigns from London, Egypt or Australia.

The remaining business transacted by the Banks in India is of the usual nature and need not be given in detail.

An interesting event in Indian Banking history is the recent entry in the Banking field here of one of the English "Big Five". This has been brought about by the acquisition of the business of Cox & Co. by Lloyds Bank.

The following is a statement of the position of the various Exchange Banks carrying on business in India as at 31st December 1920—

In Thousands of £

Name	Capital	Reserve	Deposits	Cash and Investments
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	462	630	7,097	918
Bank of Taiwan Ltd	1 1/2	41	1,189	10 161
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China Ltd	3,000	4,000	44,317	18,301
Compteur National d'Escompte de Paris	1,258	4 1/2	73,317	5 38
Bank of India Ltd	3,000	480	6,213	4,123
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation Ltd	1,625	371	11,199	30,734
Imperial Bank of Persia	650	610	4 1/2	352
Lloyds Bank, Ltd	1,810	10,000	351,641	141,737
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd	1,050	1,480	12,074	7,092
Mitsui Bank Ltd	6,000	6,370	64,887	31,403
National Bank of India Ltd	2,000	3,000	31,167	16,137
National City Bank of New York	22,000	2,000	11,113	131,740
Netherlands Trading Society	6,660	9 1/2	31 1/2	7,806
Netherlands India Commercial Bank	4,583	3,118	15 1/2	6,857
P & O Banking Corporation Ltd	2,594	180	8,191	3,768
Sumitomo Bank Ltd	5,000	2,700	87,086	30,860
Yokohama Specie Bank Ltd	10,000	11,310	38 1/2	42,715

JOINT STOCK BANKS

Previous to 1906 there were few Banks of this description operating in India and such as were then in existence were of comparatively small importance and had their business confined to a very restricted area. The rapid development of this class of Bank, which has been so marked a feature in Banking within recent years, really had its origin in Bombay and set in with the establishment of the Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank in 1906. After that time there was a perfect stream of new formations and although many of the new companies confined themselves to legitimate banking business, on the other hand a very large number engaged in other businesses in addition and can hardly be properly classed as Banks.

These Banks made very great strides during the first few years of their existence, but it was generally suspected in well informed circles that the business of many of the Banks was of a very speculative and unsafe character and it was a matter of no great surprise to many people when it became known that some of the Banks were in difficulties.

The first important failure to take place was that of the People's Bank of India and the loss of confidence caused by the failure of that Bank resulted in a very large number of other failures, the principal being that of the Indian Specie Bank.

Since those events of ten years ago confidence has been largely restored. But in April 1923 the Alliance Bank of Sumatra suspended payment and is now in voluntary liquidation. The effect of the failure of this old established Bank might have been disastrous but for the prompt action of the Imperial Bank which dealt with the situation in close association with the Government of India. The Imperial Bank undertook to pay the depositors of the Alliance Bank 50 per cent of the amounts due to them. A panic was averted and a critical period was passed through with little difficulty.

During 1923 the Tata Industrial Bank which was established in 1918, was merged in the Central Bank of India.

The following shows the position of the better known existing Banks as it appears in the latest available Balance Sheets—

In Lakhs of Rupees

Name	Capital	Reserve	Deposits	Cash and Investments
Allahabad Bank Ltd affiliated to P & O Banking Corporation, Ltd	30	44	1,136	686
Bank of Baroda, Ltd	30	31	1,73	343
Bank of India Ltd	100	90	1,108	530
Bank of Mysore, Ltd	20	15	198	65
Central Bank of India Ltd	168	93	1,264	841
Indian Bank Ltd (Madras)	11	11	158	26
Punjab National Bank, Ltd	31	10	527	272
Union Bank of India, Ltd	39	7	27	28

Growth of Joint Stock Banks.

The following figures appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics show the growth of the Capital, Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India —

	In Lakhs of rupees				Capital	Reserve	Deposits
	Capital	Reserve	Deposits				
1870	9	1	13	1910	275	100	2065
1875	14	2	27	1911	285	120	2529
1880	18	3	63	1912	291	134	2755
1885	18	5	94	1913	291	132	2359
1890	33	17	370	1914	251	141	1710
1895	63	31	566	1915	281	156	1737
1900	82	45	507	1916	387	173	2471
1905	133	66	1155	1917	308	162	3117
1907	229	91	1432	1918	436	185	4059
1908	239	69	1826	1919	539	224	5899
1909	265	87	2048	1920	537	235	7114
				1921	635	300	7669
				1922	502	261	6168
				1923	689	254	4442
				1924	690	330	7250
				1925	673	335	5449
				1926	676	408	5565
				1927	688	419	6084
				1928	674	431	6820

LONDON OFFICES, AGENTS OR CORRESPONDENTS OF BANKS AND FIRMS DOING BANKING BUSINESS IN INDIA

Name of Bank	London Office—Agents or Correspondents	Address
Imperial Bank of India	London Office	22, Old Broad Street, E C 2
Other Banks & Kindred Firms		
Allahabad Bank	{ National Provincial Bank { P & O Banking Corps	15, Bishopsgate E C 2 117 122, Leadenhall Street, E C 3
Bank of India	Westminster Bank	Bartholomew Lane, E C 2
Central Bank of India	Lloyds Bank	42, Gracechurch St., E C 3
Grindlay & Co	London Office	54, Parliament Street S W 1
Karnal Industrial Bank	Barclays Bank	168, Fenchurch Street, E C 3
King's Branch (Calcutta)	Lloyds Bank	42, Gracechurch St., E C 3
(Bombay)		
Punjab National Bank	Midland Bank	5 Threadneedle St., E C 2
Simla Banking & Industrial Co	Ditto	Ditto
Union Bank of India	Westminster Bank	Bartholomew Lane, E C 2
Exchange Banks		
American Express Co (India)	London Office	52-a, Lombard Street E C 3
Banco Nacional Ultramarino	Ditto	9 Bishopsgate, E C 2
Bank of Taiwan	Ditto	Graham House, 25 Old Broad Street, E C 2
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	Ditto	38, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris	Ditto	8-13, King William Street E C 4
Eastern Bank	Ditto	2-3, Crosby Sq., E C 3
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Ditto	9, Gracechurch St., E C 3
Imperial Bank of Persia	Ditto	33-34, King William Street E C 4
Lloyds Bank	Ditto	42, Gracechurch St. E C 1
Ditto (Cox's Branch)	Ditto	Ditto
Mercantile Bank of India	Ditto	15, Gracechurch St., E C 1
Mitsui Bank Ltd	Ditto	100 Old Broad St., E C 2
National Bank of India	Ditto	26 Bishopsgate, E C 2
National City Bank of New York	Ditto	36, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij	National Provincial Bank	15, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Nederlandsche Indische Handelsbank	London Representative	Stone House, Bishopsgate E C 2
P & O Banking Corporation	London Office	117 122, Leadenhall Street, E C 3
Santhome Bank	Ditto	67, Bishopsgate, E C 2
Thomas Cook & Son	Ditto	Lodgegate House, E C 4
Yokohama Specie Bank	Ditto	7, Bishopsgate, E C 2

INDIAN PRIVATE BANKERS AND SHROFFS

Indian private Bankers and Shroffs flourished in India long before Joint Stock Banks were ever thought of, and it seems likely that they will continue to thrive for some very considerable time to come. The use of the word "Shroff" is usually associated with a person who charges usurious rates of interest to impecunious people, but this is hardly fair to the people known as "shroffs" in banking circles, as there is no doubt that the latter are of very real service to the business community and of very great assistance to Banks in India. Under present conditions the Banks in India can never hope to be able to get into sufficiently close touch with the affairs of the vast trading community in India to enable them to grant accommodation to more than a few of these traders direct and it is in his capacity as middleman that the shroff proves of such great service. In this capacity also he brings a very considerable volume of business within the scope of the Presidency Banks Act and enables the Presidency Banks to give accommodation which, without his assistance, the Banks would not be permitted to give. The shroff's position as an intermediary between the trading community and the Banks usually arises in some thing after the following manner. A shopkeeper in the bazaar, with limited means of his own, finds that, after using all his own money, he still requires say Rs. 25,000 to stock his shop suitably. He thereupon approaches the shroff, and the latter after very careful inquiries as to the shopkeeper's position grants the accommodation, if he is satisfied that the business is safe. The business, as a rule, is arranged through a hoondee broker, and in the case referred to the latter may probably approach about ten shroffs and secure accommodation from them to the extent of Rs. 2500 each. A hoondee usually drawn at a currency of about 2 months is almost invariably taken by the shroffs in respect of such advances.

A stage is reached however when the demands on the shroffs are greater than they are able to meet out of their own money, and it is at this

point that the assistance of the Banks is called into requisition. The shroffs do this by taking a number of the bills they already hold to the Banks for discount under their endorsement and the Banks accept such bills freely to an extent determined in each case by the standing of the shroff and the strength of the drawer. The extent to which any one shroff may grant accommodation in the bazaar is therefore dependent on two factors, viz., (1) the limit which he himself may think it advisable to place on his transactions, and (2) the extent to which the Banks are prepared to discount bills bearing his endorsement. The shroffs keep in very close touch with all the traders to whom they grant accommodation, and past experience has shown that this class of business above referred to is one of the safest the Banks can engage in.

The rates charged by the shroffs are usually based on the rates at which they in turn can discount the bills with the Banks and necessarily vary according to the standing of the borrower and with the season of the year. Generally speaking however a charge of two annas per cent, per mensem above the Bank's rate of discount, or $1\frac{1}{2}\%$, is a fair average rate charged in Bombay to a first class borrower. Rates in Calcutta and Madras are on a slightly higher scale due in a great measure to the fact that the competition among the shroffs for business is not so keen in these places as it is in Bombay.

The shroffs who engage in the class of business above described are principally Marwaries and Mitalias having their Head Offices for the most part in Bikaner and Shikarpur respectively, the business elsewhere than at the Head Offices being carried on by Mooolims who have very wide powers.

It is not known to what extent native bankers and shroffs receive deposits and engage in exchange business throughout India, but there is no doubt that this is done to a very considerable extent.

THE BANK RATE

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank Rate and the rates were not uniform. Now the Imperial Bank fixes the rate for the whole of India. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the Banks on demand loans against Government securities only and advances on other securities or discounts are granted at

The following statement shows the average constituted —

a rate at a slightly higher rate. Ordinarily such advances or discounts are granted at from one-half to one per cent. over the official rate, but this does not always apply and in the monsoon months, when the Bank rate is sometimes nominal, it often happens that such accommodation is granted at the official rate or even less.

Bank Rate since the Imperial Bank was

Year	1st Half year	2nd Half year	Yearly average
1921	6 0.25	5 100	5 67.5
1922	7 132	4 610	5 821
1923	7 419	4 5	5 959
1924	8 106	5 215	6 682
1925	8 585	4 70.	5 643
1926	5 651	4	4 825
1927	6 508	4 956	5 732
1928	6 945	5 45	6 2
1929	6 578	6 788	6 335
1930	6 508		

BANKERS' CLEARING HOUSES.

The principal Clearing Houses in India are those of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, Colombo and Karachi; and of these the first two are by far the most important. The members at these places consist of The Imperial Bank, most of the Exchange Banks and English Banking Agency firms and a few of the better known of the local Joint Stock Banks. No Bank is entitled to claim to be a member as of right and any application for admission to a Clearing must be proposed and seconded by two members and be subject thereafter to ballot by the existing members.

The duties of settling Bank are undertaken by the Imperial Bank at each of the places mentioned and a representative of each member attends at the office of that Bank on each business day at the time fixed to deliver all cheques he may have negotiated on other members

and to receive in exchange all cheques drawn on him negotiated by the latter. After all the cheques have been received and delivered the representative of each Bank advises the settling Bank of the difference between his total receipts and deliveries and the settling Bank thereafter strikes a final balance to satisfy itself that the totals of the debtor balances agree with the total of the creditor balances. The debtor Banks thereafter arrange to pay the amounts due by them to the settling Bank during the course of the day and the latter in turn arranges to pay on receipt of those amounts the balances due to the creditor Banks. In practice however all the members keep Bank accounts with the settling Bank so that the final balances are settled by cheques and book entries thus doing away with the necessity for cash in any form.

The figures for the Clearing Houses in India above referred to are given below —

Total amount of Cheques Cleared Annually

In lakhs of Rupees

	Calcutta	Bombay	Madras	Rangoon	Colombo	Karachi	Total
1911	Not available	9511	1338	Not available		178	8027
1912		7013	1205			268	8576
1913		8763	1464			340	10566
1914		9492	1536			355	11393
1915		10927	1560			324	12811
1916		10912	1532			400	12845
1917	22444	12646	1548			530	37168
1918	21291	12565	1754			643	33253
1919	19776	14375	1918			702	36801
1910	23214	17652	2117	4765		765	46527
1911	25767	17606	2093	5199		782	51612
1912	28631	20881	1152	6043		1159	53016
1913	31139	21800	2310	6198		1219	61780
1914	28031	17006	2127	4989		1715	51158
1915	32566	16162	1887	4069		1152	56036
1916	48017	24051	2495	4851		1503	81019
1917	47109	33655	2389	4066		2028	90181
1918	74391	53861	2528	6027		2420	130843
1919	90241	76250	3004	8617		2886	180598
1920	151388	128358	7500	10779		3120	301140
1921	91472	89788	9847	11876		3579	200761
1922	94426	86681	4279	12220	9681	7214	210523
1923	89148	75015	4722	11014	11940	4034	191988
1924	92240	62550	5546	11515	13174	4515	192249
1925	101833	51944	5716	12493	14978	4119	191088
1926	05914	42060	5688	12511	16083	3166	175408
1927	102702	39826	5620	12609	15997	3017	179510
1928	108819	44308	5540	12695	15446	2945	200093
1929	99761	70968	5877	12160	15120	2718	215917

Table of Wages, Income, &c

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TABLE OF WAGES, INCOME, &c

Following the amount for one or more days at the rates of 1 to 16 Rupees per Month of 31 Days

Engrs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Days	Engrs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	0 60	1 00	1 60	2 00	2 60	3 00	3 60	4 00	4 60	5 00	5 60	6 00	6 60	7 00	7 60	8 00
2	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
3	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
4	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
5	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
6	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
7	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
8	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
9	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
10	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
11	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
12	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
13	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
14	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
15	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
16	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
17	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
18	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
19	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
20	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
21	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
22	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
23	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
24	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
25	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
26	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
27	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
28	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
29	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
30	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16
31	0 01	0 02	0 03	0 04	0 05	0 06	0 07	0 08	0 09	0 10	0 11	0 12	0 13	0 14	0 15	0 16

The Railways.

The history of Indian Railways very closely reflects the financial vicissitudes of the country. Not for some time after the establishment of Railways in England was their construction in India contemplated and then to test their applicability to Eastern conditions three experimental lines were sanctioned in 1845. These were from Calcutta to Raniganj (120 miles) the East Indian Railway, Bombay to Balyan (33 miles) Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and Madras to Arkonam (39 miles) Madras Railway. Indian Railway building on a serious scale dates from Lord Dalhousie's great minute of 1853, wherein after dwelling upon the great social, political and commercial advantages of connecting the chief cities by rail, he suggested a great scheme of trunk lines linking the Presidencies with each other and the inland regions with the principal ports. The reasoning commended itself to the Directors of the East India Company, and it was powerfully reinforced when, during the Mutiny, the barriers imposed on free communication were severely felt. As there was no private capital in India available for railway construction, English Companies, the interest on whose capital was guaranteed by the State were formed for the purpose. By the end of 1868 contracts had been entered into with eight companies for the construction of 5,000 miles of line, involving a guaranteed capital of £52 millions. These companies were (1) the East Indian, (2) the Great Indian Peninsula, (3) the Madras, (4) the Bombay, Baroda and Central India, (5) the Eastern Bengal, (6) the Indian Branch, later the Oudh and Rohilkhand State Railway and now part of the East Indian Railway, (7) the Sind Punjab and Delhi now merged in the North Western State Railway, (8) the Great Southern of India, now the South Indian Railway. The scheme laid the foundations of the Indian Railway system as it exists to-day.

Early Disappointments.

The main principle in the formation of these companies was a Government guarantee on their capital for this was the only condition on which investors would come forward. This guarantee was five per cent coupled with the free grant of all the land required, in return the companies were required to share the surplus profits with the Government after the guaranteed interest had been met. The interest charges were calculated at 2½% to the rupee. The Railways were to be sold to Government on fixed terms at the close of twenty-five years and the Government were to exercise close control over expenditure and working. The early results were disappointing. While the Railways greatly increased the efficiency of the administration, the mobility of the troops, the trade of the country and the movement of the population, they failed to make profits sufficient to meet the guaranteed interest. Some critics attributed this to the unnecessarily high standard of construction adopted, and to the engineers' ignorance of local conditions, the result was that by 1869 the deficit on the Railway budget was Rs 166 lakhs. Seeking for some more economical

method of construction, the Government secured sanction to the building of lines by direct State Agency, and funds were allotted for the purpose, the metre-gauge being adopted for cheapness. Funds soon lapsed and the money available had to be diverted to converting the Sind and Punjab lines from metre to broad gauge for strategic reasons. Government had therefore again to resort to the system of guarantee, and the Indian Midland (1862-85), since absorbed by the Great Indian Peninsula, the Bengal Nagpur (1868-87), the Southern Maratha (1882) and the Assam Bengal (1891) were constructed under guarantee but on easier terms than the first companies. Their total length was over 4,000 miles.

Famine and Frontiers.

In 1870, embarrassed by famine and by the fall of the exchange value of the rupee, Government again endeavoured to enlist unaided private enterprise. Four companies were promoted—the Nilgiri, the Delhi Umballa Kalra, the Bengal Central, and the Bengal North Western. The first became bankrupt, the second and third received guarantees, and the Tirhut Railway had to be leased to the fourth. A step of even greater importance was taken when Native States were invited to undertake construction in their own territories, and the Nizam's Government guaranteed the interest on 330 miles of line in the State of Hyderabad. This was the first of the large system of Native State Railways. In the first period up to 1870, 4,255 miles were opened, of which all save 45 were on the broad-gauge, during the next ten years there were opened 4,289, making the total 8,544 (on the broad gauge 6,562, the metre 1,885, and narrow 97). Then ensued a period of financial ease. It was broken by the fall in exchange and the costly lines built on the frontier. The Penjdeh incident, which brought Great Britain and Russia to the verge of war, necessitated the connection of our outposts at Quetta and Chaman with the main trunk lines. The sections through the desolate Harnai and Bolan Passes were enormously costly. It is said that they might have been ballasted with rupees, the long tunnel under the Khojak Pass added largely to this necessary but unprofitable outlay.

Rebate Terms Established.

This induced the fourth period—the system of rebates. Instead of a gold subsidy, companies were offered a rebate on the gross earnings of the traffic interchanged with the main line so that the dividend might rise to four per cent but the rebate was limited to 20 per cent of the gross earnings. Under these conditions, there were promoted the Ahmedabad Barot, the South Behar and the Southern Punjab although only in the case of the last were the terms strictly adhered to. The Barot Light Railway on the two feet six inches gauge entered the field without any guarantee, and with rolling stock designed to illustrate the carrying power of this gauge. The rebate terms being found unattractive in view of the competition of 4 per cent. trustee stocks, they were revised in 1896 to provide for an

absolute guarantee of 3 per cent with a share of surplus profits, or rebate up to the full extent of the main line net earnings in supplement of their own net earnings, the total being limited to 3½ per cent. on the capital outlay. Under these terms a considerable number of feeder line companies was promoted, though in none were the conditions arbitrarily exacted. As these terms did not at first attain their purpose, they were further revised, and in lieu was substituted an increase in the rate of guarantee from 3 to 3½ per cent. and of rebate from 3½ to 5 per cent with equal division of surplus profits over 5 per cent in both cases. At last, the requirements of the market were met and there was for a time a mild boom in feeder railway construction and the stock of all the sound companies promoted stood at a substantial premium. Conditions changed after the war and the Acworth Committee so far from approving of this system, considered that the aim of the Government should be to reduce by amalgamation the number of existing companies and that it should only be in cases where the State cannot or will not provide adequate funds that private enterprise in this direction should be encouraged.

The existing Branch Line Companies have ceased for some time to raise additional capital for capital requirements. They have either obtained overdrafts from various Banks for this purpose at heavy rates of interest or issued debentures at special rates of interest (usually about 7 per cent.) or in several cases asked for money to be advanced to them by the Railway Board. So far, therefore, from reducing the amount that the Government of India have to raise in the open market, they were increasing the amount. For the above reasons, the Government of India have abolished this system and are now prepared themselves to find the capital required for the construction of extensions or branches to existing main line systems. They have also announced their readiness to consider the question of constructing branch or feeder lines which were not expected to be remunerative from the point of view of railway earnings upon a guarantee against loss from a Local Government or local authority which might desire to have such lines constructed for purely local reasons or on account of administrative advantages likely to accrue in particular areas. This proposal was put forward as affording a suitable method of reconciling the interests of the Central and the Local Governments and of providing for local bodies and for Local Governments a method of securing the construction of railways which may be required for purely local reasons and which while not likely to prove remunerative on purely railway earnings, are likely to give such benefits to Local Governments and local bodies as will more than repay the amounts paid under the guarantee. Some such arrangements have already been made with Local Government in Madras, Punjab, Burma, and Bombay.

Railway Profits Commence

Meantime a much more important change was in progress. The gradual economic development of the country vastly increased the traffic, both passenger and goods. The

falling in of the original contracts allowed Government to renew them on more favourable terms. The development of irrigation in the Punjab and Sind transformed the North Western State Railway. Owing to the burden of maintaining the unprofitable Frontier lines this was the Cinderella Railway in India—the scapegoat of the critics who protested against the unwisdom of constructing railways from borrowed capital. But with the completion of the Chonab and Jhelum Canals, the North Western became one of the great grain lines of the world choked with traffic at certain seasons of the year and making a large profit for the State. In 1900 the railways for the first time showed a small gain to the State. In succeeding years the net receipts grew rapidly. In the four years ended 1907-08 they averaged close upon 22 millions a year. In the following year there was a relapse. Bad harvests in India accompanied by the monetary panic caused by the American financial crisis led to a great falling off in receipts. Just when working expenses were rising, owing to the general increase in prices. Instead of a profit, there was a deficit of £1,340,000 in the railway accounts for 1908-09. But in the following year there was a reversion to a profit, and the net Railway gain has steadily increased. For the year ended March 1919 this gain amounted to £10,673,000. Although in a country like India where the finances are mainly dependent upon the character of the monsoon the railway revenue must fluctuate there was no reason to anticipate a further deficit but the net railway gain decreased to £3,767,000 in 1920-21 and there was an actual loss of £4,182,000 in 1921-22. As a result of the steps taken by the Railway Board, however, on the report of the Acworth Committee in 1921 this loss was changed into a gain of £813,000 in 1922-23.

The results in succeeding years showed further improvements as will be seen from the following statements—

	Contribution to General Revenue	Railway Revenue Fund	Total Gain
	£	£	£
1921-24			4 477 712
1924-25	4 941 787	4 625 985	9 577 772
1925-26	4 135 644	2 854 946	6 990 590
1926-27	4 480 045	1 108 433	5 588 478
1927-28	4 707 239	3 440 000	8 147 239
1928-29	3 933 434	1 977 895	5 911 329
1929-30	4 888 040	1 581 050	6 469 090

Receipts have been converted into £ at the average rate of exchange for the year.

There was however a definite set back during 1929-30 due to the general world depression which was accentuated in India by the activities of the Congress Party which interfered with the normal flow of trade with disastrous results to the finances of India as well as to those of Indian Railways. The net gain to the Central Government from the works of its railways in the year amounted to £3,027,300 which was £2,829,760 less than those of 1928-29 and as the

contribution payable to general revenue amounted to Rs 48,900. It was necessary to draw Rs 1,01,600 from the Railway Reserve fund to meet this charge. The results of 1930-31 have shown no improvement and up to 14th February 1931 the gross earnings of Indian Railways were about Rs 2,27,000 less than those of the similar period of 1929-30. The revised estimate for 1931-32 presented with the Railway Budget estimate for 1931-32 shows a total receipts of Rs 90.75, which is a reduction of Rs 12.75 crores as compared with the original estimate. While the total charges, although Rs 1.5 crores below the original estimate, were estimated to amount to nearly Rs 102 crores. Railways were therefore faced with a loss of Rs 11.25 crores in addition to which Rs 3.74 crores have to be found as a contribution to Central Government. It will accordingly be necessary to draw Rs 10.50 crores from the Reserve fund. The budget estimate for 1931-32 allows for a receipt of Rs 102.25 crores and total charges of Rs 101.25 crores and as the contribution to Central Government is Rs 3.74 crores, it will be necessary to draw a further Rs 1.15 crores from the Reserve fund.

Contracts Revised

One factor which helped to improve the financial position was the revision of the original contracts under which the guaranteed lines were constructed. The Government had divided the guaranteed lines into two classes, the first class being those in which the State guaranteed a minimum return of 5 per cent on the capital invested and the second class being those in which the State guaranteed a minimum return of 5 per cent on the capital invested. The first class contracts were revised at a time when the stock market was at a high premium. The first contract to fall in was the East Indian line, the great line connecting Calcutta with Delhi and the Northern provinces. When the contract lapsed the Government exercised their right of purchasing the line paying the purchase money in the form of terminable annuities derived from revenue currying with them a sinking fund for the redemption of capital. The line was thus became a State line, but it was reassigned to the Company which actually works it. Under these new conditions the East Indian Company brought to the State in the ten years ended 1909 after meeting all charges including the payments on account of the terminable annuity by means of which the purchase of the line was made, and interest of all capital outlay subsequent to the date on purchase a clear profit of nearly ten million. At the end of seventy-four years from 1880, when the annuity expired, the Government will come into receipt of a clear yearly income of upwards of £2,700,000 equivalent to the creation of a capital of sixty to seventy millions sterling. No other railway shows results quite equal to the East Indian because, in addition to serving a rich country by an easy line, it possesses its own collieries and mines cheap coal. But with allowances for these factors all the other guaranteed companies which have been assigned under similar conditions as their contracts expired, have proportionally swelled the revenue and assets of the State. It is difficult to estimate the amount which must be added to the capital debt of the Indian railways in order to counterbalance the loss during the period when the revenue did not meet the interest charges.

According to one estimate it should be £50 millions. But even if that figure be taken Government have a magnificent asset in their railway property.

Improving Open Lines.

These changes induced a corresponding change in the Indian Railway policy. Up to 1900 the great work had been the provision of trunk lines. But with the completion of the Nagla Muttra line, providing an alternative broad-gauge route from Bombay to Delhi through Eastern Rajputana, the trunk system was virtually complete. A direct road-gauge route from Bombay to Delhi was not possible due to the poor commercial prospects of the line and the opposition of the King of Cutch to any through line in his territory. As for some time kept this matter in the background. The possibility, however, of this construction being undertaken has improved considerably and a detailed survey is being carried out. There does not exist any through rail connection between India and Burma although several routes have been surveyed. The mountainous character of the region to be traversed and the necessity of communication with Burma by sea, nullify this scheme of any living importance. Further survey work was undertaken between 1914 and 1920, but three routes to be surveyed by the Government, the Manipal route and the Hukong valley route. The Manipal route, connecting Northern and Southern India, will also probably one day be completed and a direct line direct broad-gauge connection with Delhi a project that has been presented more than once but cannot at present be financially justified. These works are however subordinate to the necessity for bringing the open lines up to their traffic requirements and providing them with loaders. The sudden increase in the trade of India found the main lines totally unprepared. Constant work was necessary to double lines, improve the equipment, provide new and better yards and terminal facilities and to increase the rolling stock. Consequently the demands on the open lines altogether overshadowed the provision of new lines. Even then the railway budget was found totally inadequate for the purpose and a small Committee set in London under the chairmanship of Lord Curzon to consider ways and means. This Committee found that the amount which could be remuneratively spent on railway construction in India was limited only by the capacity of the money market. They fixed the annual allotment at £12,000,000 a year. Even this reduced sum could not always be provided.

Government Control and Re-organisation of Railway Board.

As the original contracts carried a definite Government guarantee of interest it was necessary for Government to exercise strong supervision and control over the expenditure during construction, and over management and expenditure after the lines were open for traffic. For these purposes a staff of Consulting Engineers was formed, and a whole system of checks and counterchecks established, leading up to the Railway Branch of the Public Works Department of the Government of India. At

traffic developed the Indian Railways out grew this dry nursing, and when the original contracts expired and the interests of Government and the Companies synchronised, it became not only variations but unnecessary. Accordingly in 1901-02 Mr Thomas Robertson was deputed by the Secretary of State to examine the whole question of the organisation and working of the Indian Railways, and he recommended that the existing system should be replaced by a Railway Board, consisting of a Chairman and two members with a Secretary. The Board was formally constituted in March 1905. The Board was made subordinate to the Government of India in which it was represented by the Department of Commerce and Industry. It prepared the railway programme of expenditure and considered the greater questions of policy and economy affecting all the lines. Its administrative duties included the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, the improvement of railway management with regard both to economy and public convenience, the arrangements for through traffic, the settlement of disputes between lines, the control and promotion of the staff on State lines, and the general supervision over the working and expenditure of the Company's lines. Certain minor changes have taken place from time to time since the constitution of the Railway Board. In 1908 to meet the complaint that the Board was subjected to excessive control by the Department of Commerce and Industry the powers of the Chairman were increased and he was given the status of a Secretary to Government with the right of independent access to the Viceroy, he usually sat in the Imperial Legislative Council as the representative of the Railway interest. In 1912 in consequence of complaints of the excessive interference of the Board with the Companies an informal mission was undertaken by Lord Inchausti to reconcile differences. Various changes were introduced during the years 1912-1920 such as the modification of the rule that the President and members of the Railway Board should all be men of large experience in the working of railways due to the importance of financial and commercial considerations in connection with the control of Indian Railway policy. This decision was however revised in 1920 and an additional appointment of Financial Adviser to the Railway Board created instead. The question of the most suitable organisation was further fully examined by the Acworth Committee in 1921 and a revised organization which is described later was introduced from 1st April 1922.

Some of the difficulties involved in the constitution of a controlling authority for the railways of India may be realized from a study of the "Notes on the Relation of the Government to Railways in India" printed as an appendix to Volume I of the Annual Report by the Railway Board on Indian Railways. These notes bring out the great diversity of conditions prevailing which involve the Railway Department in the exercise of the functions of—

(a) the directly controlling authority of the State-worked systems aggregating 18,494 miles in on the 31st March 1922,

(b) the representative of the predominant owning partner in systems aggregating 29,461 miles,

(c) the guarantor of many of the smaller companies, and

(d) the statutory authority over all railways in India.

Moreover in all questions relating to railways or extra municipal tramways in which Provincial Governments are concerned, the Railway Department is called upon to watch the interests of the Central Government and is frequently asked to advise the Local Governments. Its duties do not end there. The future development of railways depends largely on the Government of India and the Railway Department is therefore called upon to plan out schemes of development, to investigate and survey new lines and to arrange for financing their construction. The statement of the varied responsibilities of the Government of India in regard to railways might be extended almost indefinitely. It will perhaps be sufficient to mention only the complications that may and do arise owing to the very considerable railway mileage in Indian States. In the exercise of all these functions the Railway Department is a Department of the Government of India its policy must be in accord with the policy of the Government as a whole and every decision must be made with that consideration in mind. The evolution of a satisfactory authority for the administration of these varied functions has proved extremely difficult and the question was one of those referred to the Railway Committee (1920-21) presided over by Sir William Acworth who expressed the unanimous opinion that material changes were necessary in the constitution of the Railway Board. Amongst their recommendations they advised the early appointment of a Chief Commissioner of Railways whose first duty should be to prepare a definite scheme for the reorganization of the Railway Department and Mr C. D. M. Hindley, formerly Agent of the East Indian Railway and Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust, was appointed Chief Commissioner on November 1st 1922.

The principal constitutional change involved in this appointment is that the Chief Commissioner or who takes the place of the President of the Railway Board is solely responsible—under the Government of India—for arriving at decisions on technical matters and for advising the Government of India on matters of railway policy and is not as was the President, subject to be out voted and over-ruled by his colleagues on the Board. The detailed re-organization of the Railway Board in accordance with the Chief Commissioner's proposals required careful consideration but one of the most important of his recommendations namely the appointment of a Financial Commissioner was considered of particular urgency and the Secretary of State's sanction was therefore obtained to the appointment with effect from 1st April 1923. While in the person of the Chief Engineer the Railway Board has always had available the technical advice of a senior Civil Engineer in Mechanical Engineering questions it has had to depend on outside assistance. The disadvantages of this arrangement have become increasingly evident and it was therefore decided with effect from

November 1st, 1922, to create the new appointment of Chief Mechanical Engineer with the Railway Board

The reorganization carried out in 1924 had for one of its principal objects the relief of the Chief Commissioner and the Members from all but important work so as to enable them to devote their attention to larger questions of railway policy and to enable them to keep in touch with Local Governments, railway administrations and public bodies by touring to a greater extent than they had been able to do in the past. This object was effected by placing a responsible Director at the head of each of the main branches of the Board's work namely, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Traffic and Establishment. The former Chief Engineer and the Chief Mechanical Engineer, who had been employed mainly in executive work, became Directors and together with the Directors of Traffic and Establishment have been made responsible for the direct disposal of the work of their branches under the general orders of the Railway Board.

The posts of Joint Secretary and 4 Assistant Secretaries were replaced by 6 Deputy Directors working under the Directors and in charge of branches dealing with Establishment Works, Projects, Stores, Statistics and Traffic. One Assistant Director was also added to supervise the Technical Branch and the Drawing Office. The disposal of the general work of the Railway Board was provided for by the continuance of the post of Secretary.

The position of the Board as a Department of the Government of India has been maintained and it works under the Member for Commerce and Railways. As already stated the Chief Commissioner is the Secretary to the Government of India in the Railway Department and orders issued by the Board over the signature of the Secretary are orders of the Government of India.

Experience of the working of this organization during 1924-25 and the decision agreed to by the Legislative Assembly in September 1924 to separate railway finances from the general finances of the country made it necessary to appoint a Deputy Director and an Assistant Director of Finance. An Assistant Director of Statistics was also added during that year. Later a Director of Finance was added to the establishment occupying, as regards disposal of work, the same position as the Directors referred to above.

Further experience of the reduction of work resulting from the large delegation of powers and responsibility to the Agents of State-managed Railways and the Board of Directors of Company-managed railways enabled a rearrangement of work to be made during 1925-26 accompanied by a reduction in the staff. Under this rearrangement the posts of 3 Deputy Directors, an Assistant Director and the Assistant Secretary were held in abeyance. The personal work was transferred from the Directors of Establishment to the Secretary and a temporary post of Deputy Secretary was created. Further a separate technical office was established to take charge of the technical

work of the engineering branches. The Technical Officer also acted as *ex-officio* Secretary to the permanent Standardisation Committee which had been appointed to deal progressively with all questions of standards of equipment.

The necessity of some central organisation to co-ordinate the publicity work carried out on railways and to undertake on its own the many forms of railways publicity which can be best organised by one central body led to the inauguration of the Central Publicity Bureau under a Chief Publicity Officer in 1927. The success which has attended the work of this Bureau led to its being made permanent from January 1st, 1929. The work undertaken is described later.

The growing importance of Labour questions necessitated the organisation of a new branch in the Railway Board's office and to the appointment in 1929 of a third member whose main duties are connected with the satisfactory solution of labour problems and the improvements of the conditions of service of the staff generally and of the lower paid employees in particular. The temporary appointment of a Deputy Director to assist the member in dealing with Labour questions has been approved and the question of making this appointment permanent is now under consideration. The appointment of a third member has relieved the Member General of some of his duties and enabled him to concentrate more on transportation and commercial questions. He is now called Member Traffic while the remaining member who is responsible for civil and mechanical engineering questions is known as Member Engineering.

Under the Railway Board's policy of progressive standardisation it is proposed to standardise all classes of materials, plant and rolling stock commonly in use on the railways and as a Central Standardisation Office has been established under a Chief Controller of Standardisation to provide the means whereby such standardisation will be progressively effected in accordance with changing conditions and as the result of practical experience. The Technical Officer under the Railway Board has now been transferred to this office as a Deputy Controller.

The present superior staff under the Railway Board therefore consists of 5 Directors, 6 Deputy Directors, 1 Assistant Director a Secretary and a Deputy Secretary in addition to the Controller of Railway Accounts and his officers to the Chief Publicity Officer and the Officers in the Central Publicity Bureau and to the Chief Controller and the officers in the Central Standardisation Office. The Assistant Director of Statistics has been transferred to the office of the Controller of Railway Accounts.

The question of transferring the supervision of railway accounts of State Railways from the Finance Department to the Railway Board was under consideration for some time and in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Legislative Assembly in September 1925 a start was made with the transfer of the supervision of railway accounts on the East Indian Railway. At the same time a separate Audit Staff was appointed reporting directly to the Auditor-General. As it was found that the separation of Audit from

Accounts led to greater efficiency a similar organisation was introduced on other State managed railways during 1929. The supervision of Accounts Officers was placed under a Controller of Railways Accounts reporting to the Financial Commissioner of Railways and that of Audit Officers under a Director of Railway Audit reporting to the Auditor-General. These two duties were previously combined under the Accountant-General, Railways reporting to the Auditor-General. The Chief Accounts Officers on railways are now under the Agent but have certain powers of direct reference to the Financial Commissioner of Railways.

Management

The Railways managed by Companies have Boards of Directors in London and are represented in India by an Agent. Some of the Company managed railways are still on a departmental basis with a Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer Locomotive and Carriage and Wagon Superintendent, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor, while others have separated the Transportation and Commercial duties of the Traffic Manager and combined the supervision of Locomotive running with Transportation. State managed lines have generally adopted the divisional organisation with a Chief Operating Superintendent, Chief Commercial Manager, Chief Engineer, Chief Mechanical Engineer, Controller of Stores and Chief Accounts Officer.

Clearing Accounts Office

A Clearing Accounts Office with a Statutory Audit Office attached thereto was opened in December 1926 to take over work relating to the check and apportionment of traffic interchanged between State-managed Railways. The work of the different railways was gradually transferred to this office. The North Western Railway being taken over first on the 1st January 1927, the East Indian Railway following on the 1st April, the Eastern Bengal Railway on the 1st January 1928, and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway later.

At the request of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway an exhaustive experiment was conducted to check the accuracy of the results obtained by the revised procedure, and as the experiment was completely successful, the Board of Directors of the Bombay Baroda & Central India Railway have also agreed to the transfer of the check and apportionment of their foreign traffic to the Clearing Accounts Office.

During 1927-28 demonstrations explaining the Clearing Accounts Office procedure were given to the representatives of the Press as well as to the representatives of the various railways who visited the office to study the new procedure. An important demonstration was given to the representatives of the Southern

Railways at Madras who were so impressed with the superiority of the new procedure that they unanimously recommended to their Home Boards the transfer of the work of check and apportionment of earnings from interchanged traffic to the Clearing Accounts Office and it was hoped to open a branch Clearing Accounts Office at Madras at an early date to deal with such traffic but owing to certain later developments in connection with experiments now in operation of through rate systems and of decentralisation of Traffic Accounts work no definite decision has yet been arrived at.

The Railway Conference

In order to facilitate the adjustment of domestic questions, the Railway Conference was instituted in 1878. This Conference was consolidated into a permanent body in 1903 under the title of the Indian Railway Conference Association. It is under the direct control of the railways. It elects a President from amongst the members, and has done much useful work.

The Indian Gauges.

The standard gauge for India is five feet six inches. When construction was started the broad gauge school was strong, and it was thought advisable to have a broad gauge in order to resist the influence of cyclones. But in 1870, when the State system was adopted it was decided to find a more economical gauge, for the open lines had cost £17,000 a mile. After much deliberation the metre-gauge of 3 feet 3½ inches was adopted, because at that time the idea of adopting the metric system for India was in the air. The original intention was to make the metre gauge lines provisional; they were to be converted into broad gauge as soon as the traffic justified it; consequently they were built very light. But the traffic expanded with surprising rapidity and it was found cheaper to improve the carrying power of the metre-gauge lines than to convert them to the broad-gauge. So except in the Indus Valley where the strategic situation demanded an unbroken gauge the metre gauge lines were improved and they became a permanent feature in the railway system. Now there is a great metre gauge system north of the Ganges connected with the Rajputana lines and Kathiawar and another system in Southern India embracing the Southern Maratha and the South India Systems. There are not yet connected but the necessary link from Khandwa by way of the Nizam's Hyderabad Government Railway, cannot be long delayed. All the Burma lines are on the metre-gauge. Certain feeder and hill railways have been constructed on the 2-6 and 2-0 gauges and since the opening of the Barsi Light Railway which showed the possible capacity of the 2-6 gauge there has been a tendency to construct feeder lines on this rather than on the metre gauge.

The following statement brings out the more important features of the operation of Indian railways during the year 1929-30 together with similar information for the year 1928-29—

Mileage open on the 1st March—

	1928-29	1929-30
1 Single line	37,882 0½	38,149 74
2 Double line or more	2,566 75	3,573 90
3 Total route mileage	40,449 70	41,723 78
4 Total track mileage	58,456 96	56,474 74

Capital and Revenue Earnings and Expenditure—

5	Total capital at charge including ferriss and suspense on open line	Rs	8,31,39,30,000	4,56,74,62 000
6	Gross earnings	"	1,18,86,82,000	1,16,06 14,000
7	Gross earnings per train mile	"	6 38	6 08
8	Working expenses	"	78,59,85,000	76,43,72,000
9	Working expenses per train mile	"	3 95	3 94
10	Net earnings		45 24 11 000	39,70,57,000
11	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings		62 77	
12	Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay		5 32	

Equipment—

13	Locomotives		9,443	9 474
14	Passenger carriages		20,229	20,413
15	Other passenger vehicles		5,504	5,644
16	Goods stock		2,35,553	225 926
	Roll motors		32	36
	Steam coaches		27	33*
	Electric motor coaches and trailers		307	367

Passenger Traffic—

17	Number of passengers carried		620 110 100	634,297,400
18	Passenger miles		2,097,136,000	23,053,000 000
19	Average journey	Miles	35 6	36 3
20	Earnings from passengers carried	Rs	38,24,89,000	36,08 33 000
21	Average rate charged per passenger per mile	Pies	3 32	3 21
22	Total coaching earnings	Rs	44,49,89,000	44,67,18,000

Goods Traffic—

23	Number of tons carried		90,835,000	87,376,000
24	Net ton miles		21 889,177,000	21,524,637,000
25	Average haul		241 0	210 4
26	Earnings from tonnage carried	Rs	71 10,56,000	68,82 76,000
27	Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile	Pies	6 24	6 14
28	Total goods earnings		71,44,41,000	69,09,44 000

Number of employees

806,433† 819,058

* Includes 10 steam trailer coaches

† Revised figures

At the close of the year 1929-30, the total capital invested in railways was Rupees 8,31,74,62,000 represented by a property which in terms of route mileage amounted to 41,724 miles of railway. This property brought in to the owners a return of 4.74 per cent on the capital at charge. Similar figures for the railways owned by the State are—

	Rs
Total capital at charge	7 65,12 25,000
Total route mileage	31,218
Return on capital outlay	4 36

State versus Company Management—
The relative advantages and disadvantages of State and Company management of the railways owned by Government which comprise the great bulk of the railway mileage in India have been the subject of discussion in official circles and the public press for many years. In India the question is complicated by the fact that the more important companies have not in recent years been the owners of the railways which they

manage and the headquarters of their boards are in London. The subject was one, perhaps the most important, of the terms of reference of the Acworth Railway Committee. That Committee was unfortunately unable to make a unanimous recommendation on this point, their members being equally divided in favour of State management and Company management. They were, however, unanimous in recommending that the present system of management by Boards of Directors in London should not be extended beyond the terms of the existing contracts and this recommendation has met with general public acceptance. During the year 1922-23, the question was again referred to certain Local Governments and public bodies and opinions collected and discussed. The approaching termination of the East Indian Railway contract on 31st December 1924 and of that of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 30th June 1925 rendered an early decision on this question imperative. When the question was debated in the Legislative Assembly in February 1923, the non-official Indian Members were almost unani-

monly in favour of State management and indeed were able to carry a resolution recommending the placing of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway under State management at the close of their present contracts. The Government of India, however, expressed themselves as being so convinced by the almost universal failure of this method in other countries that they proposed, while accepting the necessity for taking over the management of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to continue their efforts to devise a satisfactory form of Company domiciled in India to take these railways over eventually on a basis of real Company management. There have been certain definite advantages during a transition period in having a central authority with necessary powers to co-ordinate the work on railways and that the results have been satisfactory are borne out by the fact that Indian railways have contributed 42 million pounds to General Revenues during 1927-28 and nearly 4 million pounds during 1928-29 in addition to paying in 3½ million and 1½ million pounds respectively during these two years to the Railway Reserve Fund. The future organisation will however need careful organisation. Experience in other countries has shown that difficulties arise in a Government fully responsible to the Legislature or under any constitution which imposed on the Railway Department the necessary restrictions which must apply as between ordinary departments of the State. The solution found in other countries such as Germany, Canada, Belgium, Austria and elsewhere where State ownership has been on the State the obligation to manage its own railways, has been to create by a statute an authority charged with the management of the State Railway property with statutory prescription of the objects to be aimed at in such management and statutory division of railway profits between the State and the Railway Authority. This authority may take the form of a company as in Canada and in Germany or follow the simpler lines of a statutory commission. On 1st January 1925 the East Indian Railway was amalgamated with the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway and brought under direct State Management while on 1st July 1925 the Great Indian Peninsula Railway followed suit. The Nadi Jubulpore Section of the East Indian Railway was transferred to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 1st October 1925.

On January 1st 1929 the contract with the Burma Railways Company was terminated and the management taken over by the State. The purchase of this railway has entailed the payment to the Burma Railways Company of the sum of three millions sterling being the share capital originally contributed by the Company. The financial effort of taking over the line is estimated to be an increase of about half a crore of rupees in the net annual revenue to Government.

The purchase of the Southern Punjab Railway of an aggregate length of about 927 miles worked by the North Western Railway was effected on the 1st January 1930. It is estimated that the financial result of the purchase which cost approximately Rs. 702 lakhs will be a gain to Government of about Rs. 47 lakhs a year.

At the end of 1929-30 the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railways system which was the property of the company, was acquired and its management taken over by His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Government and is now known as His Exalted Highness the Nizam's State Railway.

Separation of the Railway from the General Finances.—The question of the separation of the railway from the general finances has been under consideration for some time and as a result of the recommendations of the Acworth Committee in 1921 the question was further examined by the Railway Finance Committee and the Legislative Assembly but it was decided to postpone a definite decision for the present.

The question was examined afresh in connection with the recommendation of the Bretschmidt Committee in 1923, that the railways in India should be so worked as to yield an average return of at least 5½ per cent on the capital at charge and it was decided that a suitable time had arrived when this separation could be carried out. A resolution was accordingly introduced in the Assembly on the 3rd March 1924, recommending to the Governor-General in Council, — that in order to relieve the general budget from the violent fluctuations caused by the incorporation therein of the railway estimates and to enable the railway to carry out a continuous railway policy based on the necessity of making a definite return over a period of years to the State on the Capital expended on railways —

(1) The railway finances shall be separated from the general finances of the country and the general revenues shall receive a definite annual contribution from railways which shall be the first charge on railway earnings.

(2) The contribution shall be a sum equal to five-sixths of 1 per cent on the capital at charge of the railways (excluding capital contributed by Companies and Indian States and Capital expenditure on strategic Railways) at the end of the penultimate financial year plus one-fifth of any surplus profits remaining after payment of this fixed return, subject to the condition that if any year railway revenues are insufficient to provide the percentage of five-sixths of 1 per cent on the capital at charge surplus profits in the next or subsequent years, will not be deemed to have accrued for purposes of division until such deficiency has been made good. From the contribution so fixed will be deducted the loss in working, and the interest on capital expenditure on strategic lines.

(3) Any surplus profits that exist after payment of these charges shall be available for the Railway administration to be utilised in

(a) forming reserves for

(i) equalising dividends, that is to say, of securing the payment of the percentage contribution to the general revenues in lean years,

(ii) depreciation,

(iii) writing down and writing off capital

(b) the improvement of services rendered to the public,

(c) the reduction of rates.

(4) The railway administration shall be entitled, subject to such conditions as may be prescribed by the Government of India, to borrow temporarily from capital or from the reserves for the purpose of meeting expenditure for which there is no provision or insufficient provision in the revenue budget subject to the obligation to make repayment of borrowings out of the revenue budgets of subsequent years.

(b) In accordance with present practice the figures of gross receipts and expenditure of railways will be included in the Budget Statement. The proposed expenditure will as at present be placed before the Legislative Assembly in the form of a demand for grants and on a separate day or days among the days allotted for the discussion of the demands for grants the Member in charge of the Railways will make a general statement on railway accounts and working. Any reductions in the demand for grants for railways resulting from the votes of the Legislative Assembly will not ensure to general revenues L.A., will not have the effect of increasing the fixed contribution for the year.

(c) The Railway Department will place the estimate of railway expenditure before the Central Advisory Council on some date prior to the date for the discussion of the demand for grants for railways.

When introducing this resolution the Hon ble Member for Commerce stated that it had been represented to him that there was a general feeling in the House that before the House was asked to commit itself to those proposals it should be allowed to refer them to a committee of the House. He further stated that he had no objection to this course provided that the committee met rapidly. This was agreed to and members were appointed.

The committee met twice and considered the resolution but was not able within the time allowed to satisfy itself fully as to the effect of the proposals in the resolution on the control of the Assembly over railway finance and policy and as to the amount and form of contribution to be paid by the railways to general revenues. In the circumstances, the committee recommended that the consideration of the resolution be adjourned till the autumn session to allow the committee further time for examination. Government raised no objection to this proposal and it was agreed to by the Assembly.

The resolution was further examined by the Standing Finance Committee in September and as a result of the views expressed by the committee and in the Assembly certain modifications were introduced. The final resolution agreed to by the Assembly on September 20th, 1924, and accepted by Government differed from the original resolution in that the yearly contribution had been placed at 1 per cent. instead of 5/6th per cent on the capital at charge and if the surplus remaining after this payment to General Revenues should exceed 3 crores, only 1/3rd of the excess over 3 crores were to be transferred to the Railway Reserve and the remaining 2/3rd was to accrue to General Revenues. At the same time a Standing Finance Committee for Railways was to be constituted to examine the estimate of railways expenditure and the demand for grants, the programme revenue expenditure being shown under a deprecia-

tion fund. This committee was to consist of one nominated official member of the Legislative Assembly as Chairman and 11 members elected by the Legislative Assembly from that body. This would be in addition to the Central Advisory Council which will include the Members of the Standing Finance Committee and certain other official and non-official members from the Legislative Assembly and Council of State. These arrangements were to be subject to periodic revision but to be provisionally tried for at least 3 years. They would, however, only hold good as long as the E. I. Railway and the G. I. P. Railway and existing State Managed Railways remain under State management and if any contract for the transfer of any of the above to Company management was concluded against the advice of the Assembly, the Assembly would be at liberty to terminate the arrangements in this resolution.

The Assembly in an addendum recommended that the railway services and the Railway Board should be rapidly Indianised and that the stores for the State Managed Railways should be purchased through the organisation of the Indian Stores Department.

Re organisation problems.—The growing complexity of railway administration in India and the evolution of new methods of controlling traffic have given a stimulus to the efforts of various railways to revise their organisations. The general direction in which this re-organisation is being considered is that of consolidation into one department of the operating or transportation work of the railway, including the provision of power. This system which is commonly known as the divisional system, was first adopted on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during 1922-23 and entailed—

(a) the separation of the commercial and operative duties of the Traffic Department,

(b) the separation of the mechanical and running duties of the Locomotive Department,

(c) the fusion of the operative duties of the Traffic Department with the running duties of the Locomotive Department.

Under the new organisation there is now—

(1) a Chief Transportation Superintendent in charge of all operating functions,

(2) a Chief Traffic Manager in charge of the commercial side of the railway,

(3) a Chief Mechanical Engineer in charge of the design and construction of rolling stock and of all repairs and renewals of rolling stock carried out in the central workshops.

This organisation is more or less similar to the divisional organisation found on most American Railways with the exception that the Engineering Department works on a departmental basis. This, however has been changed and the maintenance of Way and Works has been brought into the divisional organisation while new construction remains outside.

A somewhat similar organisation was introduced on the North Western Railway from 1st October 1924, except that it follows rather the organisation in force on the South African Railways where the railways are divided into a number of areas or divisions each under one

chief officer and all reporting to the General Manager who is assisted by a number of principal officers in charge of definite phases of the working. A similar organisation was also introduced on the East Indian and Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways early in 1925.

Investigation into the present form of Railway Accounts—The investigation by Sir Arthur Dickinson into the system of accounts followed on Indian railways, was completed in March 1927 and his report submitted in August 1927. It has been found possible to adopt certain of his proposals and further investigations are being carried out concerning some of the others.

Standing Finance Committee for Railways—The Committee met 12 times in 1929-30 and besides scrutinising the capital programmes of railways and discussing the budget proposals for 1930-31 they considered various proposals affecting railway staff including the revision of rates, the reorganisation of certain departments and the creation of a number of superior appointments. They devoted considerable attention to the proposed improvements in the conditions of service of railway servants with special reference to the Hours of work (Washington) and Weekly Rest (Geneva) conventions and numerous other questions were also considered.

Central Advisory Council for Railways—During the year 1929-30 one meeting of the Central Advisory Council was held at Sholna on the 21st September 1929.

The subjects discussed were—

- (1) Railway Supply Committee report of June 1929
- (2) Publicity of the proceedings of the Central Advisory Council for Railways
- (3) Assistance from railway funds to railway employees for the education of their children
- (4) Improvement in the standard of comfort for passengers

Imperial Indian Mail—A new standard of travel in India was instituted in November 1926 by a weekly service between Bombay and Calcutta in connection with the English Mail steamers.

The Imperial Indian Mail as the train is called is the joint service of the East Indian and Great Indian Peninsula Railways. The popularity of the train has been firmly established and during the seasonal months the accommodation has been filled to capacity. The special features of this train are the provision of a parlour car a compartment for luggage wanted on journey bedding the services of an experienced conductor and staff and high class catering. The train is staffed throughout giving passengers access to all parts without the necessity of waiting for station halts. Accommodation is provided for 32 passengers in 14 two-berth and 4 single berth compartments. Seven of the two-berth compartments have two lower berths and the remainder a lower and an upper berth. The additional floor space in the latter compartments enables two easy chairs to be provided. The exterior of the Imperial Indian Mail is finished in cream and gold and the service as a whole compares favourably with the finest luxury train service provided by any railway in the world.

There are in addition many other good services on Indian Railways among which the Frontier Mail on the B. B. & C. I. and N. W. Railways is probably the best known. This train runs between Bombay and Peshawar and has reduced the time of the journey between Bombay and Delhi by over 4 hours. Generally speaking the Mail train on railways have been speeded up and the service given now compares favourably with that found in other countries taking into consideration the difficult conditions with which railways in India have to contend.

Earnings—Of the total earnings on all Railways of Rs. 110.08 crores Rs. 68.83 crores of 19.3 per cent were from goods traffic Rs. 38.58 crores or 33.2 per cent from passenger traffic and Rs. 8.67 crores or 7.5 per cent from parcels traffic and miscellaneous earnings.

Passenger Earnings—Passenger earnings showed an increase of approximately one per cent from Rs. 34.24 to Rs. 35.68 crores. The following table shows the numbers of and earnings from passengers separately, for each class for the 4 years previous to the War and for the 5 latest years.

Year	Number of passengers carried (in thousands)				
	1st Class	2nd Class	Inter	3rd Class	Season & Vendor's tickets
1910	686	2,784	10,702	315,539	24,341
1911	703	2,947	11,408	331,055	25,687
1912	700	3,090	10,508	340,789	26,810
1913-14	715	3,253	12,000	390,412	30,111
1925-26 †	1,033	9,901	18,602	574,808	
1926-27 †	1,012	10,008	14,945	578,409	
1927-28 †	980	9,963	17,351	604,321	
1928-29 †	913	9,585	17,870	691,749	
1929-30 †	804	9,125	17,900	606,468	

Year	Earnings from passengers (in thousands of rupees)				
	1st Class	2nd Class	Inter	3rd Class	Season & Vendor's tickets
	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
1910	58.82	77.23	94.99	14.65	15.85
1911	66.35	83.83	108.88	15.78	16.85
1912	62.90	83.31	91.37	17.01	17.55
1913-14	68.91	88.70	103.48	18.37	19.36
1925-26 †	120.42	139.42	159.61	34.70	45
1926-27 †	117.76	138.27	161.79	31.43	47
1927-28 †	113.71	135.67	169.42	34.39	25
1928-29 †	112.25	131.89	166.43	33.53	82
1929-30 †	101.45	131.10	158.96	31.11	16

† The number of season and vendor tickets and their earnings have been included under the respective classes the former at the rate of 50 single journeys per month

Rates Advisory Committee

The Rates Advisory Committee was constituted in 1926 to investigate and make recommendations to Government on the following subjects —

- (1) Complaints of undue preference,
- (2) Complaints that rates are unreasonable in themselves
- (3) Complaints or disputes in respect of terminals
- (4) The reasonableness or otherwise of any conditions as to the packing of articles specially liable to damage in transit or liable to cause damage to other merchandise
- (5) Complaints in respect of conditions as to packing attached to a rate
- (6) Complaints that Railways do not fulfil their obligations to provide reasonable facilities under Section 42 (3) of the Indian Railways Act

The Committee reported on the following nine cases that had been referred to them during 1929-30 —

- (i) Complaint from Messrs. Chaturvedi Jamma Prasad & Co. Jaunpur in regard to the rates charged for biddy leaves over the Bengal Nagpur Great Indian Peninsula and East Indian Railways from Birjampur to Jaunpur.
- (ii) Complaint from Messrs. Sheo Dayal Ramji Das, Jaunpur against the East Indian Railway in connection with the rates for salt from via Cawnore to certain stations which it was alleged, were on a higher basis than the corresponding rates on another line

- (iii) Complaint from the Sri Ranga Vilas Ginning Weaving and Spinning Mills (Bombay) regarding the rate charged for yarn from Colimatore to Shalimar over the South Indian Madras and Southern Mahratta and Bengal Nagpur Railways which it was alleged constituted preferential treatment owing to a lower rate being charged for similar traffic from Madras to Shalimar.
- (iv) Complaint from the proprietors of a rice mill at Chakula regarding the alleged high rates charged over the Bengal Nagpur Railway for rice and paddy to and from Chakula.
- (v) Complaint from the (all India) Chamber of Commerce against the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway for not allowing for raw materials for the manufacture of manure the same rates as were being allowed on the South Indian Railway.
- (vi) Complaint from the Kalyanpur Line Works Calcutta regarding the alleged unreasonableness of rates over the East Indian Railway for lime from Dabul-on-Sou to Howrah and certain stations on the Bengal and North Western Railway as compared with the corresponding rates from certain competing centres on the Naini Jubbulpore section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.
- (vii) Complaint from certain sugar factory proprietors at Cawnpore regarding the rates for jagree over the Bengal and North Western Railway when consigned to stations on other railways via Cawnpore the allegation being that the rates were unduly high

(viii) Complaint from certain fruit dealers in Calcutta regarding the minimum weight condition applicable for a rate quoted by the East Indian Railway for mangoes from via Mokameh Ghat to Howrah being too high to enable them to take advantage of the rate

Of these eight cases the last mentioned was compromised when it came up for hearing before the committee. The first five were reported on by the committee during the year under review and the recommendations made by them, which were all in favour of the railway administrations concerned, were accepted by Government. The committee also reported on two other cases which had been referred to them during the previous year. These were —

(a) Complaint from a dealer in marble regarding the high rates charged from Bombay to stations on the South Indian Railway over the Great Indian Peninsula, Madras and Southern Mahratta and South Indian Railways

(ii) Complaint from the Burhanpur Tapti Mill regarding the rate for piecegoods from Burhanpur to Calcutta being higher than from Bombay to Calcutta which it was alleged constituted preferential treatment

The recommendations of the Committee in both these cases in the first in favour of the complainant and in the second in favour of the railways concerned were accepted by Government

At the close of the year the committee had under investigation two out of the eight cases referred to them during the year and one dealing with the question of the levy by the Assam Bengal Railway of terminal charges on loose jute which had been referred to them in October 1928. The enquiry in this latter case has been prolonged owing to the necessity for compiling detailed statistics showing the earnings from terminal charges and the expenditure on terminal facilities

Inauguration of the Main Line Electric Service, G. I. P. Railway

The inauguration of the newly electrified main line section of the G. I. P. Railway from Kalvan to Poona which was performed by H. P. Sir Frederick K. Key, Governor of Bombay on Tuesday 5th November 1929, constituted the first entirely main line length of track to be electrified in India and connected with the electrification scheme is that of the elimination of the Rhore Ghat Reversing Station. The problem of eliminating the Reversing Station has been seriously considered on several occasions in the past but it was not until 1923 when electrification had been definitely decided upon, that final survey operations became imperative

Apart from the location of the realignment which called for the adoption of methods unusual in ordinary survey practice, the work involved in the construction of this double line broad gauge section of railway was of considerable magnitude chiefly in the form of heavy tunnel construction

There are three tunnels in all aggregating 4,598 feet or 87 of a mile. The longest of these is 3,100 feet built throughout on a curve of the sharpest radius which occurs in these ghats. Allowing for curvature and the considerably increased spacing of tracks necessitated by the adoption of the latest standard dimensions, a tunnel section of 34 feet 6 inches wide and 24 feet 6 inches high was worked upon. This is considered to be the largest tunnel section in the world

The steam trains to Poona took approximately 6 hours for the journey and it is anticipated that with electric traction this timing will be now reduced to approximately 3 hours

With the opening of the electrified section between Kalvan and Igatpuri in October 1930 it is believed that the G. I. P. Railway has the greatest length of electrified main line in the British Empire and the entire scheme will be one of the most important main line electrifications in the world

Publicity.

The year 1929-30 marked a very considerable advance in the Publicity activities of the Indian railways. The Central Publicity Bureau of the Railway Board was inaugurated on 1st April 1927 a Chief Publicity Officer was appointed and provided with an Assistant and a small clerical staff. The office was located in Victoria Terminus Bombay it being felt that to commence with, Bombay's position as the main port of arrival in India, closer touch could be kept with travellers and further more Bombay presented certain distinct advantages from the point of view of printing facilities, etc.

The first three months were spent in organising and in working out schemes for the development of existing Publicity business and in formulating a programme for progress in new fields. Among some of the principal lines upon which it was decided to concentrate attention are —

- Cinema film production and display
- Poster production and display
- Pamphlet production and display
- Publication of an *Indian State Railways Magazine*,
- Demonstration Trains
- Upper and Lower class special excursion trains,
- Press propaganda in India
- Press propaganda in Europe America and other parts of the world
- Reciprocal publicity with the leading rail ways of the world

One of the most important of these activities is undoubtedly the cinema film production and display as much of this is directed towards encouraging primary industries and the welfare of agriculturists and villagers. It must be remembered in this connection that owing to the very large proportion of illiterates in India the cinema is the outstanding method of conveying information to the masses. Each State Railway is provided with a travelling cinema projection outfit which moves continuously from place to place over the different systems and by this means the propaganda films issued from the Central Publicity Bureau are widely circulated. That these displays which are free are fully appreciated

is proved by the patronage accorded to them. The work in this branch of the Publicity work has so increased that it was found necessary to appoint two officers specially for the work and in order to improve the standard a specialist film officer was recruited from England on a three years contract at the end of 1929. It is proposed to train suitable Indians in this work.

The necessity for economy however due to the decrease in earnings on railways during 1930-31 has necessitated the carrying on of film production with one officer only from November 1930 and the temporary closing down of the running of cinema was on State Managed Railways from February 1931.

A large number of posters by leading artists has been prepared for display in India and in the principal countries of the world focussing attention on the attraction which India has to offer to travellers and tourists.

Following up these posters many attractive pamphlets have been written by first class journalists and are now available in the leading Information and Travel Bureaux in India, Europe, America and other countries.

The production of the *Indian State Railways Magazine* commenced in the month of October 1927, and from the outset proved extremely popular. This publication is intended to be partly a publicity medium and partly to encourage the railwaymen of India to take a wider outlook on railway and general affairs. It contains a variety of articles on travel, archaeology, shikhar transportation, welfare fiction and natural history.

Upper and third class conducted tours and bazar specials have been run by several of the railways with considerable success and the extension of these is contemplated in the near future.

Shortly after the inauguration of the Central Publicity Bureau, the need was felt for a representative in England to give information and advice to potential travellers and to handle enquiries arising out of the advertising campaign which it was decided to carry out. A Publicity Officer was appointed and temporary offices secured in London in which an Indian State Railways Bureau was opened. It was soon found that separate permanent offices were required and these have now been obtained in 57 Haymarket, London, where sufficient accommodation is available to deal adequately with the many visitors who come there. With the opening of India House a Branch Office has also been provided there and this will deal more particularly with enquiries concerning Goods rates but general enquiries can also be answered there. In order to obtain an adequate share of the American tourist traffic, an Office has also been opened in New York and a Resident Manager appointed there. This office was at first temporarily in accommodation kindly provided by the Canadian Pacific Railway in their General Offices at 342, Madison Avenue New York but now has its own commodious office in an excellent site at Delhi House, 38 East 57th Street New York.

An intensive Advertising campaign in England and America every year is part of the normal

programme as it is realised that tourists bring money into the country and benefit not only the railways, but also hotel keepers, transport agencies, manufacturers of Indian silks, silver ware, curio dealers etc. and many other persons who cater for the tourist. During 1930 owing to decreased earnings and political conditions in India the advertising campaign was very considerably reduced. The decrease in the number of tourists to India during 1930-31 is one of the many ways in which India has suffered from the civil disobedience campaign organised by the Congress.

Capital Expenditure—The outlay during the year 1928-29 was Rs. 27.53 crores of which Rs. 25.41 crores represented expenditure incurred on State-owned lines.

Considerable progress has been made with the programme of new construction. Close on 1,300 miles of new railway were opened for traffic during 1928-29 and at the close of the year there were some 2,100 miles under construction.

Trade Review—The earnings of railways are dependent on the general prosperity of the country which in the case of India is most easily measured by the agricultural position and the returns of foreign trade.

Exports—The total value of exports recorded was Rs. 311 crores which means a decline of 6 per cent on the corresponding figure for 1928-29. The outstanding feature was a decline in the exports of jute raw and manufactured. Shipments of raw jute declined from 898,000 tons (Rs. 32.35 crores) to 807,000 tons (Rs. 27.17 crores). Exports of jute manufactures also went down in value from Rs. 58.90 crores to Rs. 57.93 crores the quantity however showing an increase of 46,000 tons over 1928-29. Although the cotton crop of the year was 9 per cent below the previous crop shipments of raw cotton sprang up from 683,000 tons to 727,000 tons under the stimulus of lower prices the value of the exports falling from Rs. 65.25 crores to Rs. 65.08 crores. Exports of cotton manufactures also declined by Rs. 61 lakhs. Pieregoode exported during the year amounted to 153 million yards valued at Rs. 4.67 crores, a decline of 16 million yards in quantity and of Rs. 70 lakhs in value in comparison with the figures for 1928-29. Shipments of oils and seeds also declined from 1,928,000 tons (Rs. 29.68 crores) to 1,190,000 tons (Rs. 26.47 crores). The principal item responsible for the decline under this head was groundnuts, exports of which decreased from 788,400 tons to 714,200 tons owing to a reduction of 25 per cent in the yield of the year's harvest. Instead however it recorded an increase of 91,400 tons. Exports of grains, pulses and flour showed a gain of 210,000 tons owing mainly to an improvement in the trade in rice exports of which recovered from 1.8 million tons valued at Rs. 26.47 crores to 2.3 million tons valued at Rs. 31.51 crores. Shipments of wheat further receded during the year from 116,000 tons to 13,000 tons notwithstanding an increase of 9 per cent in the crop output of 1928-29 over that of 1927-28. Exports of iron were also on the lower side having been returned at 668,900 cwt (Rs. 6.97 crores) against 743,400 cwt (Rs. 8.64 crores) recorded in 1928-29.

Imports—The total value of imports of foreign merchandise during 1929-30 amounted to Rs 241 crores a decrease of 5 per cent on the figure for 1928-29. The chief decrease of the year were recorded under yarns and textile fabrics (Rs 6 crores) metals and manufactures thereof (Rs 3½ crores) and grain pulse and flour (Rs 5½ crores).

2 The gross revenue receipts of State owned railways decreased from Rs. 104.34 crores in 1928-29 to Rs 102.70 crores in 1929-30, while the net receipts were Rs. 84.34 by nearly Rs 3

crores, being Rs 24.524 crores against Rs. 37.518 crores in the previous year.

3 The number of passengers carried on all railways increased by about 14 millions, the average distance each passenger travelled also increasing from 85.6 miles in 1928-29 to 86.3 miles in 1929-30. The earnings from passenger traffic accordingly showed an increase of approximately one per cent or about Rs 34 lakhs. Goods traffic however showed a decrease of about 3½ million tons while the earnings decreased by Rs 2.33 crores chiefly under wheat, grain, pulse and other grains, rice, oil seeds and jute.

The tonnage of and earnings from the main commodities on Class I Railways during the last two years are shown in the table below—

Commodity	1928-29		1929-30		Increase + or Decrease in Earnings (lakhs)
	No of tons originating in millions	Rs in crores	No of tons originating in millions	Rs in crores	
(1) Fuel for public and Foreign Railways	20.10	10.10	21.46	10.22	+7
(2) Materials and Stores on Revenue account	15.47	3.17	17.94	3.12	-5
(3) Wheat	1.85	2.43	1.63	2.03	-40
(4) Rice	4.93	4.78	4.50	4.17	-31
(5) Gram and Pulse and other grains	3.37	4.30	2.75	3.53	-127
(6) Marble and stone	3.59	1.03	3.40	0.98	-5
(7) Metallic ores	2.84	1.32	3.41	1.47	+15
(8) Salt	1.49	2.00	1.47	1.98	-4
(9) Wood, unwrought	1.32	0.86	1.35	0.80	-1
(10) Sugar	0.84	1.99	0.82	2.08	+4
(11) Oilseeds	3.01	4.53	2.70	3.95	-58
(12) Cotton raw and manufactured	1.69	6.17	1.83	6.91	+74
(13) Jute Raw	1.18	1.71	1.04	1.47	-24
(14) Fodder	0.04	0.66	0.96	0.61	-5
(15) Fruits and vegetables	1.24	1.08	1.28	1.08	+3
(16) Iron and steel wrought	1.29	2.43	1.81	2.48	+3
(17) Kerosene and petrol	1.06	2.10	1.13	2.46	+36
(18) Gur, Jagree, Molasses, &c.	0.72	0.97	0.70	0.84	-3
(19) Tobacco	0.32	0.77	0.83	0.82	+5
(20) Provisions	1.00	2.39	1.17	2.89	+50
(21) Military stores	7.37	0.41	0.34	0.38	-3
(22) Railway materials	8.31	1.09	8.38	0.94	-15
(23) Live stock	0.22	0.59	0.20	0.63	-6
(24) Other commodities	9.68	11.47	9.44	10.64	-83
(25) Measures	0.15	0.12	0.18	0.14	+2
	86.99	60.12	85.96	66.68	-244

Open Mileage—The total route mileage on March 31st, 1930 was made up of—

Broad-gauge	20,508 81 miles
Metre-gauge	17 176 20 "
Narrow-gauge	4,038 72 "

Under the classification adopted for statistical purposes this mileage is divided between the three classes of railways as follows —

Class I	37,535 38
Class II	3,168 71
Class III	1 019 08

Class I includes all the 5-6" gauge mileage, 14,869 miles or 87 per cent. of the metre gauge, and 2 158 or 53 per cent of the narrow gauge.

The State owned 31,218 miles or about 75 per cent and directly managed 18,689 miles or about 45 per cent of the total mileage open at the end of the year

During the year 1929-30 812 miles of new lines were opened for public traffic. Of this mileage 797 miles belong to Class I and 15 miles to Class II Railways.

Additions to Equipment—During 1929-30 a considerable number of old carriages were replaced during the year by new carriages of larger seating capacity with the result that

there was an increase in third class accommodation of 51 813 on the broad gauge and 3 571 in the metre gauge making a total increase of 54 884. There was a decrease in goods wagons of 888 on the broad-gauge but an increase of 1,119 on the metre-gauge.

The following table shows total figures of seating accommodation under the four classes —

Class I Railways	Number of seats in passenger carriages.			
	1st	2nd	3rd	Fourth
5-6"	23,312	38,130	65,697	676,872
3-3½"	10,498	13,961	11,662	368,237

Financial Results of Working—The total gross earnings of all railways in India during the year 1929-30 amounted to Rs 116.08 crores as compared with 118.87 crores in 1928-29. These figures, however include railways owned by Indian States and companies for which the Government of India has no direct financial responsibility. The figures of receipts and expenditure for railways with which the Government are directly concerned are as follows —

	(Omitting 000)
	1929-30
	Rs.
Traffic receipts from Government Railways	1 02,63 33
Interest on Depreciation and Reserve Fund balances, etc.	88,03
Surplus profits from Subsidized Companies railways	35,60
Total	1 03,86,96
	Rs
Working expenses including depreciation	63,29,20
Surplus profits paid to Companies	1 07,14
Interest on Government Debt	25,93,00
Land and subsidy to Companies	5,32
Miscellaneous	48,12
Contribution at 1% on Capital charge—Commercial Lines	6 02,33
Net gain	97 95,66
Contribution at 1% on Capital charge—Surplus	5,91 31
Contribution of one-fifth of Surplus	1 18,26
Total contribution from Railway Revenues	7,80,59
Deduct loss on strategic lines	1,68,78
Net payment due from Railway to General Revenues in 1929-30	6 11 86

Financial Results of Working.

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After meeting all interest and annuity charges Government therefore received a net profit of 4 04 crores on the capital at charge of the State minus the net receipts that is the gross receipts minus the working expenses, have in recent years given the following returns —

	Per cent
1913-14	5 01
1923-24	5 24
1924-25	5 85
1925-26	5 31
1926-27	4 96
1927-28	5 30
1928-29	5 22
1929-30	4 06

Up to-date figures of the results of working of other countries are not available, but the following table compares the latest available figures of average receipts per ton mile of those countries which have published statistics of working later than 1919 —

	Receipts * per ton mile Pia
United States of America 1929	5 70
United Kingdom 1929	15 15
Japan 1927-28	7 20
Switzerland 1928	20 20

United States of America	
France	
English Railways	
South African Railways	
Argentine Railways	
Canadian Railways	

India

	Receipts * per ton mile Pia.
South Australia 1928-29	17 25
Canadian Railways 1929	5 75
India 1929-30	6 14

In the case of receipts per passenger mile the figures for United States of America and India are as follows —

United States of America 1929	14 78 pies
India 1929-30	3 28 "

while in England the present standard fare charged per mile third class is 18 pies.

From the above it will be seen that railway transportation of freight in India is one of the cheapest in the world and still more so for passenger traffic.

An examination of the latest available figures of operating ratios of foreign countries brings out results not unfavourable to Indian Railways.

Year	Operating Ratio % per cent
1930	
1921	84 15
1922	79 40
1923-29	77 80
1927	71 05
1929	81 21
1913-14	51 79
1925-26	62 69
1926-27	62 04
1927-28	61 39
1928-29	62 77
1929-30	65 02

Value of Railway Materials Purchased — The value of stores purchased by the principal Indian Railways in 1929-30 shows an increase from Rs 29 63 crores to Rs 30 06 crores. The principal increases were under Rolling Stock (Rs 366 lakhs). The value of indigenous material shows an increase from Rs 12 31 crores in 1928-29 to Rs 13 83 crores in 1929-30.

	Value of Imported materials			Value of indigenous materials	Total purchases 1929-30	Total purchases 1928-29
	Purchased direct	Purchased through Agents in India	Total imported materials			
	Rs crores.	Rs crores	Rs crores.	Rs crores	Rs crores	Rs crores.
Rolling Stock	8 05	1 23	7 24	1 43	8 67	5 25
Tools and stores	0 55	3 52	4 07	3 07	7 14	6 33
Permanent-way	1 47	0 19	0 66	4 89	5 55	7 00
Electric plant	1 22	0 00	2 12	0 04	2 16	3 64
Buildings and station materials and fencing	0 11	0 28	0 40	0 17	0 57	0 72
Bridge work	0 28	0 16	0 44	0 09	0 53	0 66
Workshop machinery	0 40	0 26	0 66	0 05	0 66	0 71
Engineer's plant	0 28	0 16	0 39	0 05	0 44	0 39
Other materials†		0 21	0 21	3 89	4 10	4 45
Total	9 51	6 92	16 23	13 83	30 06	29 63

* Converted at 4 875 = £ 1 and at Rs 1 = 15 62

† Other materials consist of coal and coke, stone, bricks, lime and ballast etc.

Output of Railway owned Collieries—The output of railway owned collieries during 1929-30 was 5,184,205 tons out of a total of 4,773,559 tons consumed on steam I. Railways.

Number of Staff—The total number of employees on Indian Railways at the end of the

year 1929-30 was 819,058 as compared with 808,433 at the end of 1928-29. The increase in route mileage during the same period was 812 miles. The following table shows the number of employees by communities on 31st March 1929 and 1930—

	Europeans	Statutory Indians				Grand Total
		Hindus	Muslims	Anglo-Indians	Other Classes	
31st March 1929	4,998	576,843	178,440	14,459	33,088	808,433
31st March 1930	4,975	580,282	182,847	14,692	36,762	819,058

Indianisation—The various Railway Companies managing State and other Railway lines have followed the lead given by Government and accepted the recommendation of the Lee Commission that the extension of existing training facilities should be pressed forward as expeditiously as possible in order that recruitment in India may be advanced as soon as practicable up to 75 per cent of the total number of vacancies in the Superior Services of the Railway concerned.

Schemes of recruitment—The Secretary of State's approval to the schemes of recruitment and training of superior officers of the State Railways in the main branches of service—(1) Civil Engineering (2) Transportation (3) Commercial and (4) Mechanical Engineering—were received and the Regulations for the recruitment of these services issued under Railway Department Resolution No. 2508-E of 13th July 1926. The Regulations were revised in form and republished during 1927-28. Regulations for the recruitment and training in India of Officers for the Electrical Engineering and Signal Engineering Departments were incorporated in the Regulations for the Mechanical Engineering and Transportation (Power) Departments.

The Board have under preparation a scheme for the recruitment and training in India of Officers for the State Railway Coal Department and also regulations for the recruitment in India of Medical Officers for State Managed Railways.

During 1929-30 there were 41 permanent appointments made in the gazetted ranks on State Managed railways of which 12 went to Europeans and 29 to Indians of whom 19 were Hindus 4 Muslims 3 Anglo-Indians and 3 of other communities. Since 1925 the Indian element in the gazetted ranks has increased from 28.02 per cent on State-managed and 17.74 per cent on Company managed railways to 37.01 per cent on State-managed and 29.87 per cent on Company managed railways in 1930.

Public interest in the question has been maintained during the year, leading voice in the press and by interpellations in the Legislature. Considerable progress has been made with the scheme for the training of junior railway officers and of the senior subordinate staff on Indian railways. In this connection a Transportation

School was opened at Chandauli on March 2nd, 1925 as a temporary measure, as suitable buildings were available which could be adapted at small cost. Here Officers courses were held and the school also acted as an Area school for the L. I. Railway.

The foundation upon which the training scheme of Indian State Railways has been based is the Area School whose functions are—

- The training of probationers who have not yet commenced their railway service and
- The provision of periodical refresher courses for those already in the railway service certificates being granted on the results of each course.

Training will be provided for probationers in three groups—

- The Station Group, comprising telegraph signallers Assistant Station Masters and Station Masters
- The Commercial Group comprising Coaching and Goods Clerks
- The Train Staff Group comprising Guards

The courses will vary from 3 to 16 months depending on the group. The second function of the Area Schools the provision of refresher courses is intended to provide course of training for the staff at intervals of 5 years certificates being granted at the completion of the courses. It is hoped in time to ensure that no railway servant will be considered eligible for promotion to a higher post unless he holds the corresponding school certificate. The men selected for training as probationers are chosen on some railways by committees of officers on the various divisions and a central committee under the Personnel Officer at headquarters.

Above this comes the central school to carry out the same functions for Officers. The staff selected for this central school, the **Railway Staff College**, was Dehra Dun, and the College opened for its first course in January 1930. Other services like the Army, the Navy and the Air Force have their Staff colleges but Indian Railways can claim the credit for being the first to open a staff college at which Junior and Senior Officers will undergo courses of instruction in Transportation and Commercial subjects and probationer officers will receive theoretical

training sandwiched in with practical work on railways. The College is situated in an estate of some 155 acres near the Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The surroundings are well wooded and picturesque. The College building itself has a handsome facade 360 ft long, and is surrounded by a clock tower 90 ft high. The main feature in the building is the Transportation Hall which is 120 ft long by 49 ft wide and has a height of 45 ft from the floor to its arched roof. All around the floor runs a bench carrying a model railway of 2½" gauge used for demonstration purposes. This is worked electrically and has 13 stations with 19 cables fully equipped with signals and block instruments. There are sections of double and single track and in the West half of the room the lines converge into a terminal station worked by a 50 kVr cabin. Around the hall runs a gallery with alcoves sufficiently wide to house book cases and museum exhibits. Next in size to the Transportation Hall but none the less important on that account is the Locomotive Model Room. It contains a full sized wagon showing the working of the Vacuum Brake, a full sized train lighting set, a model footplate showing the driver's controls, a trolley fitted with automatic couplers, models illustrating superheating, steam distribution and lubrication and many other items of equipment too numerous to catalogue.

The rest of the building contains the Telegraph Demonstration Rooms, examination and lecture rooms, a library and meeting rooms, rooms for the instructional staff, the principals and clerks' Offices and last but by no means

least a useful little workshop where are being undertaken not only the repairs to College equipment, but also model work for State Railways Area Schools.

Behind the College building are the hostels arranged in four buildings. Each of these contains 16 units, each unit consisting of a bed sitting room and a bathroom provided with modern sanitary fittings. These four buildings are connected by pillared cloisters with a central building, which contains six mess rooms for the various communities, kitchens, two reading rooms, two billiard rooms, and a lounge.

Nor is outside recreation to be forgotten. A large area has been levelled to form a playing field, on the west side of which a pavilion is being erected. There are, in addition six tennis courts, and, at an early date it is intended to lay out a golf course.

The Area School for the North Western Railway was temporarily opened at Lyallpur but it has now moved into permanent quarters near Lahore. A temporary training school for the G. I. Railway has been established at Bina pending the provision of a permanent school at Dhond and the scheme for forming a similar school at Gomoh for the E. I. and E. B. Railways is under consideration.

Fatalities and Injuries—During 1929-30 there was an increase of 7 in the number of persons killed and an increase of 867 in the number of persons injured as compared with the figures of 1928-29. The number of passengers killed however shows a decrease of 60 and the number of passengers injured a decrease of 242.

The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under passengers, railway servants and others for 1929-30 as compared with 1928-29:—

	Killed		Injured	
	1928-29	1929-30	1928-29	1929-30
A Passengers—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling stock, permanent-way, etc.	24	6	207	69
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	390	349	1,191	1,040
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	4	3	80	17
B Servants—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling stock, permanent-way, etc.	21	33	192	174
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	341	343	1,402	1,708
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	49	62	3,180	4,014
C Others—				
(1) Accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	55	67	94	171
(2) Accidents caused by the movement of vehicles used exclusively on railways	2,448	2,481	775	774
(3) Accidents on Railway premises not due to Train accidents or to the movement of vehicles	26	21	86	87
Total	3,368	3,365	7,187	8,054

Of the total number of 3 365 persons killed 2,010 were trespassers on the line and 375 committed suicide

Local Advisory Committees.—In the Annual Reports by the Railway Board on the working of Indian Railways references are made each year to the work that is being done by Local Advisory Committees on railways in bringing to the notice of their respective railways administrations matters affecting the general public in their capacity as users of the railway. These committees have been established and are functioning on all (Class I) Railways except His Exalted Highness the Nizam's State Railways and the Jodhpur Railway. During 1929-30 the Barul Light Railway constituted an Advisory Committee for that line.

These committees constitute a valuable link between railways and their clientele. The interest taken in their work and the value attached to their influence have been reflected in the requests received from trade associations and other organisations for representation on the committees. It has not always been possible to accede to these requests as it is felt that the usefulness of the committees is likely to be impaired if their constitution becomes unwieldy. A demand for the publication of a summary showing the work done by these committees found expression particularly during the debate on the Railway Budget in February 1929 and was repeated on a similar occasion in February 1930. To meet this demand a pamphlet showing in tabulated form the subjects discussed, the recommendations of the committees accepted by the railway administration concerned with or without modifications and the recommendations which for various reasons could not be accepted in connection with meetings held during the half year ending September 1929 was published and copies distributed to members of the Imperial Legislature before the Railway Budget debate in February 1930. Since then similar pamphlets for succeeding quarters have been published and copies made available for sale at the Government of India Central Publication Branch (Calcutta).

The number of meetings of these committees held at each centre during the year was 122 as follows:—

Assam Bengal Railway	2
Barul Light Railway	1
Bengal Nagpur Railway—	
Calcutta (Bengal)	9
Patna (Bihar and Orissa)	3
Nagpur (Central Provinces)	3
Bengal and North Western Railway—	
Gorakhpur (United Provinces)	3
Muzaffarpur (Bihar and Orissa)	4
Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway	10
Burma Railways	11

Eastern Bengal Railway	8
East Indian Railway—	
Calcutta (Bengal)	10
Cawnpore and Lucknow alternatively (United Provinces)	6
Great Indian Peninsula Railway—	
Bombay	10
Nagpur (Central Provinces)	4
Cawnpore (United Provinces)	3
Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway—	
Madras	5
Mylapore (Deccan and Southern Mahratta)	8
North Western Railway—	
Lahore (Punjab)	12
Karachi (Sind)	4
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	2
South Indian Railway	4

A perusal of the index of the pamphlets referred to above which are now being published quarterly indicates the wide variety of subjects dealt with by Local Advisory Committees, some of which may be specially mentioned supplementing the list given in the reports for previous years:—

Advertising railway facilities in the vernacular press
Prevention of the beggar nuisance at stations
Opening of book stalls
Detention to traffic on level crossings
Accommodation for trunk passengers
Facilities for unloading goods traffic
Provision of train indicators
Arrangements for the Kumbh Mela in January 1930
Lighting road bridges over bridges and waiting halls
Arrangements for weighing of passengers' luggage
Improvement in over bridges
Opening of out-stations
Display of porters' tariffs
Provision of warning bells in Indian refreshment rooms
Refining rooms at stations
Provision of servants' compartments in upper class stock
Changes in names of stations
Stoppage of fast trains at small stations
Issue of platform tickets
Improvement in design of coaching stock
Shortage of wagons
Provision of special coaches for vendors of fruit and vegetables

THE CHIEF RAILWAYS IN INDIA

The Assam Bengal Railway, which is constructed on the metre gauge, starts from Chittising and runs through Burma Valley across the North Cachar Hills into Assam. It is worked under a limited guarantee by a company.

Mileage open	1,270
Capital at charge	Rs 25,03,93,000
Net earnings	Rs. 79,59,000
Earnings per cent	3.18

Bengal and North Western.

The Bengal and North-Western Railway was constructed on the metre gauge system by a company without any Government assistance other than free land and was opened to traffic in 1885. The system was begun in 1874 as the Tichut State Railway. In 1880 this line was leased by Government to the Bengal and North Western Railway. Since then extensive additions have been made in both sections. It is connected with the Rajputana metre gauge system at Cawnpore and with the Eastern Bengal State Railway at Khatiba and the East Indian Railway at Beahar and Mokameh Ghat.

Mileage open	2,077
Capital at charge	Rs 20,91,97,000
Net earnings	Rs 2,05,46,000
Earnings per cent	9.52

Bengal Nagpur

The Bengal Nagpur Railway was commenced as a metre gauge from Nagpur to Chhatia garh in the Central Provinces in 1887. A company was formed under a guarantee which took over the line, converted it to the broad gauge and extended it to Howrah Cuttack and Katni. In 1901 a part of the East Coast State Railway from Cuttack to Vizagapatnam was transferred to it and in the same year sanction was given for an extension to the coal fields and for a connection with the Branch of the East Indian Railway at Barilharpur.

Mileage open	3,256
Capital at charge	Rs. 74,61,00,000
Net earnings	Rs. 1,50,10,000
Earnings per cent.	2.01

Bombay Baroda

The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway is one of the original guaranteed railways. It was commenced from Surat via Baroda to Ahmedabad, but was subsequently extended to Bombay. The original contract was terminable in 1880, but the period was extended to 1906 and then renewed under revised conditions. In 1885 the Rajputana Malwa metre gauge system of State railways was leased to the Company and has since been incorporated in it. On the opening of the Nagda Muttra, giving broad gauge connection through Eastern Rajputana with Delhi the working was entrusted to this Company. On the acquisition of the Company in April 1907 the purchase price was fixed at £11,685,581.

Mileage open	3,898
Capital at charge	Rs. 76,82,54,000
Net earnings	Rs. 4,88,32,000
Earnings per cent	6.36

Burma Railways

The Burma Railway is an isolated line, and although various routes have been surveyed there is little prospect of its being connected with the Railway system of India in the near future. In reply to a question in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1919 Sir Arthur Anderson said—During 1914 15 extensive survey operations were carried out to ascertain the best alignment for a railway connection along the coast route between Chittagong and certain stations on the Burma Railways south of Mandalay. A rival route via the Hukon Valley between the northern section of the Assam-Bengal Railway and the section of the Burma Railways north of Mandalay was to have been surveyed during the following year but was postponed because of the war. It is now proposed to commence this survey during the coming cold weather, and on its completion Government will have sufficient information to enable them to decide which route shall be adopted. Thus no arrangements for the construction of a line have yet been made nor has any concession been granted, but it is probable that the line selected will be built at the cost of Government and worked by one or other of the main lines which it will connect. It was commenced as a State Railway and transferred in 1898 to a Company under a guarantee. From January 1st 1923, its working has been taken over by the State.

Mileage open	2,046
Capital at charge	Rs 34,75,53,000
Net earnings	Rs. 1,80,39,000
Earnings per cent	5.18

Eastern Bengal

The Eastern Bengal State Railway was promoted under the original form of guarantee and was constructed on the broad gauge. The first portion of the line running to Calcutta over the Ganges was opened in 1862. In 1874 sanction was granted for the construction on the metre gauge of the Northern Bengal State Railway which ran from the north bank of the Ganges to the foot of the Himalayas on the way to Darjeeling. These two portions of the line were amalgamated in 1884 into one State Railway.

Mileage open	1,895
Capital at charge	Rs 51,08,51,000
Net earnings	Rs. 2,13,94,000
Earnings per cent	4.19

East Indian

The East Indian Railway is one of the three railways sanctioned for construction as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. The first section from Howrah to Pandua was opened in 1854 and at the time of the Mutiny ran as far as Ramganj. It gives the only direct access to the port of Calcutta from North India and is consequently fed by all the large railway systems connected with it. In 1880 the Government purchased the line, paying the shareholders by annuities, but leased it again to the company to work under a contract which was terminable in 1919.

The contract was not terminated until January 1st 1925, when the State took over the management. From July 1st, 1925 the Oudh & Rohilkhand railway was amalgamated with it.

Mileage open	4,220
Capital at charge	Rs 1,44,38,04,000
Net earnings	Rs. 7,32,86,000
Earnings per cent	5.08

Great Indian Peninsula

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway is the earliest line undertaken in India. It was promoted by a Company under a guarantee of 5 per cent, and the first section from Bombay to Thana was open for traffic in 1853. Sanction was given for the extension of this line via Poona to Raichur, where it connects with the Madras Railway, and to Jubbulpore where it meets the East Indian Railway. The features of the line is the passage of the Western Ghats, these sections being 184 miles on the Bhor Ghat and 91 miles on the Thal Ghat which rise 1,131 and 978 feet. In 1900, the contract with the Government terminated and under an arrangement with the Indian Midland Railway that line was amalgamated and leased to a Company to work.

The contract was terminated on June 30th 1925 when the State took over the management.

Mileage open	3,701
Capital at charge	Rs. 1,10,02,62,000
Net earnings	Rs. 44,78,000
Earnings per cent.	3.78

Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway

The Madras Railway was the third of the original railways constructed as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. It was projected to run in a north-westerly direction in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and in a south westerly direction to Calicut. On the expiry of the contract in 1907 the line was amalgamated with the Southern Mahratta Railway Company a system on the metre gauge built to meet the famine conditions in the Southern Mahratta Country and released to a large Company called the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company.

Mileage open	3,229
Capital at charge	Rs. 61,19,43,000
Net earnings	Rs. 4,42,60,000
Earnings per cent.	7.28

The North-Western

The North-Western State Railway began its existence at the Sind-Punjab Delhi Railway, which was promoted by a Company under the original form of guarantee and extended to Delhi, Multan and Lahore and from Barschi to Kotli. The interval between Kotli and Multan was unbridged and the railway traffic was exchanged by a ferry service. In 1873

72 sanction was given for the connection of this by the Indus Valley State Railways and at the same time the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore towards Peshawar was begun. In 1886 the Sind Punjab Delhi Railway was acquired by the State and amalgamated with these two railways under the name of the North Western State Railway. It is the longest railway in India under one administration.

Mileage open	6,827
Capital at charge	Rs. 1,50,16,77,000
Net earnings	Rs. 4,18,00,000
Earnings per cent	2.79

Oudh and Rohilkhand

Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was another of the lines constructed under the original form of guarantee. It began from the north bank of the Ganges running through Rohilkhand as far as Saharanpur where it joins the North Western State Railway. It was not until 1887 that the bridge over the Ganges was completed and connected with the East Indian Railway. To effect a connection between the metre gauge systems to the North and those to the South of the Ganges a third rail was laid between Bhurwal and Cawnpore. The company's contract expired in 1889 when the Railway was purchased by the State and has since been worked as a State Railway.

The working of this railway was amalgamated with that of the East Indian Railway from its July 1925.

The South Indian

The South Indian Railway was one of the original guaranteed railways. It was begun by the Great Southern India Railway Company as a broad-gauge line, but was converted after the seventies to the metre-gauge. This line has been extended and now serves the whole of the Southern India south of the south west line of the Madras Railway. Between Tuticorin and Ceylon a ferry service was formerly maintained, but a new and more direct route to Ceylon via Rameshwaram was opened at the beginning of 1914. As the original contract ended in 1907, a new contract was entered upon with the Company on the 1st of January 1908.

Mileage open	2,347
Capital at charge	Rs. 40,41,62,000
Net earnings	Rs. 2,70,36,000
Earnings per cent	6.69

The Indian States.

The principal Indian State Railways are the Nizams constructed by a company under a guarantee from the Hyderabad State the Kathiawar system of railways, constructed by subscriptions among the several Chiefs in Kathiawar the Jodhpur and Bikaner Railways constructed by the Jodhpur and Bikaner Chiefs, the system of railways in the Punjab, constructed by the Patiala, Jind, Maler Kotla and Kashmir Chiefs, and the railways in Mysore, constructed by the Mysore State.

PROGRAMME OF FUTURE CONSTRUCTION

At the end of the financial year 1929-30 a total of 1257.67 miles of new lines was under construction, distributed as follows —

	Miles
5' 6" gauge	730.77
3' 6" gauge	457.51
2' 6" gauge	69.29

During 1929-30 sanction was accorded to the construction of new lines totalling 237.77 miles

	Miles
5' 6" gauge	93.00
3' 6" gauge	115.17
2' 6" gauge	19.00

Lines under Construction

Of the total of 1257.67 miles of lines of various gauges under construction at the end of the year a brief account of some of the more important is given below. Owing to lack of funds however much of the work has had to be held in abeyance or slowed down.

Raipur Vizianagram Railway

This trunk line on the 5' 6" gauge 261 miles in length passes through a large undeveloped area and will provide direct communication between the Central Provinces and the new Harbour now under construction at Vizianagram on the east coast. The section of the line from Vizianagram to Parvatipuram 48 miles long was completed and opened to traffic in 1924 and another section of 62 miles from Raipur end in November 1929.

Work at the northern and southern ends is progressing well but on the middle portion sickness and delay in obtaining possession of land have impeded progress. The line will be opened by sections as they are ready, but it is not expected that the whole line will be opened throughout till 1933.

The following lengths were opened during 1929-30 —

	Miles
Parvatipuram Jemadepeta	19.75
Raipur Jhounk	8.47
Jhounk Harishankar	2.51

Good progress was made on the Vizianagram Harbour construction during the year. The suction dredger Vizianagram worked in the turning basin and at the entrance of the channel into the turning basin. The dredging of the whole of this area was completed to a depth of 30 feet below low water and that of a portion in the middle of the turning basin to a depth of 40 feet below low water. The dipper dredger was employed in dredging hard material and breaking rock in the entrance channel. The

Mudlark and 3 shore cranes dredged along the quay wall. The drag line excavator started work on the 7th November 1929 and the total amount of excavation was satisfactory. The quay wall for the three berths has been completed. Transit sheds Nos. II and III are in hand. The dry dock was completed by the end of the year. All subordinate quarters have been completed. The railway lines behind the transit shed have been laid and are in use.

In connection with the anti-malarial work the usual protective measures were taken in hand. These works were inspected on the 4th December 1929 by the delegates of the League of Nations on tour in India who expressed their satisfaction with the manner in which they are being carried out.

A revised development plan of the harbour has been approved by the Government of India and the work on the scheme is being vigorously pushed on. It is expected that the harbour will be ready to berth ships by the end of 1932.

Lucknow-Sultanpur Jaunpur (E I Railway)

The question of constructing a railway between Jaunpur and Lucknow via Sultanpur has been long under consideration. The object of the scheme is to open out the country along the Goomti river between the Oudh and Rohil khund main and loop lines. The railway will run more or less along the watershed between the Goomti and Sai Rivers and will cross a well cultivated fertile tract of country. The construction of the line which is about 142 miles long on the 5' 6" gauge was sanctioned in August 1927 and was expected to be ready by October 1931, but owing to the necessity for decreased capital expenditure the allotment for 1931-32 will only enable this line to be opened up to Sultanpur.

Kartal Kamaon (G I P Railway)

The construction of this broad-gauge branch on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway 59 miles long, was sanctioned in February 1928. It is intended to serve a fertile and well irrigated area in the Banda District of the United Provinces, and will open out the Ken Baghain Doab commanded by the Ken Canal. Construction has been temporarily deferred.

Lyalpur Chananwala (V W Ry)

The construction of the Lyalpur-Chananwala Railway on the 5' 6" gauge, was sanctioned in February 1928, and with the Chak Jhumra-Khusab line will provide a cross connection from Kundian to Chananwala which will probably be extended to Bhatinda. The line which is about 110 miles in length, will connect up the important towns of Sarogdha, Chilot, Lyalpur, Samundri, Tandianwala, Okara, Dipsalpur and Fazilka. Work however, has been temporarily suspended.

Batala-Bas (N W Railway)

The construction of this railway about 42 miles in length was sanctioned in January 1928. It will form a loop connecting Batala on the Amritsar Pathankot branch with Butari on the Amritsar-Jullundur section of the main line of the North Western Railway.

Besides touching three important places of pilgrimage it will traverse one of the most fertile tracts in the Punjab. The Batala Qadian section of twelve miles has been opened but the remainder of the work is being held in abeyance.

Decca Archa Railway

The construction of the Decca Archa Railway 44 miles long has been under consideration for some time as it will form an important link. The submission of the detailed is awaiting the result of an investigation by the Bengal Government in connection with waterways and flooding of the area in which this railway will run.

Tangla Balauri Rangapara Railway

The construction by the Eastern Bengal Railway administration of a metre gauge line 2½ miles in length from Tangla via Balauri to Rangapara was sanctioned during the year under review. The line will serve the country lying between the Brahmaputra River and the outer ranges of the Himalayas the full development of which has been retarded for want of railway communication. At present communications in this area are so poor that during the monsoon great difficulty is experienced in maintaining a proper food supply for the population. The line will provide an outlet for the produce from the large areas of Government reserved forests and from a number of tea gardens. The country is also suitable for the production of sugar cane and rice. It is anticipated that the construction of the railway will give the necessary impetus for the rapid development of the areas thrown open to settlement by immigrants from the overpopulated areas around Dacca and Myitthaingyi.

Fort Abbas Rohatwak Hotwala Section of the Bahawalpur Cholistan Railway

Sanction to the construction of this line on the North Western Railway was accorded at an estimated cost of Rs 45,09,909 in December 1924. The length of the line is 88.26 miles and the gauge 5' 6". It is expected to be opened for public traffic in March 1931. This line is in continuation of the existing Bahawalpur Fort Abbas Railway. When finally completed it will run to Khanpur with a short front Rohatwak to Hotwala. The project will be financed by the Bahawalpur Durbar from the Sukki Valley Project Loan Fund. The line is being constructed and will be worked by the North Western Railway. It passes through land which at present is a desert but which is to be irrigated by the perennial canal of the Sukki Valley Project. It has no special features being similar to other lines in the plains of the Punjab.

Bilora to Jaitara

The construction of this branch a length of 15.38 miles on the 3' 3" gauge was sanctioned in November 1929 at an estimated cost of Rs 2,98,491. The line lies entirely in Jodhpur territory and its object is the development of grass farms of the State Military Department in the vicinity of Jaitara. The line is also intended to serve local purposes and to facilitate the administrative work of the State.

The line has been financed is being constructed and will be worked by the Jodhpur Durbar as part of the Jodhpur Railway system. The Government of India have no financial interest in this Railway.

Piplod Dewgad Baria Railway to Ambada

The construction of this extension of the Piplod Dewgad Baria Railway was sanctioned at an estimated cost of Rs 1,12,68,800 in November 1929. This line which is an extension of the feeder to the main line of the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway lies entirely in the Baria State territory and its object is the development of State forests. The line is financed and is being constructed by the Baria Durbar and after construction the Durbar is prepared to hand it over for working to the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway Company which manages the existing line from Piplod to Dewgad Baria provided that the Railway Company are agreeable to work it on reasonable terms. The Government of India have no financial interest in the Railway.

Talala-I wader Dharu Railway

The construction of this branch in two sections, viz., Talala Visavadar and Visavadar Dharu a total length of 47.27 miles on the 3' 3" gauge was sanctioned in October 1929 at an estimated cost of Rs 97,93,500. The line traverses Baroda territory and Ughlis and Jecpur taluqa, the section from Talala to Visavadar lying entirely in Junagadh State. The entire line has been financed and is being constructed by the Junagadh Durbar and the Government of India have no financial interest in it.

Salem-Vriddhachalam (S I Railway)

This railway is the outcome of several proposals some dating as far back as 1909, for lines to serve the Salem and South Arcot districts. The line which is to be on the metre gauge, will be about 83 miles long and together with the Vriddhachalam Cuddalore Railway now under construction will form a cross feeder connecting Salem Junction on the broad-gauge with Cuddalore on the metre-gauge. It will also pass through fairly populous country and busy trade centres and will afford facilities for the general development of trade besides developing the well irrigated country to be traversed. It is expected to be ready about June 1931.

Minbu-Pakokku (Burma Railways)

The construction of this important metre gauge line about 312 miles in length, as part of the Burma Railways system, was sanctioned in

December 1927. It involves a wagon ferry over the Irrawaddy river connecting Patanago and Malun. The line is designed to open out a large area at present lacking in means of transportation. No work is, however, in progress at present.

Bridge over the Irrawaddy at Sanganj

The construction of a bridge over the Irrawaddy at Sanganj has been sanctioned at an estimated cost of Rs. 188 lakhs. Considerable progress with the approaches and ordering the steelwork etc. has been made during 1930.

Electrification of the Madras Suburban Section South Indian Railways

A scheme for the electrification of the suburban lines of the South Indian Railway from Madras Beach to Tamburam was sanctioned during the year 1927-28 at an estimated cost of Rs. 42 lakhs approximately. It is anticipated that the introduction of electric traction on this section will not only enable the railway administration to cope with the normal increase in traffic, but will also considerably encourage the development of suburban passenger traffic in the area.

Madras Hydro-Electric Schemes

Similarly further investigations had also to be made of the Madras Hydro-Electric projects and of the schemes for the electrification of the Madras-Trichinopoly and certain other sections of the South Indian Railway for which it is intended to obtain power from hydro-electric sources. The results of these further investigations are understood to show that the electrification of the Nilgiri Railway can only be justified at present but this question is still under consideration.

Electrification of Suburban Lines near Calcutta

With regard to the Calcutta suburban electrification schemes it was found necessary in view of the heavy expenditure involved to carry out

further investigations both as to the probable development of traffic in the suburban area and the estimated cost of the project, in order to ascertain to what extent the introduction of electric traction on the section would be justified financially.

Terminal Facilities for Passenger Traffic of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway at Bombay

The Railway Board with the approval of the Secretary of State for India have sanctioned the construction of the Bombay Baroda and Central India Railway terminal station at Bellaria Road Bombay for dealing with the long distance passenger traffic at an estimated cost of Rs. 152 lakhs (1930). Bombay Central as the new station is called was opened for traffic on December 18th 1930 by H. L. The Governor of Bombay. Colaba Station was closed from January 1931 and will be dismantled.

Calcutta Chori Railway

This line starts from a point near Dankher station on the Bardwan Howrah branch of the East Indian Railway and joins the Eastern Bengal Railway near Dain Dum Junction.

It is about 8 miles in length and includes a bridge over the Hooghly river at Bally. This connection is primarily intended for export of coal from the East Indian Railway. But it is likely in the near future to be used also for coal from the Jangal Nagpur Railway Coalfields and with the developments anticipated in the terminal arrangements at Calcutta and the electrification of the lower portion of the Eastern Bengal Railway a large proportion of the Suburban passenger traffic will eventually pass over it.

Work on the bridge over the Hooghly is making satisfactory progress during 1929-30. Practically all the sinking and construction of piers and abutments were completed by March 31 1930 and the fabrication and erection of girders has progressed rapidly during 1930.

INDIA AND CEYLON

The possibility of connecting India and Ceylon by a railway across the bank of sand extending the whole way from Rameswaram to Mannar has been reported on from time to time and since 1935 various schemes having been suggested.

The South Indian Railway having been extended to Dhanushkodi, the southernmost point of Rameswaram Island, and the Ceylon Government Railway to Talaimannar, on Mannar Island, two points distant from each other about 21 miles across a narrow and shallow strait the possibility of connecting these two terminations by a railway constructed on a solid embankment raised on the sand bank known as 'Adam's Bridge' to supersede the ferry service which has been established between these two points is one of the schemes that has been investigated.

In 1913 a detailed survey was made by the South Indian Railway Company and the project contemplates the construction of a causeway from Dhanushkodi Point on the Indian side, to Talaimannar Point on the Ceylon side, a length of 20.05 miles of which 7.19 will be upon the dry land of the various islands and 12.86 will be in water. The sections on dry land will consist of low banks of sand pitched with coral and present no difficulty. The section through the sea will be carried on a causeway which it is proposed to construct in the following way. A double row of reinforced concrete piles, pitched at 10 feet centres and having their inner faces 14 feet apart, will first be driven into the sand. These piles will then be braced together longitudinally with light concrete arches and chains and transversely with concrete tie struts and chains. Behind the piles slabs of reinforced concrete will be slipped into position, the bottom slabs being sunk well into the sand of the sea bottom. Lastly the space enclosed by the slabs will be filled in with sand.

The top of the concrete work will be carried to six feet above high water level and the rails will be laid at that level. The sinking of the piles and slabs will be done by means of water-jets. This causeway, it is expected, will cause the suspended sand brought up by the currents, to settle on either side bringing about rapid accretion and eventually making one big island of Rameswaram Island and Mannar Island.

Indo Burma Connection

The raids of the Khanden in the Bay of Bengal in 1914, and the temporary interruption of communications between India and Burma, stimulated the demand for a direct railway connection between India and Burma. Government accepted the position and appointed Mr. Richards M. Inst. C.E. to be the engineer-in-charge of the surveys to determine the best route for a railway from India to Burma. The

coast route appears to be the best one but at present would not be remunerative. This would start from Chittagong, which is the terminus and head-quarters of the Assam-Bengal Railway and a seaport for the produce of Assam. The route runs southwards through the Chittagong district, a land of fertile rice fields intersected by big rivers and tidal creeks and it crosses the Indo Burma frontier, 94 miles from the town of Chittagong. For about 180 miles further it chiefly runs through the fertile rice lands of Arakan and crosses all the big tidal rivers of the Akyab delta. These include the Kaladan river which drains 4,700 miles of country and even at a distance of about 50 miles from its mouth is more than half a mile wide. About 260 miles from Chittagong the railway would run into the region of mangrove swamps which fringe the seacoast north and south of the harbour of Kaulkphu stretching out into the mangrove swamps like ribs from the backbone. Innumerable spurs of the Arakan Yoma have to be crossed. Yoma is a mountain ridge which extends from Cape Negrais northwards until it loses itself in a mass of tangled hills east of Akyab and Chittagong. At its southern end the height of the ridge is insignificant but it has peaks as high as 4,000 feet before it reaches the altitude of Sandway and further north it rises much higher. It is a formidable obstacle to railway communication between India and Burma. This route is estimated to cost about £7,000,000 and would have to be supplemented by branch lines to Akyab when there is at present a considerable rice traffic and the cost of this would have to be added to the £7,000,000 already referred to.

The other routes examined have been the Hukong Valley route and the Manipur route which were surveyed by the late Mr. B. A. Way many years ago. The Manipur route was estimated to cost about £5,000,000 as it has to cross three main ranges of hills with summit levels of 2,650, 3,600 and 3,900 feet long. Altogether there would be about four miles of tunnelling through the three main ridges and through other hills and more than 100 miles of expensive undulating railway with gradients as steep as 1 in 50 and 11,000 feet of aggregate rise and fall. The Hukong valley route is only about 284 miles long and it presents fewer engineering difficulties than either the Coast or the Manipur route. One hundred and fifty miles of this route lie in open country capable of cultivation though at present it is only very thinly populated. Only one range of hills has to be crossed and this can be negotiated with a summit tunnel 5,000 feet long at a height of 2,600 feet. There are less than fifty miles of very heavy work and only about 4,500 feet aggregate rise and fall. The Hukong Valley route is not a practical financial proposition and both may be ruled out of consideration.

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system

	Particulars	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
1	Mileage open at close of the year miles	37,418	88,039	38,270	32,579	39,049	39,712	40,920	41,724	
2	Total Capital outlay, including ferries and suspense on open lines (in thousands of rupees)	Rs 6,97,48,07	7,17,91,02	7,33,37,38	7,54,31,52	7,88,66,66	8,22,86,25	8,81,69,80	8,56,72,95	
3	Gross earnings (in thousands of rupees)	1,05,62,19	1,07,79,06	1,14,75,20	1,13,39,21	1,19,86,66	1,16,26,19	1,19,86,52	1,16,08,14	
4	Gross earnings per net ton mile worked	27,986	28,350	29,785	29,345	28,640	29,486	29,029	27,670	
5	Gross earnings per net ton mile worked per week	538	543	578	535	549	567	557	522	
6	Gross earnings per train mile	8.69	6.79	7.01	6.99	6.93	6.55	6.86	6.08	
7	Total working expenses (in thousands of rupees)	72,99,49	68,44,77	69,86,68	71,09,05	69,70,08	72,60,06	74,61,94	75,43,61	
8	Working expenses per net ton mile worked	19,844	17,992	17,992	18,408	17,680	18,008	17,958	18,177	
9	Working expenses per train mile	4.62	4.31	4.24	4.28	4.08	4.00	3.95	3.99	
10	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	69.09	63.50	60.45	62.60	62.01	61.20	62.77	65.02	
11	Net earnings (in thousands of rupees)	32,65,70	39,34,29	45,38,52	42,30,16	42,64,08	45,66,13	44,24,86	40,59,33	
12	Net earnings per mile open	8,651	10,348	11,780	10,951	10,835	11,484	11,077	9,493	
13	Net earnings per train mile	2.07	2.46	2.72	2.61	2.50	2.65	2.41	2.09	
14	Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay (item 2)	4.68	5.46	6.19	5.61	5.41	5.56	5.32	4.74	
15	Passenger train miles (in thousands) Train miles	63,921	61,484	65,064	69,461	74,967	79,599	88,694	89,881	

* Represents figure of capital at charge

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system—*contd.*

Particulars	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27.	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
16 Goods train miles (in thousands)	38 319	67,538	80,990	57,411	57,928	59 874	† 61,436	60,200
17 Mixed train miles (in thousands)	30,342	30,221	29,661	30 836	29 717	30 884	† 30 878	31,052
18 Total, including miscellaneous train-miles (in thousands)	1,08 041	1,08,949	1,09 610	1,02,248	1,07,220	1,09 658	† 1,08,459	1,09,140
19 Unit-mileage of passengers (in thousands)	18,923,705	19 455,879	19,910,759	20 331 752	20 366 250	21 704 687	22,097 180	22 003,000
20 Freight ton-mileage of goods (in thousands)	18,373,486	18 827,878	19 268 691	19 900 019	20 374 979	21 902,232	21 889,177	21 924 037
21 Average miles a ton of goods was carried	196 8	* 223 6	* 273 4	249 2	237 4	43 9	241 0	246 4
22 Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile	6 00	6 15	6 00	6 22	6 12	6 08	6 24	6 14
Average miles a passenger was carried								
23 1st class	125 6	† 89 8	† 97 5	107 7	117 1	131 4	186 8	153 7
24 2nd class	57 4	† 35 4	† 39 0	38 0	42 0	48 1	43 4	49 0
25 Intermediate class	62 6	† 46 6	† 47 0	46 8	45 4	243 9	42 8	42 4
26 3rd class	35 2	† 33 9	† 34 1	33 4	33 7	34 2	33 1	35 8
27 Total	38 6	† 34 3	† 34 5	33 9	33 1	34 8	35 6	36 3
Average rate charged per passenger per mile								
28 1st class	22 74	† 23 4	† 22 0	20 8	19 1	17 0	17 0	16 2
29 2nd class	11 76	† 10 8	† 9 92	9 51	8 60	7 84	7 04	7 78
30 Intermediate class	6 33	† 5 12	† 4 95	4 52	4 58	4 27	4 18	4 03
31 3rd class	3 52	† 3 46	† 3 47	3 47	3 45	3 25	3 10	3 02
32 Total	3 78	† 3 75	† 3 71	3 73	3 59	3 47	3 32	3 21

* Based on tons originating.

† Based on passengers originating. Season and vendors' tickets are included under separate charges.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year

Railways	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
STATE LINES									
Aden	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Aligarh Daulat (Provincial)*	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
Alor-Y & U		14	27	27	27	49	49	†	†
Annapur-Manendragarh	869	874	874	874	874	874	874	30	40
Assam-Bengal	210	210	210	210	210	210	210	1,010	1,104
Bangalore-Harbar *								210	219
Bombay-Bombay	1,902	1,902	1,908	2,018	2,059	2,201	2,201	4,147	2,237
Bombay Extension*	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	31
Bombay, Baroda & Central India*	2,210	2,252	2,267	2,293	2,299	2,299	2,293	2,912	2,858
Bombay-Bombay	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	†	†
Bombay-Bombay	1,536	1,530	1,530	1,530	1,537	1,590	1,592	1,931	2,046
Bombay-Bombay	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	88	88
Bombay-Bombay	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	†	†
Bombay-Bombay	2,462	2,479	2,481	2,485	2,485	2,485	2,485	3,960	4,026
Bombay-Bombay	1,630	1,622	1,622	1,616	1,604	1,611	1,637	1,748	1,798
Bombay-Bombay	217	217	217	217	217	217	217	625	625
Bombay-Bombay	2,562	2,605	2,616	2,622	2,622	2,622	2,622	3,216	3,219
Bombay-Bombay	124	124	124	124	124	124	124	174	174
Bombay-Bombay	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Bombay-Bombay	60	62	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Bombay-Bombay		40	46	46	46	46	46	103	103
Bombay-Bombay								174	174

* Worked by a Company

(a) Includes 16.79 miles of mixed (3' 6" and 5' 3") gauge line between Barabanki and Barabanki and also 2.18 miles of the O & B Railway metre-gauge line at Benares.

(b) Includes Agra Delhi Chord, Baran Kotah Bhopal Harsi (a part of this line is owned by the Bhopal Durbar) and Cawnpore-Banda Railway

† Included under Burma

‡ Closed for traffic from 1st October 1928

§ Closed for traffic from 1st August 1929

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd

Railways.	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
STATE LINES—contd									
Kohat-Thal	02	02	62	62	62	62	42	42	02
Kolar Gold fields*			10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Lacknow Bareilly*	316	316	316	313	312	312	312	312	312
Madras and Southern Mahratta *	2,559	2,559	2,560	2,560	2,560	2,500	2,584	2,672	2,760
Morappur Hoar*	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72	72
Moulmein ye †			27	70	89	89	89	†	†
North Western *	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Rajput	4,084	4,076	4,075	4,075	4,101	4,432	4,525	4,535	5,517
Palampur Doon*	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
Parade-Barchi*	115	115	115	115	115	117	117	117	117
Pylamans-Tamenglong†									
Rajpur Dhamari*	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
South Indian*	1,327	1,318	1,317	1,317	1,317	1,353	1,508	1,788	1,923
Southern Shan States †	87	87	87	87	86	89	86	†	†
Travancore British section	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Tirhoot*	814	812	813	815	808	808	807	810	808
Tirapattur Krishnagiri*	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Traus Indus (Kalagh Banho)	163	162	162	162	162	162	162	162	169
Tamsar-Tirodi Light *	46	46	47	47	47	47	47	47	19
ASSISTED COMPANIES									
Amroha-Patanti	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89
Ahmadpur Katta	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32

* Worked by a Company

Worked by Company up to 31st December 1928 and taken over by State from 1st January 1929 and included under Burma

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways	1921-22.	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29.	1929-30
ASSISTED COMPANIES—contd.									
Ambikar Patti	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Arrah Basaram Light	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65
Bankura-Damodar River	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Baraset-Nasirhat Light	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Bard Light	117	117	117	118	118	118	208	208	208
Bogal and North-Western	1,248	1,248	1,250	1,251	1,270	1,270	1,270	1,269	1,270
Bengal Doars	168	168	167	157	157	156	156	156	156
Betwada Standupatam *	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Bukharpur Bihar Light	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Buxiwan Kishore	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Champaner-Sitrapur Faei Light *	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Chaparmuth Slight *	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Darjeeling Himalayan Extension	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Deoghar Jamalpurgunj *	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95
Dehri Bhojia Light	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Dhond Baranatti †	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Dibrud-Bediya	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Ellichpur-Xosmal†	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66
Fatewah Islampur	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Godhra-Lunavada *	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Hardwar-Dehra †	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Kowrah Amta Light	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Kowrah-Sheekhala Light	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44
Jacobabad Kaimor †	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	77

* Worked by a Company

† Worked by State Railway

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—miles

Railways	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30.
ASSISTED COMPANIES—contd									
Jamshangi and Deoras		66	66	66	66	66	66	66	66
Jessore-Jamshangi	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Jalandhar Doab	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	130
Jalandhar-Mukerian §§	46	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
Kailashat Fuka	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Kanabhai Lohabazar *		26	24	23	23	23	23	23	23
Kharan Regerhat §§	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Larkana-Jacobabad §§	34	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Mandra Bhuan §§	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Matheran Light §§	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
M. Ayubkhani (a)	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	71
Mirpur Khas-Jhodo	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Mirpur Khas Khadro (a)*	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Nyandeng-Bhadrat Feder *	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	101
Nedat Kapadvanj	30	30	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Nadom Jarnar §§	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35
Nadom-Bahon §§	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43	43
Nadom-Polachi *	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Nadom Arvi §§	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
Nadom and Kumson	269	269	269	269	269	269	269	269	269
Nadom-Gilgani §§	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53
Nadom (Delhi) Saharanpur Light	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
Nadom Narowal	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58
Nadom Narowal §§	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
North Bihar §§									
Southern Punjab (b)	577	579	581	581	581	581	581	581	581
Saranaghat-Salem *	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

* Worked by a Company
 † Purchased by the State and amalgamated with the North Western Railway
 (a) shown under 'Indian State Lines' Up to 1919-20
 (b) Includes Ludhiana Extension
 (c) Worked by Indian States
 ‡ This has been purchased by the State and amalgamated with the South Indian Railway
 § Amalgamated with the Jodhpur Hyderabad
 ¶ Worked by State Railway

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways.	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
ASSISTED COMPANIES—contd.									
Sutlej Valley			127	127	213	213	213	218	†
Tanore District Board	135	131	131	131	131	131	131	131	†
Tapti Valley *	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Tenali-Bepalli *	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Tespur-Ballpara	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Tiruchendur *		35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35
UNASSISTED COMPANIES									
Bengal Provincial	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Jagadhri Light	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Kabackaramnam Light	13	24	25	25	25	25	25	27	27
Ledo and Itak Margherita Colliery	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Trivellore Light	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
INDIAN STATE LINES									
Kanpur Balharath			47	52	52	52	93	145	145
Bahawalnagar-Cholistan								63	63
Madagore Chik Ballapur Light	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	89
Bhavnagar State	240	255	255	255	255	255	257	257	307

* Worked by a Company

† Purchased by the State and amalgamated with the North Western Railway

‡ Amalgamated with the South Indian Railway

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—contd.

Railways	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
INDIAN STATE LINES—contd.										
Bhopal Ujjain†	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113
Bikaner	498	498	526	568	569	601	619	699	759	799
Bilaspur	147	147	147	147	147	147	147	147	147	147
Bombay-Chota Udaipur	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23
Cooch-Belhar‡	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Cutch	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Dabholpur State	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36
Dharampur	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Gadagur's Baroda State	231	231	231	231	231	231	231	231	231	231
Gadagur's Belhara*	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106
Gondal	250	250	250	250	252	253	253	253	253	253
Gwalior Ticht †	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Haidpur (Yewantpur Mysore Frontier)	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Haidpur Branch*	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391	391
Hyderabad Godavari Valley*	192	192	192	192	192	192	192	192	192	192
Jaipur State*	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Jammu and Kashmir ‡	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Jammu	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Jammu Rajkot	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
Jind-Panipat ‡	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609	609
Jodhpur	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141	141
Jhanspur State	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
Kanpur-Chunnam ‡	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
Kanpur-Kothagudem	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64
Kanpur-Dhauri †	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Kanpur District	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79
Kodhaur*	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Ladnama-Dhuri Jakhil ‡	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79

* Worked by a Company

† Worked by State Railway Agency

‡ Worked by Indian State

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—continued

Railways.	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
INDIAN STATE LINES—continued										
Mohari Baruni	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Morri	93	93	93	93	90	90	102	102	102	102
Nivara	204	204	204	203	268	268	265	265	267	267
Prabandh Forti	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Western Karambharajapara Light	33	33	33	33	33	33	35	35	35	35
Kegda-Ujjain	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330
Nizam a Guaranteed State (b)										
Okhmandal*	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Parbhani Light*	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
Pahad-Cochin*	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
Pimpri-Deywad Paria	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Pimpri-Bilam Light	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41
Portbharat State	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39
Rajpura*	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108	108
Rajpura Bhakinda \$	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Rangli*	109	109	117	117	117	146	146	146	146	146
Secunderabad-British Frontier										
Sirhind-Bupar	65	65	64	66	66	66	66	66	66	66
Shoranur-Cochin*	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
Travancore (Indian Section)	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
Udaipur-Chittorparah										
Vikarabad Bidar										
FOREIGN LINES										
Peram-Karalkal*	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Pondicherry*	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
West of India Portuguese*										
Grand Total	37 029	37 266	37 618	38 030	38 270	38 570	39 049	39 712	40 950	

* Worked by a Company

** Included with Jodhpur Railway

(b) Although shown under Indian State Lines this is a Company's Line guaranteed by an Indian State

† Worked by State Railway Agency

† Included with Dhampur State

Mines and Minerals.

Total value of Minerals for which returns of Production are available
for the years 1928 and 1929

	1928 (£1 = Rs 13 4)	1929 (£1 = Rs 13 4)	Increase	Decrease	Variation per cent
Coal	6 004 108	6 868 591	84 485		+0.9
Petroleum	4 314 207	4 800 448	486 241		+11.3
Lead and lead-ore (a)	1 614 030	1 540 041	203 906		+12.4
Manganese-ores (b)	2 189 895	1 071 030		627 865	-28.6
Gold	1 588 252	1 542 100		46 143	-2.9
Building materials	1 110 907	1 121 082	10 125		+0.9
Salt	745 890	844 400	98 505		+13.2
Silver	802 460	802 734		89 726	-10.0
Mica (c)	609 180	784 092	80 962		+12.3
Zinc concentrates (c)	508 051	517 332		40 519	-8.2
Iron-ore	413 080	484 420	71 360		+17.3
Uran-ore	308 500	447 567	198 672		+32.0
Copper-ore and matte	372 202	481 530	111 327		+29.9
Tungsten-ore	22 804	113 198	90 839		+106.4
Saltpetre (c)	74 829	71 720		2 909	-3.9
Chromite	47 139	62 818	5 679		+9.9
Nickel spels	39 022	47 670	7 748		+19.4
Clays	31 665	40 636	8 981		+28.4
Jadeite (c)	43 468	36 280		7 188	-16.5
Ilmenite	41 507	28 602		12 955	-31.2
Antimonial lead	23 658	25 157	1 499		+6.3
Stearite	9 706	20 638	10 927		+112.6
Ruby sapphire and spinel	13 247	13 564	317		+2.4
Alcor	4 267	10 806	6 538		+153.4
Magnesite	11 989	9 640		2 329	-19.5
Gypsum	10 010	8 781		2 130	-19.5
Refractory materials	6 360	7 203	543		+13.2
Bauxite	7 064	5 899		1 630	-23.2
Others	3 953	4 090	142		+3.6
Diamonds	4 887	3 584		1 003	-20.5
Fuller's earth	1 802	1 917	65		+3.5
Monazite	1 242	1 800	558		+44.9
Barytes	1 463	1 097	234		+16.0
Asbestos	1 622	1 300		416	-25.6
Agate		507	507		+100.0
Amber	897	404		443	-49.4
Alum	412			412	-100.0
Corundum	207	804	97		+46.8
Garnet	90			90	-100.0
Graphite		87	87		+100.0
Antimony ore	769	74		695	-90.5
Soda	44	41			-9.1
Bismuth	30	28	3		+10.0
Apatite	1 081	10		1 066	-98.6
Serpentine	6	6			0.0
Borax	2	2			0.0
Copperas	1			1	-100.0
Total	21,888,528	22,421,434	1,375,436	842,530	-2.4
			-532,006		

(a) Excludes value of antimonial lead

(b) Export f.o.b. values

(c) Export values

The feature which stands out most prominently in a survey of the mineral industries of India is the fact that until recent years little has been done to develop those minerals which are essential to modern metallurgical and chemical industries, while most striking progress has been made in opening out deposits from which products are obtained suitable for export, or for consumption in the country by what may conveniently be called direct processes. In this respect India of to-day stands in contrast to the India of a century ago. The European chemist armed with cheap supplies of sulphuric acid and alkali and aided by low sea freights and increased facilities for internal distribution by the spreading network of railways has been enabled to stamp out in all but remote localities the once flourishing native manufactures of alum, the various alkaline compounds, blue vitriol, copperas, copper lead, steel and iron, and seriously to curtail the export trade in nitre and borax. The reaction against that invasion is of recent date. The

high quality of the native-made iron, the early anticipation of the processes now employed in Europe for the manufacture of high-class steels, and the artistic products in copper and brass gave the country a prominent position in the ancient metallurgical world, while as a chief source of nitre India held a position of peculiar political importance until less than forty years ago the chemical manufacturer of Europe found among his by products, cheaper and more effective compounds for the manufacture of explosives.

With the spread of railways, the development of manufactures connected with jute, cotton and paper and the gradually extended use of electricity the demand for metallurgical and chemical products in India has steadily grown. Before long the stage must be reached at which the variety and quantity of products required, but now imported, will satisfy the conditions necessary for the local production of those which can be economically manufactured only for the supply of groups of industries.

Coal

Most of the coal raised in India comes from Singareni in Hyderabad and in Central Provinces but there are a number of smaller coal fields. Outside Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the most important mines are those at another

Provincial production of Coal during the years 1928 and 1929

Province	1928	1929	Increase	Decrease
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Assam	296 089	300 510	4 420	
Baluchistan	17 031	16 222		1 709
Bengal	6 639 993	5 960 104		3 111
Bihar and Orissa	14 827 433	15 133 144	305 691	
Central India	216 750	20 133		13 618
Central Provinces	732 333	682 31	149 078	
Hyderabad	714 700	81 877	81 110	
Punjab	48 152	41 136		016
Rajputana	386	31 275	7 889	
Total	22 042 812	23 118 734	884 205	18 14

Value of Coal produced in India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Value (Rs. 13 4)		Value per ton	Value (Rs. 13 4)		Value per ton
	Rs.	£	Rs. a P.	Rs.	£	Rs. a P.
Assam	38 04,662	283 790	12 12 2	40 85 704	304 803	12 10 9
Baluchistan	1 63 906	12 236	0 10 4	1 43 010	10 075	8 13 1
Bengal	2 24 34 062	1 674 183	3 15 8	2 28 40 786	1 700 208	8 13 3
Bihar and Orissa	5 42 11,122	4 045 606	10 0 0	5 17 84 328	4,012,268	8 8 10
Central India	8 47,080	68 270	3 14 0	7 88 182	78 820	3 11 6
Central Provinces	50,81,627	220 972	4 3 4	37 07 085	276,648	4 4 3
Hyderabad (a)	34 56 648	207,884	4 11 3	35,31 253	283 520	4 5 3
Punjab	3 10 448	28 188	0 11 8	2 89 893	21 684	6 11 6
Rajputana	1 80 570	13 848	0 12 5	1 99 842	14,914	5 10 8
Total	8 84 95,027	6 604,106		8 93 59 124	6 668,591	
Average			3 14 10			8 13 6

(a) Estimated

The export statistics for coal during 1929 show a large increase of over 100,000 tons following an increase in the previous year of some 40,000 tons. The total exports of coal and coke rising from 826,713 tons to 270,610 tons, 228,1 tons of the latter being coke. The increase in exports is due chiefly to Hongkong which absorbed some 190,000 tons. As before the major portion of the exports went to Ceylon which took nearly 1,000 tons more than during the previous year. Exports to the Straits Settlements (including Malacca) showed a slight increase. On the other hand the Philippine Islands and Guam took a considerably smaller quantity than in 1928. Other countries absorbed in all 12,000 tons more.

Imports of coal and coke increased from 310,186 tons in 1928 to 218,390 tons in 1929, 14,631 tons of the latter consisted of coke. This increase is due to a rise of some 6,000 tons in the imports from South Africa balanced partly by a decrease of some 4,000 tons from each of the United Kingdom and Australia and of some 31,000 tons from Portuguese East Africa. The total imports are now less than half those of the pre-war quinquennium and the depression in the Indian coal industry which continued till nearly the end of 1928 can no longer be looked upon as attributable to the competitive effect of foreign imported coal. The average surplus of exports over imports during the years 1926 to 1929 was 1,000,000 tons, the surplus during the pre-war quinquennium.

Labour in the Coal Mining Industry

The average number of persons employed in the coalfields during 1929 showed a very slight decrease in spite of the substantial increase in production. The average output per person employed therefore again showed an advance on the previous years, the figure of 110.4 tons for 1929 rising to 111.1 tons for 1928, 122.8 tons for 1927, 120.6 tons for 1926 and 130.4 tons for 1924. The figure for the year 1929 is higher than any previously recorded and is due partly to an increased use of mechanical coal cutters and partly to concentration of work. During the past few years a large number of collieries have been shut down and the labour absorbed in the remainder, this concentration resulting in a proportional reduction in the supervising staff complement, in a larger tonnage per head. There was a decrease of 12 in the number of deaths by accident, these amounted to 2.12 which is an improvement on the annual average for the quinquennium 1920-1924 which was 2.74 and in view of the annual average for the quinquennium 1924-1928 which was 2.18. In addition it relates to a production which is over 3 million tons in excess of the average for 1920-1923 and nearly 1 million tons in excess of the average for 1924-1928. The death rate was 1.2 per thousand persons employed in 1929 against 1.3 for 1928, the average figure for the period 1910-1923 was 1.36, and for the period 1924-1928 was 1.16.

IRON ORE

Bengal and Bihar and Orissa are the only provinces in India in which iron ore is mined for smelting by European methods. Iron smelting, however, was at one time widespread in districts in India and there is hardly a district away from the great alluvial tracts of the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra in which slag heaps are not found. The primitive iron smelter finds on difficulty in obtaining sufficient supplies of ore from deposit that no European ironmaster would regard as worth his serious consideration. Early attempts to introduce European processes for the manufacture of pig iron and steel were recorded in 1830 in the South Arcot Districts. Since that date various other attempts have been made but none proved a success before that now in operation near Barakar in Bengal. The site of the Barakar Iron Works was originally chosen on account of the proximity of both coal and ore supplies. The outcrop of iron stone abates between the coal bearing Barakar and Raniganj stages stretches east and west from the works and for many years the clay ironstone nodules obtainable from this formation formed the only supply of ore used in the blast furnaces. Recently magnetite and hematite have been obtained from the Manbhum and Singhbhum districts, and the production from the last-named district has largely replaced the supplies of ore hitherto obtained near the iron works. The Bengal Iron and Steel Company, Limited, have now given up the use of ores obtained from the neighbourhood of Barakar and Raniganj and are now obtaining most of their ores from the Koilhan Estate, Singh

bhum. Some years ago the Bengal Iron Steel Co., Ltd. secured two deposits of iron-ore in Saranda (Singhbhum) forming parts of two large hill masses known as Notu Buri and Buda Buri respectively. Recent prospecting in this part of Singhbhum has led to the discovery of numerous additional deposits of iron ore, the extension of which has been traced into Keonjhar and Bonal States in Orissa, a total distance of some 40 miles in a S. & W. direction. At Panra Buri, a portion of Notu Buri, the deposit has been opened up, and now feeds the Barakar ironworks. Panra Buri rises to over 2,500 feet above sea level, the low ground on the west side being at about 1,100 feet above sea level. The uppermost 400 to 450 feet of this hill has now been opened up, and the workings indicate the existence of a deposit about a quarter of a mile long, perhaps 400 feet thick and proved on the dip for about 500 feet. The ore body appears to be interbedded with the Dharwar slates, from which it is separated by banded hematite jaspers. The ore itself is high grade micaceous hematite, often lateritized at the outcrop. Cross-cut into the interior of the deposit show that the hematite becomes very friable not far below the outcrop. In fact the characteristics of this ore, including the surface lateritization, are almost exactly reproduced in the iron-ore deposits of Goa and Ratnagiri. The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi possesses slightly richer and purer ore bodies in the Balpur District, supplies of ore are at present drawn from the deposits in Mayurbhanj. The ore-deposits have all been found to take the form of roughly

lenticular leads or bodies of hematite, with small proportions of magnetite in close association with granite on the one hand and granitic rocks on the other.

The production of iron ore in India is still steadily on the increase. India is now in fact the second largest producer in the British Empire, and yields place only to the United Kingdom. Her output is of course still dwarfed by the production in the United States (over 80 million tons) and France (over 40 million tons), her reserves of ore are however not much less than three quarters of the estimated total in the United States, and there is every hope that India will in the early future take a much more important place among the world's producers of iron ore. In 1929 there was an increase in the Indian output

over the previous year of 18.1 per cent amounting to 722,071 tons. The figures shown against the Bombay and Madras States in the following statistical table represent the production by the United Steel Corporation of Asia Ltd. and the Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ltd. respectively. Of the total production of 1,390,235 tons shown against Singhbhum 461,500 tons were produced by the Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ltd. from the Namundi mine, 327,477 tons by the Jangal Iron Co. Ltd. from their Lohardaga and Maheidi mines and 406,602 tons by the Indian Iron & Steel Co. Ltd. from their mines at the remainder. 31,637 tons were produced by another firm. The output of iron ore in Burma is by the Burma Corporation Limited and is used as a flux in steel-smelting.

Quantity and value of Iron-ore produced in India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1929			1928		
	Quantity	Value (£1 Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1 Rs 13 4)	
	Tons	Ru	£	Tons	Ru	£
Lahar and Orissa—		(n)				
Koraput	141,361	4 24 08½	71 64½	187 203	7 48 81-	55 88½
Mayurbhanj	68,149	20 30 47½	16 10 21	7,09,375	22 79 62½	179 17½
Bambalpur	21	26 1	21	21	146	11
Singhbhum	1,131 746	26 98 1.20	201 35½	1,390 24½	31 02 727	36 02
Burma—						
Mandalay	5,10	2 2 26	167			
Northern Shan States	74,254	2 97 016	22 16½	46 140	1 84 7 60	18 77½
Central Provinces and Nagore						
	914	3 07½	200	715	2 145	160
	22,024	58 84½	4 36½	44 7 6	1 1 122½	8 44½
Total	2,056 942	51 31 01.2	41 060	2,424 5 5	61 11 246	444 4.5

In contrast to 1928 there was in 1929 a rise in the output of iron and steel by the Tata Iron & Steel Co. at Jamshedpur. The production of pig iron and steel (including steel rails) rose respectively from 510,884 tons and 289,865 tons in 1928 to 722,071 tons and 410,423 tons in 1929 and of ironware from 3,231 tons in 1928 to 6,640 tons in 1929. The production of pig iron by the Jangal Iron Co. rose from 198,112 tons in 1928 to 196,080 tons in 1929, their output of products made from their pig iron in 1929 amounted to 11,151 tons of sleepers and chairs and 12,445 tons of pipes and other castings against 20,292 tons and 27,180 tons, respectively in 1928. The Indian Iron & Steel Co. increased their production of pig iron from 397,784 tons in 1928 to 451,069 tons in 1929. The output of pig iron by the Mysore Iron Works rose from 1,104 tons in 1928 to 21,432 tons in 1929. The total production of pig iron in India in 1929 was 1,891,541 tons against 1,031,844 tons in 1928.

The total number of underground furnaces that were at work in the Central Provinces during the year 1929 for the purpose of smelting iron-ore was 174 against 196 in the previous year, 95 furnaces were operating in the Bilaspur

district 59 in Mandla 11 in Deogarh 12 in Jangal 1 in Raigarh and none in Raibelpore.

With the increase in the production of pig iron in India recorded above, the quantity exported rose from 428,623 tons in 1928 to 548,581 tons in 1929. In 1929 still the principal consumer of Indian pig iron was over 70 per cent of the total exports having gone to that country in 1929. There was a fall in the export value per ton of pig iron from Rs. 47 0 (£3 5½) in 1928 to Rs. 35 7 (£3 4½).

The Steel Industry (Protection) Act 1924.—Act No. XIV of 1924—authorised, to companies employing Indian bondholders which were granted upon rails and shafts wholly manufactured in British India from material wholly or mainly produced from Indian iron-ore and complying with specifications approved by the Railway Board and upon iron or steel railway wagons a substantial portion of the component parts of which had been manufactured in British India. This Act was repealed by the Act No. III of 1927 and consequently the payment of bounties ceased on the 31st March 1927 but the India try is protected to a certain extent by varying tariffs on different classes of imported steel.

Exports of Pig Iron from India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)	
To—	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
Germany	8 642	3 84 375	28,680	18 243	6 01,480	44 885
Japan	821 010	1,52 72 858	1,139,765	285,158	1,76,44,089	1 309,298
United Kingdom	8 920	4 04 166	30 102	43 905	30 64 013	154 031
United States of America	57,597	26 02 474	194 214	68 017	30 62 606	228 054
Other Countries	32 256	14 80 817	110 904	38 558	18,13 478	135,334
Total	428,625	2 01 50 789	1 503,790	548 881	2 50 86,165	1 872 101

Depression in the industry—In 1929 the output rose slightly to 994 279 tons but the value fell heavily to £1,571 0 0. In 1924 third-grade ore cost £1 2 1/2. United Kingdom ports fetched an average price of £23 9/4 per unit. In 1925 this price fell to £21 5/8 in 1926 to £18 4/8 in 1927 to £18 1/2 in 1928 to £17 0/8 with a heavy fall in 1929 to an average price of £14 0/8 per unit. This is only 1d above the post-war lower governing price of manganese with an index figure of cost of supplies and services of 1 4/5. This continued fall in the price of manganese ore from 1924 to 1929 is to be correlated with the fact that from 1924 to 1927 the rate of increase of the world's production of manganese ore was much greater than the rate of increase in the world's production of pig iron and steel. The fact that the world's production of pig iron and steel in 1929 exceeded the production of 1928 whilst the production of manganese ore was probably less has not arrested the fall in view of the fact that the available supplies of manganese ore are now much in excess of requirements. Russia by non economic methods of exploitation and finance is able to place large quantities of ore on the market at a price below the critical figure of 13 0 pence referred to above. The large deposits of high grade

manganese ore discovered near Postmasburg in South Africa are also being developed, and on the completion of the railway line now under construction it may be anticipated that South Africa will secure a substantial portion of the world's market. It is not surprising therefore that in spite of the apparent prosperity of the Indian manganese industry in 1929 as judged from figures of production and export yet at the time of writing (August 1930) the industry as a whole is in a state of relative depression and many operators have ceased work.

The present chief sources of production of manganese ore are now India, Russia, the Gold Coast and Brazil whilst substantial supplies of ore are forthcoming from Egypt and Czechoslovakia.

There is a steady consumption of manganese ore at the works of the three principal Indian iron and steel companies not only for use in the steel furnaces of the Tata Iron and Steel Company and for the manufacture of ferro-manganese but also for addition to the blast furnace charge in the manufacture of pig iron. The consumption of manganese ore by the Indian iron and steel industry in the year under review amounted to 47 435 tons against 69,872 tons in 1929.

MANGANESE ORE

This industry commenced some thirty years ago by quarrying the deposits of the Vizagapatam district, and from an output of 674 tons in 1892, the production rose rapidly to 92,008 tons in 1900 when the richer deposits in the Central Provinces were also attacked, and are now yielding a larger quantity of ore than the Vizagapatam mines. The most important deposits occur in the Central Provinces, Madras Central India, and Mysore—the largest supply coming from the Central Provinces. The uses to which the ore is put are somewhat varied. The peroxide is used by glass manufacturers to destroy the green colour in glass making, and it is also used in porcelain painting and glazing for the brown colour which it yields. The ore is now used in the manufacture of ferro-manganese for use in steel manufacture. Since 1904, when the

total output was 150,190 tons, the progress of the industry has been remarkable owing to the high prices prevailing.

Record Output in 1927—Before the year 1928 the record production of manganese in India took place in the year 1907 when 902 291 tons were raised. In 1926 the output rose to 1 014 828 tons valued at £2,590,357, f.o.b. Indian ports the rise in output was, however, accompanied by a decrease in value. In 1927 the production rose to the highest yet recorded figure of 1 129 353 tons, accompanied by a rise in value to the peak figure of £2 844,237, f.o.b. Indian ports. During the year 1928, the upward tendency of manganese was not maintained, the output falling to 978,449 tons, valued at £2,821,201, f.o.b. Indian ports.

Quantity and value of Manganese-ore produced in India during 1928 and 1929

	1928		1929	
	Quantity	Value f.o.b. at Indian ports	Quantity	Value f.o.b. at Indian ports
	Tons	£	Tons	£
Bihar and Orissa—				
Gangpur State	6,379	15 337		
Keonjhar State	72 411	131 547	53 433	60,386
Singbhum	23,199	65,773	22,698	28 965
Bombay—				
Belgaum	1 603	8 854	8 666	14 877
Chhota Udupur	7 287	17 214	9 415	1,888
North Kanara	3 601	8 658	6 245	10,721
Panch Mahals	18 040	151 559	56,326	96,698
Central India—				
Jhabua State	3,885	7 447		
Central Provinces—				
Balaghat	148 497	632,632	263,105	482,359
Bhandara	39 059	226 790	1,66 525	286,962
Chhindwara	37,089	94 871	29 814	54 609
Nagpur	216,509	5,1,195	172 569	316,358
Madras—				
Bellary	5 257	7 579	10 635	9,131
Sandur State	139,801	201 546	140 804	121 867
Vizagapatnam	29 094	4,580	24 633	24,715
Mysore State—				
Chitaldrug	1 907	2,369	667	611
Shimoga	27 994	4,108	38,436	35 233
Tumkur	1,927	2,808	718	663
Total	975 449	2 198 895	994 279	1,571 080

GOLD

The greater part of the total output of gold in India is derived from the Kolar gold field in Mysore. During the last decade the production of this mine reached its highest point in 1906 when 616,768 ounces were raised. In 1906 the quantity won was 565,203 ounces and this figure fell to 335,065 ounces in 1907. The figures for the latter years reveal a small improvement. The Nizam's mine at Rutli in Hyderabad comes next, but at a respectable distance, to the Kolar gold field. This mine was opened in 1903. The only other mines from which gold was raised were those in the Dharwar district of Bombay and the Anantapur district of Madras. The Dharwar mines gave an output of 2,993 ounces in 1911 but work there ceased in 1912. The Anantapur mines gave their first output of gold during the year 1910 the amount being 3,332 ounces, valued at Rs. 1 51,800. Gold mining was carried on in the

North Arcot district of Madras from 1893 till 1900, the highest yield (2,554 ounces) being obtained in the year 1898. The Kyankpazat mine in Upper Burma was worked until 1903, when the pay chute was lost and the mine closed down. In 1902 dredging operations were started on the Irrawaddy river near Myitthaia and 216 ounces of gold were obtained in 1904, the amount steadily increased from year to year and reached 8,146 ounces in 1909, but fell in subsequent years until in 1922 it was no more than 24 oz. The small quantity of gold produced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the United Provinces is obtained by washing. Gold washing is carried on in a great many districts in India, but there is no complete record of the amount obtained in this way. The average earnings of the workers are very small, and the gold thus won is used locally for making jewellery.

Quantity and value of Gold produced in India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929			Labour
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 18 4)		Quantity	Value (£1= Rs 18 4,		
	oz	Rs	£	oz	Rs	£	
Bihar & Orissa Singhbhum	7 0	352	26	80 0	1,300	112	12
Burma— Katha	16 6	1 060	79	23 0	1 420	100	5
Upper Chindwin	54 7	4 741	364	12 6	1 102	82	(a)
Assam—	60 0	2 520	188	56 9	2 700	201	62
Myeeer	875 880 0	3 12,72 287	1 687 485	963 741 4	2 06 37 236	1,041 683	18 454
Punjab	84 0	1,860	103	1 9	18	8	7
United Province	4 5	240	18	5 7	200	15	11
Total	376 062 8	2 12 82, 85	1,688 232	863 809 4	2 06 64 268	1 542 109	18,561

(a) Not available

PETROLEUM.

Petroleum is found in India in two distinct areas—one on the east, which includes Assam, Burma, and the islands off the Arakan coast. This belt extends to the productive oil fields of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. The other area is on the west, and includes the Punjab and Baluchistan, the same belt of oil bearing rocks being continued beyond the borders of British India to Persia. Of these two the eastern area is by far the most important, and the most successful oil-fields are found in the Irrawaddy valley. Yenangyang is the oldest and most developed of these fields. Native wells have been at work here for over 100 years, and to 1886, prior to the annexation of Upper Burma, the output is estimated to have averaged over 2 million gallons a year. Drilling was begun in 1887. The Yenangyang field yielded a very small supply of petroleum before 1891, in which year drilling was started by the Burma Oil Company. Since then it has been the second place among the oil fields of India. Petroleum was struck at the end of 1901, and in 1908, 5 million gallons were obtained. In 1907 and 1908 the production of this field was 48 million gallons, and after a fall to 31½ million gallons in 1910 it rose to 56½ million gallons in 1912. Several of the islands off the Arakan coast are known to contain oil deposits, but their value is uncertain. About 30,000 gallons were obtained from the eastern Barungo Island near Akyab, and about 37,000 gallons from Ramri Island in the Kyaukpada district during 1911. Oil was struck at Minbu in 1910, the production for that year being 18,230 gallons which increased to nearly 4 million gallons in 1912. The existence of oil in Assam has been known for many years and an oil spring was struck near Makum in 1897. Nothing more,

however, was done until 1883, and from that year up till 1902 progress was slow. Since that year the annual production has been between 2½ and 4 million gallons.

On the west oil springs have been known for many years to exist in the Rawalpindi and other districts in the Punjab. In Baluchistan geological conditions are adverse, and though some small oil springs have been discovered attempts to develop them have not hitherto been successful.

Output in 1928.—The world's production of petroleum in 1928 amounted to a little over 151½ million tons, of which India contributed 0.70 per cent. In 1927 the world's production jumped to some 171 million gallons, of which the Indian proportion on a practically stationary production fell to 0.72 per cent.

In 1928 there was another substantial rise in the world's production which reached the figure of over 181 million metric tons. In 1929 there was another jump to nearly 203 million metric tons. For this rise the United States and Venezuela were mostly responsible, but Russia, the Dutch East Indies, Bannania, Peru, Trinidad, Canada, Columbia, Ecuador, Argentina, Persia, and smaller producers all contributed to the increase. There was a decline in the case of Mexico and India. The United States contributed 67 per cent of the world's supply in 1928 and Venezuela 9.7 per cent of the total world's production. In 1928 India contributed 0.70 per cent, which fell to 0.61 per cent in 1929, her position on the list of petroleum producing countries fell from 11th in 1928 to 12th in 1929, her place being taken by Trinidad.

Although petroleum statistics prove that it is becoming more and more difficult to maintain the output of India (including Burma) at the high levels it reached in 1919 and 1921 when peak production of well over 30½ million gallons were reached the production thereafter falling to 281 113 909 gallons in 1927, yet the production during 1928 reached the figure of 306 148 093 gallons and in 1929 the figure of 306 148 093 gallons which is the highest ever recorded this slight increase in output in

1929 was accompanied by a substantial increase in value amounting to Rs 66 623 (£386 241). The increase in output recorded in 1928 and 1929 notable as it is can only be regarded as an arrest in the decline which has set in and which with possible interruptions is likely to continue slowly and steadily during the present generation and a new field of importance is discovered. The chances of the latter receding year after year as exhaustive geological research continues to prove fruitless.

Quantity and Value of Petroleum produced in India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)	
	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
Assam—						
Badarpur	2 730 376	7 12,324	53 159	2 046 270	6 09 069	37 890
Digboi	28 745 032	40 08 624	366 315	31 497 054	63 78 407	401 373
Masimpur	2,780	6 725	501	5 880	1,340	100
Burma—						
Akyab	5 260	2,428	181	1 980	914	68
Kyaikpyin	15 237	14 425	1 060	15 034	13 800	1 022
Mintu	6 101,822	11,14 001	85 380	5 815,202	12 41,708	92 672
Singu	118 968 736	2,13,72,713	1 594 944	91 481 725	1 94 39 807	1,450 736
Thayetmyo	727 822	1 37 623	10 270	746 221	1 54 372	11 834
Upper Chindwin	2,809,880	1 73 166	12,923	2 790 500	2,09,742	15 652
Yenangyat	8 072 222	5,76,041	42,968	17,006 935	37 56,710	280 576
Yenangyaung	13,060,704	2,66 98,986	1 017,835	134,936,816	2 88,10,684	2 150,051
Punjab—						
Attok	12,254 160	40 63,510	228 622	19,208,680	47 01,320	358 375
Total	306 04, 711	5,78 10 386	4,314,207	306 148,000	6,43,26 000	4 800 448

Imports of kerosene Oil into India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)	
	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
From—						
Russia	14 160 033	79 20,125	601 055	12 773,434	65 73,600	400 568
Georgia	20 015 333	99,78,065	744 259	25,301,610	1,34 84,605	1 006 965
Persia	38,080,023	1,68,83,736	1,256,249	28,321,758	1,19,18,640	889,451
Straits Settlements (including Labuan)	73 730	43 536	3,249	9,020,855	47,28,576	352,606
Sumatra	2 074,130	11,87,178	88,590			
Borneo	15,152,333	78,53,377	588,222	2,770,300	15 94,922	119,178
United States of America	16,054,009	1 15,59,044	862 615	23,540,135	1,43,87 465	1,073,691
Other Countries.	1 969 890	5,96,200	44,403	6,563,558	88 43,717	286,845
Total	104,430,966	5,59,68,271	4,178,737	108,800,553	5,66,37,530	4,219,219

Imports of Fuel Oils into India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)	
From—	Gals	Rs	£	Gals	Rs	£
Persia	81,826 296	1 50 78,127	1 125 273	88 785 530	1 67 17 509	1,247 582
Straits Settlements (including Labuan)	4,713,687	16 85,345	125,772	10,331,396	22 19,486	165,185
Borneo	14 140,215	85 28 120	263 202	15 796 660	81 60 037	230 824
Other countries	238 260	81 062	6 049	102 444	18 505	1 381
TOTAL	100,018,467	2 03,72,644	1,520 346	114,966,030	2 21 09 627	1 649 972

Amber Graphite and Mica—Amber is found in very small quantities in Burma, the output for 1929 being 19 cwts valued at Rs 6 080. Graphite is found in small quantities in various places but little progress has been made in mining except in Travancore. The total output in 1921 was 26 tons. India has for many years been the leading producer of mica turning out more than half of the world's supply. In 1914 owing to the war, the output was only 38,189 cwts compared with 48 650 cwts in 1913. Owing to necessary restrictions with regard to the export of mica the output fell off considerably in the year 1915, but subsequent demand in the United Kingdom for the best grade of ruby mica led to a considerable increase in production during the following years.

There was a further increase in the declared production of mica from 45,112 cwts valued at Rs 24,10,499 (£179 587) in 1928 to 53 231 cwts valued at Rs 26,50 759 (£198 489) in 1929. This is the highest production yet recorded, with the exception of that of 1918 (54 710 cwts). The output figures are incomplete, and a more accurate idea of the size of the industry is to be obtained from the export figures. In the years 1928 and 1929 the quantity exported was more than double the reported production. In both the years 1926 and 1927 also the export figure was approximately double the reported production figure. The United States of America and the United Kingdom, which are the principal importers of Indian mica, absorbed 25.1 per cent and 44.6 per cent, respectively, of the total quantity exported during 1928 and 34.6 per cent and 41.7 per cent, respectively during 1929. Germany took 16.0 per cent and 8.8 per cent, respectively, of the total quantities exported during the years 1928 and 1929. The average value of the exported mica fell from Rs 98.0 (£7.3) per cwt in 1928 to Rs 90.5 (£6.7) per cwt in 1929. The exports for 1929 (116 075 cwts) are the highest yet recorded, the previous highest being 90,690 cwts in 1925. The value

(£784 092) was, however, exceeded by the value of the exports of 1929 (78 317 cwts valued at £1 065,438). 1925 (90 690 cwts valued at £799 458) and 1926 (89 947 cwts valued at £820 901).

The difference between exports and production is generally attributed to theft from the mines. If this be the only explanation one must assume that during the past three years there has been as much mica stolen as won by honest means. Early in 1928 a bill was introduced into the Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa the purpose of which was an attempt to reduce the losses on this account by licensing miners and dealers the bill was however, rejected. In March 1930, however a similar bill to regulate the possession and transport of and trading in mica was passed.

Tin, Copper, Silver and Lead—The only persistent attempt to mine tin is in Burma. The output was for some time insignificant but rose in 1913 to 116 tons valued at £46 000 which fell to £38,000 in 1914. In 1925 Burma yielded 2 308 tons. Copper is found in Southern India in Rajputana and at various places along the outer Himalayas, but the ore is smelted for the metal alone no attempt being made to utilize the by products. In 1924 the production of 2 935 tons of copper matter, valued at Rs 15 94 527 was reported by the Burma Corporation, Ltd. in the Northern Shan States.

Works at the Mossaboni Mine of the Indian Copper Corporation Ltd. in the Singhbhum District, was practically suspended during the year 1929 pending the raising of the capital required for the erection of the necessary concentrating smelting, refinery and power plants. Early in 1927 the Anglo-Oriental and General Investment Trust, Ltd., London assumed control, a sum of £350 000 was subscribed and the erection of the new plant commenced at once at the company's new site at Moubhandar Ghatsila together with an assisted siding from the Bengal Nagpur Railway main line at Ghatsila, and an aerial ropeway from the mine

Operations commenced on a revenue basis on January 1st 1929, and 1929 marks therefore the first full year's production. 75,830 short tons of ore were hoisted from the mine and 75,174 short tons treated in the mill and smelter with the production of 1,635 long tons of refined copper ingots and slabs. The copper was sold entirely in India at an average price of Rs 1,200 per long ton. The surface and underground ore reserves now total 788,134 short tons of 3.33 per cent ore representing a content of 26,546 short tons of copper. The amount of ore produced by the company in 1929 was 75,831 tons valued at Rs 14,58,746 (£108,882).

A considerable increase in the production of tin ore in Burma has to be reported for during which the output amounted to 3,784 tons valued at Rs 99,740 (£47,567) against 2,780 tons valued at Rs 45,41,201 (£338,895), in the preceding year. This increase of 1,004 tons is somewhat fictitious, as the figures for 1928 did not include 218 tons of low grade recovered from the mine dumps of Lawchi complex wolfram scheelite cassiterite ore in the Southern Shan States and purchased from tributors for £4,018. No milling operations

were performed, and the percentage composition of the mixed ore was therefore not precisely known. The figure for 1929 includes 371 tons from Lawchi calculated to be the proportion of tin-ore in 6.15 tons of concentrates derived from mixed wolfram-scheelite cassiterite-ore. These concentrates were assumed to contain 43 per cent of wolfram and 57 per cent of cassiterite. There is no reported output of block tin.

The production of lead ore at the Bawdwin mines of Burma increased slightly from 449,503 tons in 1928 to 463,972 tons in 1929, and the total amount of metal extracted increased from 78,394 tons of lead (including 1,241 tons of antimonial lead) valued at Rs 2,22,05,128 (£1,657,090) to 80,233 tons of lead (including 1,200 tons of antimonial lead) valued at Rs 2,60,00,613 (£1,865,717) in 1929. The quantity of silver extracted from the Bawdwin ore fell from 7,404,728 ozs valued at Rs 1,19,26,055 (£800,004) in 1928 to 7,260,517 ozs valued at Rs 1,07,81,482 (£800,007) in 1929. The value of lead per ton rose from Rs 289.3 (£21.1) in 1928 to Rs 311.6 (£23.2) in 1929 but the value of silver fell from Rs 1,910 (28.8s) per oz in 1928 to Rs 1,77 (26.40d) per oz in 1929.

Production of Lead ore, Lead and Silver during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928				
	Quantity	Value (£=Rs 13-4)			
	Lead-ore	Lead-ore and lead	Silver		
Burma—	Tons	Rs	£	Rs	£
Northern Shan States	442,000	(a) 2,22,05,128	1,657,090	(b) 1,19,26,055	800,004
Southern Shan States	1,151	11,01,700	8,095		
Rajputana—					
Jaipur State					
Total	443,651	2,33,26,828	1,66,894	1,19,26,055	800,004

	1929				
	Quantity	Value (£=Rs 13-4)			
	Lead ore	Lead-ore and lead	Silver		
Burma—	Tons	Rs	£	Rs	£
Northern Shan States	463,972	(c) 2,60,00,613	1,865,717	(d) 1,07,81,482	800,857
Southern Shan States	719	86,890	4,990		
Rajputana—					
Jaipur State	5	1,500	112		
Total	464,696	2,61,68,703	1,870,796	1,07,81,482	800,857

(a) Value of 77,143 tons of lead (Rs 2,18,88,115) and 1,241 tons of antimonial lead

(b) Value of 7,404,728 ozs of silver extracted

(c) Value of 79,033 tons of lead (Rs 2,46,63,112) and 1,200 tons of antimonial lead

(d) Value of 7,260,517 ozs of silver extracted

Zinc—A monograph on zinc ores issued by the Imperial Institute in 1917 says that during the past fifty years zinc ores have received but little attention in India and no production was recorded until 1913. In 1914 the production was 8,552 tons and although the output fell to 96 tons in 1915, there is a prospect of India becoming an important producer of zinc ore in the future. Important silver-lead zinc deposits occur at Bawdwin in Tawngpying State one of the Northern Shan States in Upper Burma. The mines are connected with the Mandalay Lashio Branch of the Burma railways by a narrow gauge line 51 miles long, the lines meeting at Manaywe, which is about 644 miles from Rangoon. They were worked for many centuries by the Chinese for silver, and have long been known to contain zinc ore until recently however no serious attempt appears to have been made to market the ore for its zinc.

Gem Stones—The only precious and semi-precious stones at present mined in India are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, spinel, tourmaline, garnet, rock-crystal, agate, cornelian, jadeite and amber. The production of diamonds in

Central India rose in 1929 from 828 8 carats valued at Rs 65,491 (£4,887) in 1928 to 1 627 5 carats valued at Rs 52 045 (£3,884). Of this latter production 1 475 7 carats were produced in Panna state and the remainder in Charkhari, Ajaigarh and Bijawar. Amber has already been referred to, of the rest only the ruby, sapphire and jadeite attain any considerable value in production and the export of the latter has declined owing to the disturbance in China which is the chief purchaser of Burmese, jadeite. The output of the ruby mines in 1924 was only 101 097 carats or less than half the average annual quantity produced during the two preceding quinquennial periods. In 1922 an exceptionally valuable ruby of nearly 23 carats was found of rare size and quality. A severe decline in the output from the Mogor ruby mines of Upper Burma in 1924, followed in 1925 by a marked drop in value, bore witness to a serious decline in the industry. The Burma Ruby Mines, Limited ultimately decided to go into liquidation and the mines were offered for sale in September 1926. The total production in 1928 was valued at Rs 1,77,012 and in 1929 at Rs 1 81 760.

SALT

There was a substantial increase in 1929 in the total output of salt amounting to 193,752 tons, the three chief contributors to the increase being Aden, Bombay and Sind and Northern India (146,130 tons). There was a small increase from Burma. Madras showed a decrease of 27 340 tons.

Quantity and value of Salt produced in India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1 = Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1 = Rs 13 4)	
	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
Aden	222 771	18,06,844	1,33 817	246 344	17,03 908	127 161
Bombay and Sind	460 878	25,62,690	1,92,738	509,854	29 79,004	222,320
Burma	21 322	5 17,226	38,599	23,825	6,41 092	47,843
Gwalior (a)	00	3 107	232	21	1,031	77
Madras	448 538	26,36,046	196 720	421,208	24 86,220	185,599
Northern India	361 788	23,89,079	178,289	507,918	35 08 570	261 400
Total	1,510 347 (b)	99,84,908	740,890	1 709 090 (b)	1 18,14,965	844,400

(a) Figures relate to official years 1928-29 and 1929-30.

(b) Excludes the production of 2 tons in 1928 and 1 ton in 1929 in Kashmir State.

Quantity and value of Rock-salt produced in India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)	
	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
Salt Range	131 730	7,83 794	58 492	155 893	10 29,99	76 865
Kohat	19 812	67 270	4 722	19,825	63 068	4,707
Mandi	3 811	91,194	6 828	3 284	1 00 023	7 464
Total	155 353	9,38,664	6,649	178,302	11 93,086	89,0 8

Imports of Salt into India during the years 1928 and 1929

	1928			1929		
	Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)		Quantity	Value (£1=Rs 13 4)	
From--	Tons	Rs	£	Tons	Rs	£
United Kingdom	76 238	23,44 002	167 403	72,863	17,50 579	131 013
Germany	62 499	17 05 071	127 244	60 786	14 34 758	107 071
Spain	67 979	17 25 810	129,702	54,871	11 07 026	82,014
Aden and Dependencies	201 167	49,04 564	366 012	220 415	43,57 963	325 221
Egypt	112,713	27 32,158	203 892	104 22	21 39 087	150 678
Italian East Africa	55 600	13,04 626	97,366	57 030	11,27 672	84 155
Other countries	38 186	8 17 296	60 992	37,406	7 26,820	54,240
Total	614,297	1 54 33,589	1 151,705	607,596	1,26,49,505	943,802

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Production of Burma in 1922 Monographs on Mineral Resources published by the Imperial Institute Quinquennial Review of the Mineral Production of India for the years 1924-1928 (Records of the Geological Survey of India Vol LXIV)

Stock Exchanges.

There are about 446 Share and Stock Brokers in Bombay. They carry on business on the Brokers' Hall bought in 1899 from the funds of the Share and Stock Brokers Association formed to facilitate the negotiations and the sale and purchase of Joint Stock securities promoted throughout the Presidency of Bombay. Their powers are defined by rules and regulations framed by the Board of Directors and approved by the general body of Brokers. The Board has the power to fix the rates in times of emergencies. The official address of the Secretary is Dalal Street, Fort Bombay.

At first the admittance fee for a broker was Rs 5 which was gradually raised to Rs 7,000. The fee for the Broker's card has increased and it was recently sold by public auction for Rs 21,800. In 1921 a number of cards were sold at Rs 40,000 each and the proceeds were employed to purchase an adjoining building for the extension of the business. This building was pulled down and the extension was completed last year. The present value of the card is about Rs 7,000. The rules of the Association were revised in October 1918 and from the New Year the purchaser of shares has to pay the stamp and transfer fee instead of the seller. There are two classes of Exchange Brokers—Europeans and Indians, the latter being certified for recognition by the native Stock Exchange. Business in Government Paper and all other Trustees' Authorised Securities is carried on under the rules of the Bombay Stock Exchange but in the street outside the hall.

In November 1917 a second Stock Exchange was opened in Bombay, with its headquarters in Apollo Street, known as the Bombay Stock Exchange, Ltd. This separate Exchange no longer functions as an older body; it was revived in 1922. It has ceased to function again.

Committee of Enquiry.—In 1923 the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee to enquire into the constitution, government, customs, practices, rules, regulations and methods of business of the Native Share and Stock Brokers Association of Bombay and to investigate any such complaints of the public and to make any such enquiries with reference to any of the aforesaid matters or any other matter appertaining to the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper and thereafter with a view to protect the investing public against the interested or irregular control of business to formulate such definite proposals for the future constitution, control, direction and regulation of the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper.

The Committee issued a report early in 1924 signed by all the members save one who appended a minority report. The majority report made several important recommendations for reform, notably one aimed at the prevention of corners and another for facilitating the handling of legitimate complaints against the brokers on the part of the public. The Association, however, adopted the minority report which leaves the constitution and practice of the Exchange very little modified.

In the middle of the year 1925 there was heavy speculation in certain mill scrips. The market

was tremendously oversold, the usual crisis ensued leading to the temporary closing of the Exchange and the suspension of all dealings and a public agitation for thorough reform arose. The brokers were at first unwilling to yield to this demand. But a threat of Government intervention and control altered their attitude. In the end, they submitted a draft rules under which wild speculation will be discouraged and the recurrence of such crisis as that indicated above will be unlikely.

For many years the Calcutta Share Market had its meeting place in various gullies in the business quarter and was under no control except that of established market custom. In 1908 the Calcutta Stock Exchange Association was formed, a building was leased in New China Bazaar Street now called Royal Exchange Place, a representative committee was formed and the existing trade customs were focussed into rules drawn up for the conduct of business. Admittance as a member of the Stock Exchange is by vote of the committee and the entrance fee is at present Rs 500. The market custom differs very materially from that of most other Stock Exchanges since there are no settlement days, delivery is due the second day after the contract is passed and sales of securities are effected for the most part under blank transfers. Another difference in procedure as compared with the London Stock Exchange is that there are no Jobbers in the Calcutta market. The dealers who take their place more or less are not compelled to quote a buyer's and a seller's rate and are themselves Brokers as well as dealers calling upon the Banks and other clients and competing with Brokers.

There are about 150 members, besides outside brokers the former consisting of European Jewish Marwari and Bengalee firms. The Marwaris predominate. The volume of *bona fide* investment business is comparatively small and insufficient for the number of Brokers. The principal business transacted on the Calcutta Stock Exchange is connected with the shares in Jute Mills, Coal Companies, Tea Companies registered in India, Miscellaneous Industrial concerns (such as Paper, Flour Sugar), Railway and Transit Companies and Debentures. The latter comprising those of Industrial concerns and Trustees' Investment Securities, namely Municipal and Port Trust Debentures. The association has an honorary secretary and is not at present affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

The Madras Stock Exchange situated at No. 9 Broadway consists of about 100 Members of which 25 are working Members. It was opened on 6th April 1920 and deals principally in Mill shares. Business is regulated by rules drawn up by the Directors. There is a Board of arbitration. There is an admittance membership card of Rs 1,000 and an annual subscription of Rs 100. The original 100 members were elected by the first Directors and each of the working members have deposited a security of Rs 3,000.

Chambers of Commerce.

Modern commerce in India was built up by merchants from the west and was for a long time entirely in their hands. Chambers of Commerce and numerous kindred Associations were formed by them for its protection and assistance. But Indians have in recent years, taken a large and growing part in this commercial life. The extent of their participation varies greatly in different parts of India according to the natural proclivities and genius of different races. Bombay, for instance, has led the way in the industrial and commercial regeneration of the new India, while Bengal, very active in other fields of activity, lags behind in this one. Arising from these circumstances we find Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras and other important centres, with a membership both European and Indian, but alongside these have sprung up in recent years certain Associations such as the Bombay Indian Merchants Chamber and Bureau, of which the membership is exclusively Indian. These different classes of bodies are in no sense hostile to one another and constantly work in association.

The London Chamber of Commerce in 1921 realising the increasing attention demanded by the economic development of India, took steps to form an 'East India Section' of their organization. The Indian Chambers work harmoniously with this body but are in no sense affiliated to it, nor is there at present any inclination on their part to enter into such close relationship, because it is generally felt that the Indian Chambers can themselves achieve their objects better and more effectively than a London body could do for them and on various occasions the London Chamber, or the East India Section of it have shown themselves out of touch with what seemed locally to be immediate requirements in particular matters.

A new movement was started in 1913 by the Hon. Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy Ibrahim, a leading millowner and public citizen of Bombay, which aims at effecting great improvement in strengthening Indian commercial organisation. Sir Fazulbhoy's original plan was for the formation of an Indian Commercial Congress. The proposal met with approval in all parts of India. The scheme was delayed by the outbreak of war but afterwards received an impetus from the same cause and the first Congress was held in the 1915 Christmas holiday season, in the Town Hall, Bombay. The list of members of the Reception Committee showed that all the important commercial associations of Bombay were prepared to co-operate actively.

The Congress was attended by several hundred delegates from all parts of India. Mr (now the Hon. Sir) D. E. Wacha, President of the Bombay Indian Merchants Chamber, presided as Chairman of the Reception Committee, at the opening of the proceedings and the first business was the election of Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy as the first President. The Congress resolved upon the establishment of an Associated Indian Chamber of Commerce, and elected a Provincial Committee empowered to

take the necessary steps to get the Association registered and to enrol members and carry on work. The Congress also approved of the draft constitution.

The following are the principal paragraphs of a Memorandum of Association and Statement of Objects of the new Associated Chamber as approved by the Congress —

I The name of the Chamber will be "THE ASSOCIATED INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE."

II. The Registered Office of the Chamber will be in Bombay.

III The objects for which the Chamber is established are —

- (1) To discuss and consider questions concerning and affecting trade, commerce, manufactures and the shipping interests at meeting of delegates from Indian Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations or Bodies and to collect and disseminate information from time to time on matters affecting the common interests of such Chambers or Associations or Bodies and the commercial, manufacturing and shipping interests of the country.
- (2) To attain those advantages by united action which each Chamber or Association or body may not be able to accomplish in its separate capacity.
- (3) To organise Chambers of Commerce, Commercial Associations or Bodies in different trade centres of the Country.
- (4) To convene when necessary the Indian Commercial Congress at such places and at such times as may be determined by a Resolution of the Chamber.

The Articles of Association provided "There shall be an annual meeting of the Associated Indian Chamber held at Bombay on a date to be fixed by the Executive Council in the month of February" or at some other time, and semi-annual or special meetings may be convened by the Executive Council or on the requisition of one-third of the total number of members addressed to the Secretary.

The organization languished for lack of support for some years until a number of merchants specially interested in Currency and Exchange questions revived it in 1923 at Delhi and 1927 at Calcutta. The initiative in the new activities falling, like the first movement, from Bombay. The Commercial Congress held in Calcutta on 31st December 1926 and 1st and 2nd January 1927 decided upon the formation of a Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and agreed to the registered office of this body being "at the place where the President for the year has his headquarters or where he directs it to be located." Among the objects for which the Federation is established are the following —

- (a) To promote Indian businesses in matters of inland and foreign trade, transport, industry and manufacture, finance and all other economic subjects.

- (b) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community and associations on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian business
- (c) To enter into any arrangement with any Government or authority supreme, municipal local or otherwise that may seem conducive to the Federation's objects or any of them, and to obtain from any such Government or authority all rights, concessions and privileges which the Federation may think it desirable to obtain and to carry out, exercise and comply with any such arrangements, rights, privileges and concessions
- (d) To sell or dispose of the undertaking of the Federation or any part thereof for such consideration as the Federation may think fit and in particular for shares, debentures or securities of any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation
- (e) To take or otherwise acquire and hold shares in any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation
- (f) To undertake and execute any trusts the undertaking of which may seem to the Federation desirable either gratuitously or otherwise
- (g) To draw, make, accept discount execute and issue bills of exchange promissory notes bills of lading warrants debentures and other negotiable or transferable instruments or securities

The Rules provide for two classes of members viz numbers consisting of Chambers of Commerce (Subscription Rs 300) and others consisting of Commercial Associations (Subscription Rs 150)

The following were elected a provisional Committee of the Federation —

President—Sir Dinshaw M. Petit

Members—Messrs. G. D. Hirle, Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Vidyasagar Pandya, Jamal Mahomed Lala Harkishen Lal, Adamji Haji Dawood, Jamshed N. B. Mehta, Vikramjit Singh Shri Ram W. G. Bannerjee, B. F. Madon, Kasturibhai Lalbhai D. P. Khaitan and Rai Bahadur A. C. Bannerjee, the last two being appointed Treasurers

BENGAL.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1884. Its headquarters are in Calcutta. Other societies connected with the trade and commerce of the city are the Royal Exchange, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Calcutta Trades Association the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce and the Marwari Chamber of Commerce. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 300. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade in particular in Calcutta. There are two classes of members Permanent (Chamber and Associated) and Honorary

Merchants bankers shipowners representatives of commercial railway and insurance companies, brokers, persons and firms engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture and joint stock companies or other corporations formed for any purpose or object connected with commerce, agriculture mining or manufacture and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature, may be elected as permanent members of the Chamber

The following are the office bearers of the Chamber for the year 1929-30 —

President—Mr. B. B. Laird, M.L.C. (Messrs. Thomas Duff & Co. Ltd.)

Vice President—Mr. J. A. Tansie (Messrs. James Finlay & Co., Ltd.)

Committee—The Hon. Mr. P. H. Browne, O.B.E. (Messrs. Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.), Mr. Geo. Cook (The National Bank of India Ltd.), Mr. F. E. Cunningham (Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co. Ltd.), Mr. L. V. Heathcote (The Burmah Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India Ltd.), Mr. R. Pearce (The Eastern Bengal Railway), Mr. G. de M. Kellock (Messrs. Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co.), Mr. R. A. Towler (Messrs. McLeod & Co.)

The Secretary of the Chamber is Mr. D. K. Cunnison Assistant Secretary, Mr. A. G. Daniel

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of returning representatives, and the representatives returned for the current year are —

Council of State—The Hon. Mr. P. H. Browne, C.M.E.

Bengal Legislative Council—Mr. G. B. Dain (The Calcutta Tramways Co., Ltd.) Mr. H. H. Burn (Messrs. McLeod & Co.) Mr. B. B. Laird (Messrs. Thom. Duff & Co., Ltd.) Mr. C. R. Sumner (Messrs. Kilburn & Co.) Mr. W. H. Thompson (Bengal Telephone Corporation, Ltd.) Mr. R. Smith (The Burmah Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India, Ltd.)

Calcutta Port Commission—The Hon. Mr. P. H. Browne, C.M.E. (Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co.) Mr. T. W. Dowling (Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co., Ltd.) Mr. C. de M. Kellock (Messrs. Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co., Ltd.) Mr. J. A. Tansie (Messrs. James Finlay & Co., Ltd.) Mr. A. McLeod, Esq. (Messrs. Gladstone, Wyllie & Co.) Mr. A. L. B. Tucker (Messrs. Kilburn & Co.)

Calcutta Municipal Corporation—Mr. J. Campbell Forrester M.L.C. (Messrs. Smith Forrester & Co.) Mr. Geo. Morgan, M.L.C. (Messrs. Morgan Walker & Co.) Mr. H. H. Hestling (Messrs. Stearns Ltd.) F. Rooney (The Bengal Telephone Co. Ltd.) Mr. N. R. Lake (Messrs. James Lake & Son) Mr. L. P. Mitchell (Messrs. Bird & Co.)

Bengal Boiler Commission—Messrs. John Williamson (Union Jute Mills South) H. H. Reynolds (Andrew Yule & Co.) and W. Gow (Jenap & Co., Ltd.)

Board of Trustees of the Indian Museum — Mr I E Cunningham (Turner, Morrison & Co, Ltd)

Bengal Smoke Nuisance Commission — Members C A John Hendry (Burn & Co, Ltd) and J Williamson (Union Jute Coy & S. Mill)

Calcutta Improvement Trust — Mr Geo Morgan, C M N L A (Morgan, Walker & Co)

The Chamber elects representatives to various other bodies of less importance, such as the committee of the Calcutta Sailors Home, and to numerous subsidiary associations. The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce —

Calcutta Wheat and Seed Trade Association, Indian Jute Mills Association, Indian Tea Association Calcutta Tea Traders Association, Calcutta Fire Insurance Association Calcutta Import Trade Association, Calcutta Marine Insurance Association, The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India, Indian Mining Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Association, Indian Paper Makers' Association Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta Jute Fabrics Shippers' Association, Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association, Jute Fabric Brokers Association, Baled Jute Shippers Association, Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers' Association Calcutta Sugar Importers' Association, Indian Lac Association for Research and Calcutta Accident Insurance Association and Salt Importers Association of Bengal

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and

adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties all or any of whom reside or carry on business personally or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta, or elsewhere in India or Burmah, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may, from time to time annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants

The Chamber also maintains a Licensed Measures Department controlled by a special committee. It includes a Superintendent (Mr B. Ellis), Deputy Superintendent (Mr A H Lugg), Head Office Manager (Mr O G Smith) and six Assistant Superintendents (Messrs J G Smyth, A H Mathews, G G G Smyth and C O H Bowden, J B F Hanfrey and B Perry, and the staff at the time of the last official returns consisted of 100 officers. The usual system of work for the benefit of the trade of the port is followed. The Department has its own provident fund and compassionate funds and Measures Club. The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical returns. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current* and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion

INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, CALCUTTA.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce was established in November 1925 to promote and protect the trade commerce and industries of India and in particular the trade, commerce and industries in or with which Indians are engaged or concerned to aid and stimulate the development of trade commerce and industries in India with capital principally provided by or under the management of Indians to watch over and protect the general commercial interests of India or any part thereof, and the interests of persons, in particular the Indians, engaged in trade, commerce or industries in India, to adjust controversies between members of this Chamber to arbitrate in the settlement of disputes arising out of commercial transactions between parties willing or agreeing to abide by the judgment and decision of the Tribunal of the Chamber to promote and advance commercial and technical education and such study of different branches of Art and Science as may tend to develop trade commerce and industries in India to provide, regulate and maintain a suitable building or room or suitable buildings or rooms for a Commercial Exchange in Calcutta and to do all such other things as may be conducive to the development of trade, commerce and industries or incidental to attainment of the above objects or any of them

There are two classes of Members, local and non-local. The local Members pay an annual subscription of Rs 100 and the Non-local Members Rs 50. Merchants, Bankers Ship-owners,

representatives of commercial, transport or insurance companies, brokers and persons engaged in commerce, agriculture mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art science or literature who are Indians shall be eligible for election as members of the Chamber

The following constitute the Managing Committee of the Chamber for the year 1930 —

President — Mr D P Khaitan
Senior Vice President — Mr Sheo Kisan Bhatia

Vice-President — Mr A L Ojha
Members — Mr G D Ibra, Mr Kailash Gangjee, Mr Anandji Haridas, Mr K J Purohit, Mr G L Mehta, Mr N I Puri, Mr J B K Modi, Mr B J Nopany, Mr H P Bagaria, Mr Manojlal Nanavaty, Mr M C Ralsurana, Mr Mohanlal Lalubhai, Mr K P Padinh, Mr Habib Mahmood, Mr H P Poddar

Secretary — Mr M P Gandhi, M A FRESSES

The following Associations are affiliated with the Chamber — The Calcutta Rice Merchants Association, East India Jute Association Ltd, Exchange and Bullion Brokers Association, Indian Steel Agents Association, Calcutta Katana Association, Gunny Traders Association and Bengal Jute Dealers Association

The Indian Chamber of Commerce also appointed in 1927 a Tribunal of Arbitration to arbitrate in all disputes relating to various

trades. With a view to cover the varying nature of disputes arising in different trades separate panels of Arbitration are appointed on the Tribunal of Arbitration for each of the following trades—(1) Jute, (2) Gunny (3) Piece goods and Yarn (4) Iron and Steel, (5) Coal and Minerals, (6) General

Chamber's representatives on—

Calcutta Port Commissioners Mr K J Purohit

Bengal-Nagpur Railway Advisory Committee
Mr Anandji Haridas.

INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, CALCUTTA.

The Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce is established for the following purposes—

- (a) To participate in the promotion of the objects for which the International Chamber of Commerce hereinafter called the 'International Chamber' is established namely
- (i) To facilitate the commercial inter course of countries
- (ii) To secure harmony of action on all international questions affecting finance, industry and commerce
- (iii) To encourage progress and to promote peace and cordial relations among countries and their citizens by the co-operation of business men and organisations devoted to the development of commerce and industry

The Indian National Committee has on its roll 36 commercial bodies as Organisation Members and 19 commercial firms as Associate Members

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR THE YEAR 1930

President—Mr D P Khaitan

Vice President—Mr Walchand Hirachand

Members of the Executive Committee—Mr Purnohomdas Thakurdas KT OIE MBE
Mr G D Birla Lala Shri Ram Mr Jamal Mahomed Mr Kasturbhai Lalbhai Mr B K Shanmukham Chetty M.L.A. Mr S N Hajji M.L.A. Mr Fakirjee Cowasji Khan Bahadur A Chandoo M.L.C. Mr N R. Sarkar

Honorary Treasurer—Mr B L Nopany

Honorary Secretary—Mr M P Gandhi
M.A., F.R. Secs B.F.S.S.

Representatives on the Council—Mr D P Khaitan Calcutta Mr D S Brulkar London, Mr K P Mehta London

Alternates—Mr K M Bantbiya, Mr R. K. Shanmukham Chetty M.L.A. Mr Homchand Javeri

Standing Committee—The Committee nominated the following persons to serve on the Standing Committee and Special Sub-Committees of the International Chamber of Commerce for the year 1930—

Standing Committee on Double Taxation Prof V G Kale Poona

Standing Committee on Bills of Exchange and Export Commercial Credits Mr S N Poch Kanawalla Bombay

Railway Rules Advisory Committee Messrs Anandji Haridas H P Bagaria G D Birla, Faizulla Gangjee and D P Khaitan

Calcutta Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Mr G L Mehta

Bengal Conciliation Panel Messrs D P Khaitan Anandji Haridas and V Rajabally

Chamber's Auditors—Messrs S R Batlibol & Co

OF COMMERCE, CALCUTTA.

Standing Committee on Commercial Policy and Trade Barriers Prof C N Vakil Bombay

Standing Committee on International Industrial Statistics Mr S N Gupta 108, London

Standing Committee on Sea Transport Mr D S Brulkar London

Standing Committee on International Telegraph Service Mr Bahintoola M Chitoy Bombay

Standing Committee on Budget and Publications Mr D S Brulkar London

Special Consultative Committee of Experts and Cotton Industry Mr Kasturbhai Lalbhai Ahmedabad

Special Consultative Committee of Bills of Lading Mr D S Brulkar London

Special Consultative Committee of Highway Transport Mr Walchand Hirachand Bombay

Special Consultative Committee of Air Transport Mr M P Gandhi Calcutta

Special Consultative Committee of International Postal Services Mr M P Gandhi Calcutta

Special Consultative Committee of Protection of Industrial Property Mr J K Mehta Bombay

Special Consultative Committee of International Commercial Arbitration Mr R J Udani London

Special Consultative Committee of International Industrial Extension and Rationalisation Mr J K Mehta Bombay

Special Consultative Committee of International Industrial Extension and Rationalisation Mr D S Brulkar London

Special Consultative Committee of Future Trading Mr H P Bagaria Calcutta

Special Consultative Committee of Experts of the Jute Industry Mr K M Bantbiya London

Representatives of the Indian National Committee on the Court of Arbitration of the International Chamber—

Sir Purnohomdas Thakurdas KT OIE MBE M.L.A. Bombay

Mr G D Birla Calcutta

Mr D P Khaitan, Calcutta

Mr M Jamal Mahomed Saib Madras

Mr K P Mehta London

Mr D S Brulkar London

Mr Fakirjee Cowasji Karaohi

Mr K M Bantbiya London

Mr Chandulal Jeypchand Gurjar Paris.

Mr Ambala Bapalal Mehta Paris

Office Address 135 Canning Street, Calcutta

BOMBAY

The object and duties of the Bombay Chamber as set forth in their Memorandum and Articles of Association, are to encourage a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this Presidency, to collect and classify information on all matters of general commercial interest, to obtain the removal, as far as such a Society can, of all acknowledged grievances affecting merchants as a body or mercantile interests in general to receive and decide references on matters of usage and custom in dispute, recording such decisions for future guidance, and by this and such other means, as the Committee for the time being may think fit assisting to form a code of practice for simplifying and facilitating business, to communicate with the public authorities, with similar Associations in other places and with individuals, on all subjects of general mercantile interests and to arbitrate between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of the Chamber.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1834 under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of the Presidency, and the programme described above was embodied in their first set of rules. According to the latest returns the number of Chamber members is 169 and the number of Associated members is 11. Of these numbers 19 represent banking institutions, 7 shipping agencies and companies, 8 firms of solicitors, 3 railway companies, 11 insurance companies, 16 engineers and contractors, 121 firms engaged in general mercantile business.

All persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits desirous of joining the Chamber and disposed to aid in carrying its objects into effect are eligible for election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's subscription is Rs. 500 and the Associate member's subscription is Rs. 200 per annum. Gentlemen distinguished for public services, or eminent in commerce and manufactures may be elected honorary members and as such are exempt from paying subscriptions. Any stranger engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits and visiting the Presidency may be introduced as a visitor by any Member of the Chamber inserting his name in a book to be kept for the purpose, but a residence of two months shall subject him to the rule for the admission of members.

Officers of the Year

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a committee of nine ordinary members, consisting of the President and Vice-President and seven members. The committee must, as a rule, meet at least once a week and the minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by all members of the Chamber subject to such regulations as the committee may make in regard to the matter. A general meeting of the Chamber must be

held once a year and ten or more members may requisition, through the officers of the Chamber, a special meeting at any time, for specific purpose.

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public bodies —

The Council of State, one representative
Legislative Council of the Governor of Bombay, two representatives.

Bombay Municipal Corporation, one member, elected for three years.

Bombay Improvements Committee one member, elected for two years.

Board of Trustees of the Port of Bombay, five members, elected for two years.

The following are the officers of the Chamber for the year 1931-32 and their representatives on the various public bodies —

President—The Hon ble Mr E Miller

Vice President—R R Haddow Esq

Committee—Sir Joseph Kay, Kt D S Burn, Esq A S Gillespie, Esq J O Hauning Esq W G Lely, Esq A McIntosh Esq W M Poter Esq

Secretary—R J F Sullivan, Esq

Asst Secretary—H Royal Esq

Representatives on—

Council of State The Hon ble Mr E Miller

Bombay Legislative Council Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt M.L.C., J R Abercrombie Esq M.C., M.L.O.

Bombay Port Trust R R Haddow Esq, E C R-ld Esq G H Cooke Esq W L Clement Esq and G L Winterbottom Esq

Bombay Improvements Committee R H Parker, Esq

Bombay Municipal Corporation G O Pike Esq

Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Board L F Tucker, Esq and A G Gray Esq

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission B L Ferard Esq

Persian Gulf Lights Committee J C Reed Esq

St George's Hospital Advisory Committee F B Thornely Esq

Governor's Hospital Fund O N Moberly, Esq, CIE

Indian Central Cotton Committee Sir Joseph Kay, Kt

Empire Cotton Growing Corporation R F Scott, Esq

Back Bay Reclamation Scheme—Standing Advisory Committee and Lay out Committee Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt

Bombay Development Department—Special Advisory Committee A M Reith, Esq

Auxiliary Force Advisory Committee H R Watson, Esq

Ex-Services Association The Hon Mr E Miller (Ex-officio)
Bombay Seamen's Society R J F Sullivan, Esq
Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire Sir Malcolm Hogg, Kt
Railway Advisory Committee—
 G I P L A Halsall Esq
 H B & C I L A Halsall, Esq
Bombay Telephone Company Ltd G L Winterbotham Esq
Railway Rates Advisory Committee F G Travers, Esq L A Halsall Esq J F Macdonnell Esq, E Miller Esq M L C, G Bagdure Esq
Government of Bombay Road Board
 The Hon ble Mr E Miller

Special Work

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the Law Courts.

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is its Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The department consists of fourteen Indian clerks who, by the authority of Government, work in the Customs House and have every facility placed at their disposal by the Customs authorities. They compile all the statistical information in connection with the trade of the port, in both export and import divisions, which it is desirable to record. No other Chamber in India does similar work to the same extent.

The Bombay Chamber publishes a Daily Arrival Return which shows the receipts into Bombay of cotton, wheat and seeds, and a Daily Trade Return, which deals with trade by sea and shows in great detail imports of various kinds of merchandise and of treasure, while the same return contains particulars of the movements of merchant vessels.

The Chamber publishes twice a week detailed reports known as Import and Export manifests, which give particulars of the cargo carried by each steamer to and from Bombay.

Three statements are issued once a month. One shows the quantity of exports of cotton seeds and wheat from the principal ports of the whole of India. The second gives in detail imports from Europe, more particularly in regard to grey cloths, bleached cloths, Turkey red and scarlet cloths, printed and dyed goods, fancy cloth of various descriptions, woollens, yarns, metals, kerosene oil, coal, aniline dyes, sugar, matches, wines and other sundry goods. The third shows classified the number of packages of piece-goods and yarns imported by individual merchants.

The Weekly Return issued by the Chamber shows clearances of a large number of important designations of merchandise.

A return of Current Quotations is issued once a week, on the day of the departure of the English mail, and shows the rates of exchange for Bank and Mercantile Bills on England and Paris, and a large quantity of general banking and trade information.

The annual reports of the Chamber are substantial tomes in which the whole of the affairs of the Chamber and the trade of the port during the past year are reviewed.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department with a staff of 16, whose business is that of actual measurement of exports in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by these officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods in bales or packages. The measurers are in attendance on the quays whenever there are goods to be measured and during the busy season are on duty early and late. The certificates granted show the following details—

- (a) The date, hour and place of measurement,
- (b) the name of the shipper,
- (c) the name of the vessel,
- (d) the port of destination,
- (e) the number and description of packages
- (f) the marks
- (g) the measurement, and in the case of goods shipped by boats,
- (h) the registered number of the boat
- (i) the name of the tidal

Certificates of weight and of origin are also issued by the Chamber.

Associated Chamber of Commerce of India and Ceylon

HEAD OFFICE LOCATED IN CALCUTTA FOR 1930

Milowners Association, Bombay

The Milowners Association Bombay was established in 1875 and its objects are as follows—

- (a) To encourage friendly feeling and amity amongst Milowners and users of steam water and/or electric power on all subjects connected with their common good.
- (b) To secure good relations between members of the Association.
- (c) To promote and protect the trade, commerce and manufactures of India in general and of the cotton trade in particular.
- (d) To consider questions connected with the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members.
- (e) To collect and circulate statistics and to collect, classify and circulate information relating to the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members.

Any individual partnership or company owning one or more mill or mills or one or more press or presses or one or more ginning or other factory or factories actuated by steam, water, electric and/or other power is eligible for membership, members being elected by ballot. Every member is entitled to one vote for every complete sum of Rs 50 paid by him as annual subscription.

The membership of the Association in 1931 numbered 89

The following is the Committee for 1931 —

H P Mody, Esq. (*Chairman*), J V Middleley, Esq. (*Deputy Chairman*), Sir Dinshaw M. Petit, Bart., Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., Sir Ness Wadia K.C.M.G., The Honble Sir Dinshaw F. Wacha Kt., Ahmed I. Currimbhoy Esq., Sir Joseph Kay, Kt., Sir Munmohandas Ramji Kt., A. Geddla Esq., E. Dinshaw Esq., Lalji Naranji Esq., Jehangir B. Petit Esq., Ratansi D. Morarij, Esq., N. B. Saklatvala, Esq., C.M. S. D. Saklatvala Esq., F. I. Stillman, Esq., I. Stones, Esq., O.S. Madhavji D. Thackersey, Esq., C. N. Wadia, Esq., C.E., T. McInery, Esq., (*Secretary*)

The following are the Associations' Representatives on public bodies —

Bombay Legislative Council Mr J. B. Petit

Bombay Port Trust Mr A. Geddla
City of Bombay Improvement Trust Mr A. P. Sabanala

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Mr Jehangir B. Petit and Mr V. N. Chaudhary

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission Messrs H. H. Laku and W. A. Sutherland

Advisory Board of Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics Mr J. V. Middleley

Central Cotton Committee Mr B. D. Saklatvala

Development of Bombay Advisory Committee Mr Jehangir B. Petit

G. I. F. Railway Advisory Committee Mr A. Geddla

R. H. & C. I. Railway Advisory Committee Mr H. P. Mody

Bombay Municipal Corporation Mr H. P. Mody

University of Bombay Mr Jehangir B. Petit

Royal Institute of Science Mr H. P. Mody

The Office of the Association is located in Temple Bar Building, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay, and the telephone number is 25850

Millowners Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd

The Millowners Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd, was registered on 30th June 1924 as a Company Limited by guarantee. The registered office of the Association is located in Temple Bar Building, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

The objects of the Association are —

- (a) The mutual insurance of members of the Company against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependents for injuries or accidents fatal or otherwise, arising out of and in the course

of their employment; (b) the insurance of members of the Company against loss or damage by or incidental to fire, lightning, etc., and (c) to reinsure or in any way provide for against the liability of the Company upon any assurances granted or entered into by the Company and generally to effect and obtain re-insurances, counter insurances and counter-guarantees, etc., etc., etc.

The Association consisted of 61 members on 1st October, 1930

All members of the Millowners' Association are eligible for admission to the Mutual Company. Non members are also eligible for membership of the Mutual provided their application is approved of by the Committee of the Millowners' Association.

The affairs of the Mutual Insurance Association are under the control of a Board of Directors

The Present Directors are —

A. Geddla, Esq., (*Chairman*), Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., Sir Ness Wadia, K.C.M.G., Sir Joseph Kay, Kt., The Honble Sir Munmohandas Ramji, Kt., Ratansi D. Morarij, Esq., C. N. Wadia Esq., C.M. S. D. Saklatvala Esq., G. M. Roec, Esq. and B. K. Mantri Esq., B.A., Barrister at Law, Secretary of the Association

Indian Merchants' Chamber.

The Indian Merchants Chamber was established in the year 1907. Its objects are —

- (a) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian merchants
- (b) To secure organised action on all subjects relating to the interests of the Indian business community directly and indirectly
- (c) To promote the objects of the Indian business community in matters of inland and foreign trade, shipping and transport, industry and manufacture, banking and insurance
- (d) To collect and disseminate statistical and other information securing the promotion of the objects of the Chamber and to make efforts for the spread of commercial and economic knowledge
- (e) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or other action affecting the aforesaid interests by the Government or any Department thereof or by any local body or bodies and in general to take the initiative to secure the welfare of the business community in all respects
- (f) To make representations to Local, Central or Imperial authorities, Executive or Legislative on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping, banking or insurance.

- (g) To undertake by arbitration the settlement of commercial disputes between merchants and businessmen and also to provide for arbitration in respect of disputes arising in the course of trade, industry or transport, and to secure the services of expert technical and other men to that end if necessary or desirable
- (h) To advance and promote commercial and technical education and to found and support establishments and institutions for such purposes
- (i) To undertake special enquiries and action for securing redress for legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry as also all such other actions as may be conducive to the extension of trade, commerce or manufactures or incidental to the attainment of the above objects
- (j) To secure the interests and well-being of the Indian business communities abroad
- (k) And generally to do all that may be necessary in the interests of the realisation of the above objects of the Chamber directly or indirectly

There are three classes of members —

- (1) Ordinary, (2) Patrons and (3) Honorary members —

(a) — Residents of Bombay and its suburbs who will have to pay Rs 75 as annual subscription, but joint stock Companies will have to pay Rs 100 per year

(b) — Mutual members who will have to pay Rs 25 as annual subscription

(c) — Associations which will have to pay Rs. 125 as annual subscription

Admission Fee — All the ordinary members and patrons pay Rs 100 as admission fee which is credited to a capital fund of the Chamber and not expended on revenue account except with the consent of the general body

- (2) Patrons — Indian firms or individual Indian merchants can join as Patrons. Firms will have to pay Rs 5,000 and individuals Rs 2,500 as donation, the proceeds of which will be credited to a capital fund which shall not be expended on revenue account but the interest whereof shall be taken to revenue account

- (3) Honorary members — Gentlemen distinguished for public services or eminent in commerce and manufactures or otherwise interested in the aims and objects of the Chamber may be elected as Honorary members by a General Meeting of the Chamber on the recommendation of the Committee and as such shall be exempted from paying subscriptions. They shall not be entitled to vote at any meeting of the Chamber nor shall they be eligible to serve on the Committee

Any Indian gentleman firm or association engaged in mercantile pursuits or interested in trade and commerce desirous of joining the Chamber shall be eligible for membership

The following bodies are connected directly and indirectly with the Chamber —

The Grain Merchants Association (which is a member)

The Hindustani Native Merchants Association (which is a member)

The Bombay Rice Merchants Association

The Bombay Yarn Copper and Brass Native Merchants Association

The Bombay Shroff Association

The Bombay Diamond Merchants Association

The Bombay Pearl Merchants and Jewellers Association

The Bombay Bullion Exchange Ltd

The Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants Association, Bombay

The Sugar Merchants Association

The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce Bombay

The Bombay Grain Dealers Association, Bombay

The Bombay Glass Bangles Merchants Association Bombay

Bombay Chemists and Druggists Association Bombay

The Bombay Iron Merchants Association

The Bombay Aerated water Bottling Merchants Association

The Bombay Woollen Merchants Association

The Chamber of Income Tax Consultants

The Indian National Steamship Owners Association

The Serdes Traders Association

The Indian Insurance Co. Association

Under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, the Chamber has the right of electing one representative on the Indian Legislative Assembly and one on the Bombay Legislative Council. The Chamber also has the right to elect five representatives on the Bombay Port Trust, one representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation and one representative on the Improvement Committee

The following are the Office-bearers of the Indian Merchants' Chamber for the year 1930 —

MANAGING COMMITTEE FOR THE YEAR 1930

Mr Hoochinbhai A. Laljee—President

Mr Behram N. Karanjia—Vice President

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

Sir Purbhokandas Thakurdas, Kt CIE, MBE

Mr Lallji Naranji

Mr I. R. Talpree

Mr B. N. Haji Bar-at-Law

Professor S. R. Datar Bar at Law

Mr Vithaldas D. Govindji

The Honble Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, Kt CBE

Mr Walchand Hirchandani

Mr Chunilal B. Mehta

Mr H. P. Mody M.A.

Mr S. N. Pochkhanawala

Professor Khushal T Shah
 Mr Ishwari Das Lakhmaldas
 Mr Chandrasen Gokuldas Morariji
 Mr Shapurji H. Bhatnagar Kt. M.B.E.
 Mr Dewadas (Chakralal) Vakil
 Mr Devdas Madhawal Thakore
 The Honble Mr Balraj D. Morariji
 Mr Ibrahim Gulamhussein (Munshi)
 Mr Cowaji Jhangur (Ji) K.C.P. U.H.I.
 M.A.
 Mr Jannadas H. Sanghvi
 Mr Mubashir Vakil Merchant
 Mr D. M. Madon

(OFFICE)

Shi Ibrahim I. Jhangur K.C.P. U.H.I.
 Shi (Munshi) V. Mohi K.C.P. U.H.I.
 Mr Manu Subedar

ASSOCIATIONS

The Bombay Yarn Copper and Brass Native Merchants Association (Mr. Mankalchand G. Shah)
 The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce (Mr. M. J. Bhatnagar)
 The Goods Trade Association (Mr. Ratilal M. Chaudhary)
 The Bombay Iron Merchants Association (Mr. Yashwantrao H. Pandya)
 The Indian Insurance Companies Association (Mr. K. S. R. Aker)

EX-OFFICIO

Mr. Yashwantrao Chaudhary (Bombay Municipal Corporation)
 Mr. Vellji Lakhmaldas Naqoo (Bombay Port Trust)
 Mr. Kapurthala H. Vakil Royal Institute of Science
 Mr. Manmohanlal A. Master (Governor's Body of the University) (Bombay)
 Mr. Anandlal H. Master (Student of the Bombay University)

The following are the Chamber's representatives on various public bodies—

Indian Legislative Assembly: Mr. Purshotam Das Thakurdas Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E.
 Bombay Legislative Council: Mr. Lalji Narani
 Chamber's Representatives on the Board of Trustees of the Bombay Port: Mr. Purshotam Das Thakurdas Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E.
 Mr. Lalji Narani, Mr. Ishwari Das Rowji, Mr. Devdas Madhawal Thakore, Mr. Vellji Lakhmaldas Naqoo
 Chamber's Representatives on the Bombay Municipal Corporation: Mr. Vithaldas Kanji
 Representative on the Bombay Improvement Trust: Mr. Manu Subedar

MAHARASHTRA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce was started in September 1927 with the object of establishing friendly relations among merchants and factory-owners of Maharashtra, safeguarding their interests against measures likely to affect them adversely, collecting financial, industrial and trade statistics and disseminating information thereabout amongst members of the Chamber.

Membership of the Chamber is confined to merchants and factory owners belonging to the City of Bombay, Bombay Suburban District, Poona, Solapur, Satara, Ratnagiri, Kolaba,

Chamber's Representative on the Advisory Committee of the Bombay Development Department: Mr. Manu Subedar
 Chamber's Representative on the Indian Central Cotton Committee: Mr. Purshotam Das Thakurdas Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E.
 Chamber's Representative on the Senate of the Bombay University: Mr. Vithaldas P. Master
 Secretary: Mr. J. K. Mohi M.A.
 Asst. Secretary: Mr. A. C. Ramallugam
 Chamber's Solicitors: Messrs. Captain and Valdevi Ispahani Road Fort Bombay
 The Chamber's Anglo-Indian Quarterly Journal is published in Bombay July, October, January and April.

Bombay Piece Goods Native Merchants' Association

The objects of this Association are as follows—
 (a) To promote by creating friendly feelings and unity amongst the Merchants the business of the piece-goods trade in general at Bombay and to protect the interests thereof, (b) to remove as far as it will be within the powers of the Association to do so, all the trade difficulties of the piece-goods business and to frame such line of conduct as will facilitate the trade, (c) to collect and sort statistics relating to piece-goods and to correspond with public bodies on matters affecting trade and which may be deemed advisable for the protection and advancement of objects of the Association or any of them, and (d) to hear and decide disputes that may be referred to for arbitration.

The following are the office bearers for the current year—

Chairman—Honble Sir Manmohan Das Ramji

Kt. J.P.

Deputy Chairman—Mr. Harjivan Viji

Secretary—Mr. Mangal Dasjivandas Gandhi
 M.A., LL.B.

Hon. Treasurer—Mr. Jethabhai Kallani

Grain Merchants Association

The object of this body is to promote the interests of the merchants and to put the grain and oil seeds trade on a sound footing. It is an influential body of large membership. The office holders for the current year are as follows—

Chairman—Mr. Vellji Lakhmaldas B.A., LL.B.

Vice-Chairman—Mr. Katanji Hiji

Hon. Secretary—Mr. Jadvaji Vasanji

Secretary—Mr. Uttamram Ambaram, B.A., LL.B.

The address of the Association is 282, Masjid Bunder Road, Mandvi Post, Bombay.

Nasik, Ahmednagar, Thana and East and West Khandesh and Belgaum and Indian States adjoining these districts.

President—Mr. Valsand Hirachand Doshi
 O.I.E. J.P.

Vice-Presidents—Messrs. B. B. Hanumantrao Ramnath and M. L. Dahanukar

Secretary—Mr. D. V. Kolkar M.A.

The offices of the Chamber are in the Phoenix Building, Graham Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

KARACHI

The objects and duties of the Karachi Chamber of Commerce are set forth in terms similar to those of Bombay. Qualifications for membership are also similar. Honorary Membership may be conferred by the Committee upon any gentlemen interested in the affairs and objects of the Chamber. All new members joining the Chamber pay Rs 750 entrance fee and the monthly subscription is Rs 18. The subscription to the Chamber's periodical returns is at present fixed at Rs 7-9-0 per month. The affairs of the Chamber are managed by a committee of ten members consisting of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and eight members, elected at the annual general meeting of the Chamber as early in the year as possible. The Chamber elects a representative on the Bombay Legislative Council, four representatives on the Karachi Port Trust two on the Karachi Municipality and two on the North Western Railway Advisory Committee, Karachi. There were 77 members of the Chamber in December 1929. The following were the officers in 1930—

Chairman Mr E A Pearson Forbes, Forbes Campbell & Co Ltd

Vice Chairman Mr J R N Graham VC, Grahams Trading Co, Ltd

Members of Committee Mr C T Berton, The North Western Railway Mr H G Cooper M O D C M Durrah Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co of India, Ltd Mr A H G Hogg Macdonald Mackenzie & Co Mr H Macfarlane Stratus & Co Ltd Mr F H Milligan Lloyd Bank Ltd, Mr G N R Morgan The Bombay Co Ltd Mr E S. Lewis Volkart Brothers Mr W Statham, Stelmans Ltd

Representatives on the Bombay Legislative Council Mr J Humphrey OBE

Representatives on the Karachi Port Trust Messrs F A Pearson J R N Graham VC, A K G Hogg and L L Price CBE OBE

Representatives on the Karachi Municipality Mr C F Laborde and Mr E Sumner

Representatives on the North Western Railway Local Advisory Committee Karachi Messrs E A Pearson and R S Backhouse

Secretary and Public Measureur Mr Alan Duguid, A.F.C.

The following are the principal ways in which the Chamber gives special assistance to members—The Committee take into consideration and give an opinion upon questions submitted by members regarding the custom of the trade or of the Port of Karachi. The Committee undertake to nominate arbitrators and surveyors for the settlements of disputes. When two members of the Chamber or whom one member and a party who is not a member have agreed to refer disputes to the arbitration of the Chamber or of an arbitrator or arbitrators nominated by the Chamber, the Committee will undertake to nominate an arbitrator or arbitrators under certain regulations. Similarly the Chamber under certain regulations, will undertake to appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators for the settlement of disputes in which neither of the parties are members of the Chamber. A public measureur is appointed under the authority of the Chamber to measure parcels bulks of cotton wool, hides and other merchan- dises arriving at or leaving the port.

MADRAS

The Madras Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1836. All merchants and other persons engaged or interested in the general trade, commerce and manufactures of Madras are eligible for membership. Any assistant signing a firm or signing per pro for a firm is eligible. Members who are absent from Madras but pay their subscriptions may be represented in the Chamber by their powers of attorney as honorary members, subject to ballot. Honorary members thus elected are entitled to the full privilege of ordinary members. Election for membership is by ballot at a general meeting, a majority of two-thirds of the recorded votes being necessary to secure election. Every member pays an entrance fee of Rs 100, provided that banks, corporate bodies and mercantile firms may be represented on the Chamber by one or more members and are liable for an entrance fee of Rs 100 once in ten years each. The subscriptions shall not exceed Rs 500 per annum payable quarterly in advance, subject to reduction from time to time in accordance with the state of the Chambers finances. Absentees in Europe pay no subscription and members temporarily absent from Madras pay one rupee per month. Honorary members are admissible to the Chamber on the usual conditions. Members becoming insolvent cease to be members but are eligible for re-election without repayment of the entrance donation.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations and surveys the granting of certificates of origin and the registration of trade marks. One of the rules for the last named is that no trademark or ticket shall be registered on behalf of an Indian firm trading under a European name.

The following publications are issued by the Chamber—Madras Price Current and Market Report, Fumage Schedule and Madras Landing, Charges and Harbour Dues Schedule.

There are 56 members and 6 Honorary Members of the Chamber in the current year and the Officers and Committees for the year are as follows—

Chairman Mr H B P Pearson MLC

Vice-Chairman Mr J Birley

Committee Mr W M Browning Mr G W

Chambers Mr W H MacBain, Mr J W

MacKinnon, Mr W O Wright

The following are bodies to which the Chamber is entitled to elect representatives and the representatives elected for the year—

Madras Legislative Council Messrs H F

P Pearson and F Birley

Madras Port Trust Mr G W Chambers

R D Denniston, A S Fodd W O Wright

Corporation of Madras Mr E E James

M.O., Mr D M Reid, Mr A Sinclair Rose

Federation of Chamber of Commerce of the

British Empire Sir Gordon Fraser

Secretary Mr W Waddington

SOUTHERN INDIA

The Southern India Chamber of Commerce has its Registered Office in Madras. The objects of the Chamber are those usual for such bodies, concerning the promotion of trade, especially in the Madras Presidency, and the interests of members. Special objects are stated to be —

To maintain a Library of books and publications of commercial interest so as to diffuse commercial information and knowledge amongst its members.

To establish Museums of commercial products or organise exhibitions either on behalf of the Chamber or in co-operation with others.

There are two classes of members permanent and honorary. The usual conditions as to eligibility for election prevail.

The right of electing two representatives to the Madras Port Trust was accorded to the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1913. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Council and the Chamber has also been accorded the right of electing a representative to that body. Under the Madras City Municipal Act, 1910, the Chamber has the right of electing two Councillors to the Madras Corporation. Under the State Aid to Industries Act 1923 the Chamber has the right to elect one member to the Board of Industries.

The Chamber also sends its representatives to the Road Board, the Town Planning Trust, the Provincial Cotton Committee, Vizagapatam Harbour Works Committee, the Advisory Committees of the South Indian and Madras and Southern Mahratta Railways, the Madras University, the Government Institute of Commerce Advisory Council, Madras the Social Hygiene Council (Madras Branch), the Anna Malai University, State Technical Scholarship Board, Government Body of the Training Ship, Durbin Advisory Committees of the Government Rayaguram and Ophthalmic Hospital and Madras Electric Supply and Tramway Advisory Committee, Income-tax Board in Reference and Indian Institute of Accountants.

The Chamber has 418 members on the roll and has its own building. Several Associations in the City of Madras and Chambers of Commerce Upcountry have been affiliated to this Chamber.

President—Mr. Jamal Mahomed Saib M.A.

Vice-Presidents—Dewan Bahadur Govindas (Vathourbhujadas and Mr. C.opal Menon

Honorary Secretaries—Yusuf Saib and V. C. Rangaswamy

Assistant Secretary—P. R. Nair B.A. B.Com.

NORTHERN INDIA

Northern India Chamber of Commerce & Gazette Building The Mall, Lahore.

Chairman—D. W. Tewdale

Vice Chairman—Hon. ble Rai Bahadur L. Ram Haran Das, C.R.E., M.S.

Committee—Pinda Saran H. H. Chase,

J. C. Davidson Dinga Singh, W. H. Grace,

P. H. Guest S. H. Hariwala, C. G. C. Balman,

I. T. B. Hockford H. J. Rustomji, J. R. Salim,

Sapuran Singh H. W. Sykes

Chamber Members—Spedding Danga Singh & Co., Lahore Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co., Lahore, *Civil and Military Gazette* Lahore

Allahabad Bank Ltd., Lahore Dinanath

Niepersbad, Lahore Bini & Co., Lahore

H. J. Rustomji Lahore Col. F. H. Cole, C.B., C.M.G., Okara, General Electric Co. (India) Ltd.

Lahore Marshall Sons & Co. (India) Ltd.

Lahore Major D. Vancuren, Renala Duncan

Stratton & Co. Lahore W. C. A., (Punjab)

Itd. Khanawal, Bharat Insurance Co. Ltd.

Lahore Jallo Resin Factory Lahore Pahlad

das and Bhagwandas Lahore National Bank

of India Ltd., Lahore Attock Oil Co. Ltd.

Rawalpindi, Central Bank of India Ltd.

Lahore Punjab National Bank Ltd. Lahore

R. B. Mela Ramas Sons Lahore Murree Bre

wery Co. Ltd., Rawalpindi, Ganesh Flour

Mills Co. Ltd., Lyallpur Mehaz Singh Sapuran

Singh Chawla Lahore Southern Punjab Rail

way Co., Ltd., Ferozepore North Western

Railway, Lahore Punjab Cotton Press Co.

Ltd., Lahore, Wah Stone & Lime Quarry Ltd.,

Wah Lahore Electric Supply Co. Ltd., Lahore

Imperial Bank of India, Lahore, Parkash

Bros Lahore Bhaant Ram and Sons, Lahore

Grimalley & Co., Ltd., Lahore, Convillepur

Farm, Montgomery Imperial Tobacco Co. of

India Ltd. Lahore Sir Dina Khishan Kaur

Sons & Co. Lahore Bal Sahib Murli Mal &

Sons, Rawalpindi Makeral Cullery, Pinda

dasankhan Rawalpindi Electric Power Co.

Itd. Rawalpindi Lakshmi Insurance Co. Ltd.

Lahore Raf Bahadur L. Benaru Das Ambali,

Punjab Forest Department Lahore Indian

Mildura Fruit Farm Renala Volkart Bros

Agency Lahore Owen Roberts & Co. Ltd.

Lahore Liberal Itd. Sialkote Rai Sahib

Munshi Gulab Singh & Sons Lahore, D. Mir

Arindell & Co. Lahore Punjab Pulp and Paper

Mills Co. Ltd., Lahore All India Construction

Co. Ltd., Lahore E. O. Mees Lahore, R. K.

Herman and Mohatta Itd. Lahore Lloyds

Bank Ltd. Lahore P. Herman's Arracan Rice

and Trading Co. Lahore Burnish Shell Oil

Storage and Distributing Co. of India, Itd.

Lahore Jexson and Co. Ltd. Lahore Bell's

United Asbestos (India) Itd. Lahore Michael

Martin & Co. Lahore Alfred Harbert (India)

Ltd. Lahore Messrs Imperial Chemical

Industries (India), Ltd. The Mall, Lahore

Messrs The Kangra Valley Hute Co. Ltd.

Brentford hq. F. I. B. A., A. I. (Struct. P.) Lahore

B. Lahore Messrs Andrew Yule & Co., Itd.

Lahore Messrs B. S. Jai Chand & Co., Agent

the Attock Oil Co. Ltd. Lahore

Honorary Members—Pro W. H. Myles M.A.,

Mr. D. Milne C.R.E., Itd. Col. K. A. Appleby,

O.B.M. Mr. J. Bailey Mr. I. A. Treak

Secretary—H. J. Martin

Tel. Address—Commerce

Telephone—2237

UPPER INDIA

The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in the United Provinces and has its registered office at Cawnpore. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber. Gentlemen distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership, but subscriptions are payable as follows—A firm, company or association having its place of business in Cawnpore Rs 300 a year, an individual member resident or carrying on business in Cawnpore Rs 240. Firms or individuals having their places of business or residence outside Cawnpore pay half the above rates, but the maintenance of a branch office in Cawnpore necessitates payment of full rates.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees of from four to seven members each at trade centres where membership is sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

The Chamber appoints arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes when invited, to do so, members of the tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has in the present year 69 members, one honorary member and six affiliated members.

The following are the officers—

Upper India Chamber of Commerce Committee—President—Mr A. J. Carnegie (The British India Corporation, Ltd.) Vice President—Mr J. M. Iowrie (Messrs Begg, Sontherland & Co. Ltd.) Members—Mr T. Cavin Jones (Messrs D. Waidie & Co. Ltd.) Mr B. Menzies OBE (The British India Corporation Ltd.) Mr W. R. Watt MA BSC DIC IC9 (The British India Corporation Ltd.) Mr K. J. D. Price (The Mur Mills Co. Ltd.) Mr R. Williamson (The New Victoria Mills Co. Ltd.) Mr F. J. W. Plummer (The Rawditch Cotton Mills Co. Ltd.) Mr L. C. Sandy (The East Indian Railway) Lalai Ram Varan Sahai (Cawnpore) Representatives on the United Provinces Legislative Council—Mr J. M. Souter MLC (Messrs Ford & Macdonald Ltd.) Mr J. P. Srivastava MLC MLC (Cawnpore)

Secretary—Mr J. G. Ryan MBE F.D.

Head Clerk—Dalm B. N. Ghoshal

PUNJAB

The Punjab Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters at Delhi and exists for the care of mercantile interests on the usual lines in the Punjab, the North West Frontier Province and Kashmir. The Chamber has branches at Amritsar and Lahore. Membership is by ballot and is restricted to Banks, Merchants (wholesale), Railways and proprietors of large industrial interest. The entrance fee is Rs 100 and the rate of subscription Rs 180 per year. The Chamber returns one member to a seat on the Reformed Punjab Legislative Council jointly with the Punjab Trades Association and shares representation in the Indian Legislative Assembly with other Chambers which are members of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, in the seat allotted to the Associated Chambers. The Chamber is a member of the Federation of Chambers of Commerce London. The Chamber is represented on the Municipal Corporation of Delhi as well as on the East Indian Railway Advisory Committee, Cawnpore, the Cotton Excise Duties Advisory Committee, Bombay, and the Auxiliary Forces Committee, Delhi & Lahore Military Areas.

The Managing Committee meets alternately

at Delhi and Lahore and the following are office bearers—

Chairman—Mr P. Mukerjee (Messrs P. Mukerjee & Co. Ltd. Delhi) Deputy Chairman—Mr W. C. J. Gilbert (Shalimar Saharanpur Railway, Delhi) Mr E. J. Sherriff (Messrs. R. J. Wood & Co. Delhi) Mr R. H. Marken sr, (Burmah Shell Oil Storage and Distribution Co. of India Ltd. New Delhi) Mr W. Cole (The New Fawcett Woolen Mills Co. Dharawal) Mr Khari Ram (The Delhi Cloth & General Mills Co. Ltd. Delhi) Mr K. C. Roy (The Eastern News Agency Limited, Delhi) Khan Sahib S. M. Abdullah (Messrs. S. M. Razal Pichai Delhi) Mr D. G. W. Tisdale (Messrs. Jird & Co. Lahore) Hon. Mr Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Dutt, etc. (The Molaram Cotton Mills, Lahore) Mr Aftab Rai Bar-at-Law (The Ganga Ice Factory, Lahore) Mr J. H. Chase (Chief Commercial Manager, North Western Railway, Lahore) Mr A. C. Mullen (The Amritsar Distiller Co. Ltd. Amritsar) Mr W. Rubens Taylor (The East India Carpet Co. Limited, Amritsar) Mr Jachin Narsin, (Messrs. T. D. Jachin Narsin, Amritsar) and Mr Moti Ram Mehra (Messrs. Moti Ram Mehra & Co. Amritsar)

Secretaries—Messrs. A. F. Ferguson & Co., Chartered Accountants, Delhi

UNITED PROVINCES

The number of members on register is 126 (97 Local and 29 Mofussil). All the important commercial and industrial interest of the Provinces of Agra and Oudh are represented—

President—Mr W C De Noronha Proprietor of Messrs. M A De Noronha & Son Calcutta

Vice-Presidents—Babu Sri Ram Khanna (Managing Director of Messrs. Ramchand Gurnahal Mal Cotton Mills Co Ltd Lucknow), Jala Ram Kumar Newatia of Messrs. Ram Kumar Rameshwari Das Calcutta

Secretary—Rai Bahadur Babu Vikramajit Singh Advocate M L O, Director of British India Corporation Ltd, Calcutta

Joint-Secretary—Babu Gur Prasad Kapoor of Messrs. Bansi Ram Mata Din, Calcutta

Members of the Committee—Jala Rameshwar Prasad Bagla, Rai Bahadur Lala Gopi Nath, Jala Dwarika Prasad Singh, Mr Hira Lal Khanna, Mr Chaman Lal Mishra, Mr Ardhina Lal Gupta, Jala Nand Ram Mehrotra, Jala Pradip Lal Singhania, Babu Bhuri Lal, Mr T S Mahowala, Mr B. Moti Lal, Mr Ram Bhanu Gupta, Mr J B Varadanna, J. Kulkarni, Mr J. Rajul, Mr. Mr. K. K. Kith

Asst. Secretary—Mr B N Chandra

Head Assistant—Mr S B Tandon, B. C. C.

BURMA

The Burma Chamber of Commerce, with headquarters at Rangoon exists to encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect trade, commerce and manufactures and in particular the general mercantile interests of the province to communicate with public authorities, associations and individuals on all matters directly or indirectly affecting these interests and to provide for arbitration between parties willing to refer to and abide by the judgment of arbitrators appointed by the Chamber. The following are affiliated bodies—

Burma Fire Insurance Association
Burma Marine Insurance Agents Association
Rangoon Import Association
Burma Motor Insurance Agents Association

The Chamber elects representatives to the following Public Bodies—

Council of State
Burma Legislative Council
Rangoon Port Trust Board
Rangoon Corporation
Victoria Memorial Park Trustees
Foster Institute Committee
Burma University Council
Rangoon Development Trust
Police Advisory Board

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board, Rangoon

Advisory Committee Constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act 1920

Rangoon General Hospital Advisory Committee

Local Railway Advisory Council
Rangoon Water Supply Committee
Bishop Rydman Home Board

All British corporations, companies, firms or persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits, such as merchants, bankers, ship-owners and brokers or who are connected with agriculture, mining, manufactures, insurance, railways, commerce, art, science or literature shall be eligible to become Chamber Members. Every non-British concern or person, similarly engaged or interested as indicated above,

shall be eligible for election as an Associate Member. The annual subscription of each Chamber Member shall be Rs 480 per annum and of each Associate Member Rs 360 per annum. An entrance fee of Rs 150 is payable by each new Member. Officers and others directly connected with the trade of the province or who may have rendered distinguished service to the interests represented by the Chamber may be elected by the Committee either on their own motion or on the suggestion of two Members as Honorary Members of the Chamber. Honorary Members are not required to subscribe to the funds of the Chamber.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations in addition to its ordinary work. It does not publish any statistical returns.

Secretary—D P (Rishi) Lal

Representative on the Council of State—

Hon. Mr A B Harper

Representatives on the Burma Legislative Council—Mr Jomani Lal, Mr C H Prior

Representatives on the Rangoon Port Trust Board—Mr Jomani Lal, Mr C H Prior

Representative on the Rangoon Corporation—

J. Tait Lal

Victoria Memorial Park Trust—Mr B

Howson Esq, M L C

Foster Institute Committee—Mr B Howson

Esq, M L C

Burma University Council—Mr B Prior

Esq, M L C

Rangoon General Hospital Advisory Com-

mittee—Mr J N Miller Stirling, Esq

Police Advisory Board—J. Tait Esq

Rangoon Development Trust—T. Cornack

Esq

Bishop Rydman Home Board—T. Cornack,

Esq

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board—Mr L

Baird

Local Railway Advisory Council—Mr P. P. P.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee—Mr B

Howson Esq and T. Rive Esq

Advisory Committee constituted under the Aux-

iliary Force Act 1920—L. T. Moreshead, Esq

COCANADA

The Cocanada Chamber of Commerce was established on 29th October 1868

The following are the members of the Chamber which has its headquarters at Cocanada the chief port on the Coromandel Coast north of Madras —

Members—The Coromandel Co, Ltd Ripley & Co Indes & Co Wilson & Co Gordon Woodroffe & Co (Madras) Ltd J H Vyas & Co Ltd, Burmah Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co of India Ltd Northern Circars Development Co Lionel Edwards Ltd The Agent Imperial Bank of India

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

Mr S A Chresman (Chairman)

O D T Shorts

G M Jaku

G Gompertz (Secretary)

The rules of the Chamber provide that by the terms member be understood a mercantile firm or establishment or the permanent Agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada or other place in the Districts of Kistna Godavari Visagapatam and Ganjam and duly elected according to the Rules of the Chamber and that all such be eligible but only members resident in Coca-

nada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee when called upon by deputing members or non members of the Chamber give their decision upon all questions of mercantile law, and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs 18 must accompany the reference with Rs 5 from a non member and Rs 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members including the (chairman is elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs 50. The subscription for each member whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs 120 per annum payable quarterly and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs 60 per annum payable quarterly. Committee meetings are held on the 1st Wednesday in the month and general meetings on the 3rd Tuesday or when ordered.

A Fortnightly Circular of current rates of produce freights, and exchange is drawn up by the Committee.

CEYLON

The Chamber of Commerce was established on the 25th March 1888 and was in corporate form, with its headquarters at Colombo. It has and persons are admitted as members and every person or firm desirous of joining the Chamber must after having furnished one month's notice of their intention to apply for membership be proposed by one member, seconded by another and be voted for by the whole Chamber. The affairs of the Chamber are conducted by a Board of Directors consisting of Chairman and Vice Chairman and 10 members.

The following is the membership of the Board at the present time:

Honble Mr M J Cary (Chairman) Mr J A Jarlat (Sec Chairman) Mr W Hook Mr George R Brown Mr D K Kilgus Mr T W Hookley Mr B M Mhir Mr G A Ponsford Mr A R Quinn Mr B J Roe Mr W D H Young

Secretary - Mr C F Whitaker

Representative in the Legislative Council—
Hon. Mr. M. J. Curry

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND STATISTICS

The Department of Statistics was reabsorbed into the Department of Commercial Intelligence with effect from the 1st December 1922. The joint department has its office at 11, Court House Street, Calcutta. The headquarters of the Director General is embraced two distinct classes of work (a) the collection and dissemination of information connected with overseas trade which may be of use to Indian firms and (b) the compilation and publication of All India statistics. Among the important publications for which the Director General is responsible are the following annual volumes: Review of the Trade of India, Statement of the Foreign Sea-borne Trade and Navigation of British India, Statistical Abstract for British India, Agricultural Statistics, Estimates of Area and Yield of Principal Crops and Indian Customs Tariff. The department also publishes a weekly journal—the Indian

Trade Journal" — the principal features of which are (a) information as to tariff changes in foreign countries which affect Indian interests (b) notices of tenders called for and contracts placed by Government departments and public bodies, (c) crop reports and forecasts (d) Government orders, communications and other notifications affecting trade, (e) analysis of Indian trade statistics (f) market reports prices and trade movements of the staple exports and imports (g) trade enquiries for foreign trade negotiations (h) summaries of the findings of reports of consular and other trade reports and (i) abstracts of the proceedings of the various Chambers of Commerce in India.

The Department also administers the COMMERCIAL LIBRARY AND READING ROOM located at No 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. This was at first a small departmental library need for the purpose of answering enquiries, but in

1919 the Government of India agreed to the formation of a combined technological library of reference in Calcutta in place of the separate libraries attached to the Departments of Commercial Intelligence, Statistics and Patents and Designs, and the resultant Commercial Library and Reading Room was placed under the administrative control of the Director-General. It has now been expanded into a first class technical library containing over 11,000 volumes as well as Indian and foreign statistical publications and over 400 technical and commercial journals and market reports. Ordinarily books are consulted in the Library but they are

also available on loan upon deposit of value throughout India.

The Department works in close co-operation with Directors of Industries and other Government Departments in India with the Indian Trade Commissioner in London, with His Majesty's Trade Commissioners in India and the Consuls and with Consular Officers in various parts of the world. And the yearly increase in its correspondence shows that it is steadily being used more and more both by firms in India and by overseas firms interested in Indian exports.

THE BRITISH TRADE COMMISSIONER SERVICE IN INDIA

The British Trade Commissioners in India are part of the world wide Commercial Intelligence Organisation of the Imperial Government. The Department of Overseas Trade in London, which is the headquarters of this organisation, is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and was created in 1917 with the specific object of stimulating the export trade of the United Kingdom by securing commercial information from all parts of the world in disseminating it to British manufacturers and exporters by undertaking such special constructive activities as may be found possible and by assisting traders in the removal of their difficulties. The Department has nothing to do with the regulation of trade. It issues no measures and makes no restrictive or regulative orders. Briefly the policy on which it is based is the policy of assistance without interference.

The Department of Overseas Trade maintains a network of trained and experienced Commercial Intelligence Officers throughout the world who forward a constant supply of commercial information to London and provide local assistance in the promotion of British economic interests. These overseas officers who are stationed in the British Empire are members of the Trade Commissioner Service while those in countries are served by the Commercial Diplomatic Service forming part of the British Diplomatic Missions and in the Consular Service.

Mr T. M. Ambrough C.B.E. was appointed His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India in January 1918 and opened an office in Calcutta in March of that year. For five years owing to the pressing need for economy in the Public Service he was singlehanded in covering this vast territory. In 1923 however H.M. Government sanctioned the opening of an office in Bombay and the creation of an additional Trade Commissioner's post in Calcutta. Mr W. D. M. Clark holds the appointment of H.M. Trade Commissioner at Bombay and in 1930 Mr R. B. Wilnot was appointed as H.M. Trade Commissioner at Calcutta. The territory is now divided between the Calcutta and Bombay posts and this development allows the Senior Officer to travel almost continuously to any part of India which may call for his attention and to devote his time to some of the broader politico-economic problems which are becoming so important in view of the changing political conditions in India.

Function of Commissioner.—The primary duty of the British Trade Commissioner comprises the collection of information in regard to opportunities that may arise within his territory for securing and developing trade by British manufacturers and merchants both in the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire. It is the duty of the Commissioner to watch and report from time to time to the Board of Trade and the Government of the Dominion concerned on all matters affecting the trade interests and commerce of his area. His general functions are to maintain cordial relations with the governing authorities of his area, to enter into personal relations with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Associations, and similar bodies, and with the principal representative importers and local manufacturers, to visit the principal commercial centres to report upon foreign competition in financial and trade conditions and new legislation affecting trade, to make an annual general report in the conditions and prospects of trade in his area, and to furnish special reports and monographs on particular questions which are likely to be of interest to British manufacturers and exporters. He is also expected to supply a regular flow of commercial information of all kinds to his department to maintain an active correspondence with firms in the United Kingdom or the Dominions who wish to extend their trade with his area, and to give all possible assistance to the representatives of British firms who may visit his territory.

Fervent efforts are made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners to keep in touch with British representatives and agents in India. The offices are equipped with a complete range of directories and reference books of all kinds and information is available with regard to such matters as tariff conditions, port dues and charges throughout the world etc. A library consisting of over 1,000 catalogues of the leading British manufacturers, engineers is maintained in Calcutta and Bombay, and firms desiring information with regard to specific manufacturers of particular machinery or processes are invited either to call personally or to communicate their requirements in writing. It is hoped that local importers and buyers will co-operate by making a more extended use of the information available in the offices and by bringing to the attention of the British Trade Commissioners any cases where the interests of exporters from

the United Kingdom or the Dominions may be adversely affected by foreign competition or otherwise

For many years British traders have deplored the fact that there have not been available officials with commercial experience who could help them in voicing their difficulties and in meeting foreign competition. As a rule these complaints eulogized the Consuls of other countries and invited the attention of Government to their many virtues. In response to this agitation the greatest care has been taken by the British Government to select as their trade officers Overseas, men of sound commercial training and experience who have acquired some reputation in their respective spheres and a comprehensive and businesslike organization has been built up at the Department of Overseas Trade, London, to deal with the information sent home. It now boasts with the British mercantile community, both at home and also Overseas, to co-operate freely and frankly with the Trade Commissioners and to recognize the work they are doing in the Imperial interest by assisting them with such information and particulars with regard to foreign competing goods, conditions of trade etc., as they are able to afford.

H M S TRADE COMMISSIONERS IN INDIA

Calcutta—

Mr T M Ainscough, O.B.E.,
His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner
in India and Ceylon

Mr R B Willmot,
His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at
Calcutta

Post Box No 683 Fairlie House, Fairlie
Place

Telegraphic Address— Tradoom, Cal
cutta

Telephone No Calcutta 1042 "

Bombay—

Mr W D M Clarke
His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at
Bombay

Post Box No 816 3 Whitel Road, Ballard
Leath

Telegraphic Address— Tradoom Bombay
Telephone No — Bombay 28095

Ceylon—

Imperial Trade Correspondent,
The Principal Collector of Customs
Colombo

THE INDIAN CENTRAL COTTON COMMITTEE

The Indian Cotton Committee of 1917 is a full summary of whose report appears on pages 281-294 of the Indian Year Book of 1922 reviewed the position of cotton growing in India very thoroughly and made a series of recommendations for the improvement of cotton growing and marketing which have proved to be of the greatest value. One of their recommendations was that a permanent Indian Central Cotton Committee should be established to promote the welfare of the cotton growing industry generally to advise the Government of India and Local Governments in regard to matters of cotton policy especially with reference to legislation for the prevention of malpractices and similar matters.

The Indian Central Cotton Committee was appointed by resolution of the Government of India in April 1921 and worked as an advisory body until 1923. Another recommendation of the original Committee was that a cotton cess should be levied to provide funds for the work of the Central Cotton Committee and for agricultural and technological research on cotton. The Cotton Cess Act was passed in 1923 and at the same time the Central Cotton Committee was incorporated and its membership enlarged in order to make it fully representative of all sections of the industry. Its constitution and present membership is as follows—

President—The Vice Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research (ex-officio), Sir F. Vijayaraghavachariar, K.C.S.I.

Expert Adviser to the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research in Agricultural Matters (ex-officio) Mr B C Burt, M.B.E.

Representatives of Agricultural Departments—
Mr D G Munir, Dy. Director of Agriculture, Madras
Mr J I Vaidya, Dy. Director of Agriculture, Bombay
Mr P V Richards, Entomologist to Govt., United Provinces,

Mr D Milne, C.I.E. Director of Agriculture, Punjab
Mr F J Pymon, C.I.F. Director of Agriculture, Central Provinces
Mr T D Stock, J.A.S., Deputy Director of Agriculture, Burma

The Director General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics (ex-officio)—Dr D B Meek, O.B.E.

Representatives of Chambers of Commerce and Associations—Major W. Ellis Jones, Last India Cotton Association, Mr S D Saklatvala (Vice-President), Bombay Millowners Association, Mr Joseph A. K. J. Bombay Chamber of Commerce, Sir Parshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt. C.I.F. M.B.E., Indian Merchants Chamber, Bombay, Mr D. M. C. L. Karachi Chamber of Commerce, 40th Kasturba Lalbhai Ahmedabad Mill owners Association, Mr J. Vonesh, Tuticorin Chamber of Commerce, Mr J. Tinker, Upper India Chamber of Commerce, Lala Virajjan Prasad, Karachi Indian Merchants Association, Mr W. Roberts, Empire Cotton Growing Corporation.

Representatives of Cotton Manufacturing or Cotton Ginning Industry dominated by Local Governments—Sir S. B. Mehta, Kt. C.I.F., Rao Bahadur K. J. Deshmukh, Central Province, Mr H. J. Moore, Madras, Rao Bahadur Lala Swak Ram, M.L.C., Punjab, Mr Girija Prasanna Chakravarty, Bengal.

(Co-operative Banking Representative)—Sardar Shampujan Singh.

Representatives of Cotton Growing Industry—
Mr R. B. Appaswami, Naidu, Garu, M.B.E., K. Sarabha Reddi, Garu, Madras, Rao Bahadur Bhimabai Ranchodji, Nalk, M.B.E., Rao Sahab Chinnappa, Shidramappa, Shidrametti, Bombay, Rao Bahadur Amba Prasad, M.L.C., Rao Sahab Bikkam, Nalk, M.L.C., United Provinces, Major D. Vanden, Sardar Ujjal

Singh, M.L.O., Punjab Rao Bahadur M. G. Deshpande, Mr. M. P. Kothhe, M.L.O., Central Provinces and Berar.

Representatives of Indian States—Mr. B. A. Collins C.I.E. I.O.S., Director General of Industry and Commerce, Hyderabad State; Mr. V. N. Likhite, D.Sc., Director of Agriculture, Baroda State; Mr. H. B. Pasaye, Administrative Officer, Department of Agriculture, Gwalior State; Mr. A. Howard, O.F.S., Director, Institute of Plant Industry, Indore; and Agricultural Adviser to the States in Central India and Rajputana.

Additional Members Nominated by the Government General-in-Council—Mr. C. E. Palisot, representative of the Indore State; Mr. D. N. Mehta, Economic Botanist to Government, Central Provinces; Dr. L. C. Coleman, Director of Agriculture, Mysore State; Mr. W. I. Jenkins, Chief Agricultural Officer, Bihar; Dr. W. Turner, D.Sc., Principal Agricultural Officer, Poona; B. Narayana Prasad, Asst. Economic Botanist to Government; Mr. C. K. Hillson, Director of Agriculture, Mysore.

Secretary—Mr. J. H. Ritchie, M.A., B.Sc., I.A.S.

Deputy Secretary—Mr. P. H. Rima Reddi, M.A., B.Sc., I.A.S.

Director, Technological Laboratory—Asst. Asst. Director, Dr. Aziz Ahmad, M.A., Ph.D.

Office—Vulcan House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

From the commencement the Central Cotton Committee took steps to deal with the various malpractices reported by the original Committee, which by spoiling the reputation of the Indian cottons and rendering them less valuable for spinning purposes were reducing the returns of the grower and causing great economic loss to the country at large.

The Cotton Transport Act passed in 1923 enables any Local Government with the consent of its Legislative Council to notify definite areas of cotton for protection and to prevent the importation of cotton from outside the area except under license. Prior to the passing of the Act inferior cottons were imported in large quantities into the staple cotton tracts for purposes of adulteration and the reputation of several valuable cottons had been ruined by this abuse. The Act has now been applied to the most important staple cotton areas of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and of the Baroda, Malabar, Chhota Udepur and Hyderabad States and with excellent results.

More recently the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, (XII of 1925) has been passed which provides for a certain measure of control of ginning and pressing factories and especially for the marking of all bales of cotton pressed with a press mark and serial number which enables them to be traced to their origin. This Act, with the minimum of official interference, places the cotton trade in a position itself to deal with abuses, and should lead to a very marked improvement in the quality of Indian cottons.

The Central Cotton Committee has also devoted considerable attention to constructive action for the improvement of the marketing of cottons and to bringing to the notice of the trade, both in India and abroad, those improved

varieties which have now reached a commercial scale and has carried out some important enquiries into the financing of the cotton crop up-country and primary cotton marketing. As an instance of the progress in cotton growing which has been made since 1917 it may be stated that since that date approximately half a million bales of cotton of about 1 staple have been added to the Indian crop by the work of the Agricultural Departments. In general it may be said that the Committee affords a common meeting ground for representatives of all sections of the Cotton trade and of the cotton growing industry thus enabling a number of problems to be tackled from every point of view and definite progress made towards their solution.

Research Studentships—The Committee has also instituted a scheme of research studentships to enable distinguished graduates of Indian Universities to undertake research on cotton problems under the direction of experienced research workers in India. Six to eight such studentships are awarded every year.

Statistics—By the efforts of the Committee great improvement has been effected in cotton statistics. The compilation of statistics relating to the raw cotton received and of raw cotton consumed in the spinning mills in the British provinces and in the States of Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda, Gwalior and Indore, the establishment of statistical returns relating to the number of bales of raw cotton pressed weekly in every Province and many of the Indian States and the revival of the rail borne trade returns of cotton for trade blocks are some of the results already achieved by the Committee in this direction.

Research—By means of the Cotton Cess the Committee is provided with funds for the promotion of research. It maintains in Bombay a fully equipped Technological Laboratory which includes a complete experimental spinning plant and a scientific laboratory for research on the cotton fibre. This laboratory provides Agricultural Departments with complete and authoritative reports on the spinning value of new cottons thus providing a much needed facility. In addition it is now possible to undertake research work on a number of questions connected with the spinning qualities of cotton which have not been touched in the past. The Laboratory is unique in that it is probably the only institution of its kind which approaches the subject primarily from the standpoint of the grower.

The Committee contributes the greater part of the funds for the Indore Institute of Plant Industry which is a Central Agricultural Research Institute for cotton where many problems of fundamental importance are being studied.

In addition by means of grants in aid to Agricultural Departments it has provided for special investigations on problems of general applicability which would otherwise have been left untouched through lack of staff and funds. Such schemes are in operation in all major cotton-growing provinces and now number thirteen.

His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Reading) when he visited Bombay in December 1924 and formally opened the Committee's Spinning Laboratory laid great stress on the importance and value of the Committee's work.

THE EAST INDIA COTTON ASSOCIATION, LIMITED

Bombay—The Association is the outcome of the findings of the Indian Cotton Committee which was appointed by the Governor-General in Council under a resolution dated September 27th 1917. Until the end of 1917 the Cotton Trade of Bombay was in the hands of seven distinct bodies, viz., The Bombay Cotton Trade Association Ltd., The Bombay Cotton Exchange, Ltd., The Bombay Millowners Association, The Bombay Cotton Brokers Association, Ltd., The Marwari Chamber of Commerce, The Bombay Cotton Merchants and Miscellaneous Association Ltd., and The Japanese Cotton Shippers Association. None of these bodies were representative of the trade as a whole and their interests often came into conflict with each other. The necessity of a system of periodical settlements, such as existed in Liverpool, was badly felt, especially when speculation was rife in futures which was so excessive in 1918 that the Trade had to invoke the aid of Government to prevent a financial crisis.

The Cotton Contracts Committee was created under the Defence of India Act in June 1918 as a temporary measure under the Chairmanship of Mr G. Wiles. This body was replaced by the Cotton Contracts Board in 1919, which continued to function until May 1922 when the Act under which the Board worked was repealed and its functions were carried on by the newly constituted East India Cotton Association under Bombay Act No. XIV of 1923. Since then the Association, subject to its By-laws being sanctioned by Government, has been regulating transactions in cotton.

The present constitution of the Board is as follows—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt CIE, MBE President; Importers Panel: Haridas Madhavdas Esq., Vice President; Exporters Panel: Lalji Narani Esq., A. Geddie Esq., Ahmed K. Currimbhoy Esq., Millowners Panel: C. P. Bramble Esq., Khan Bahadur P. R. Vakharia Esq., Exporters Panel: K. H. McCormack Esq., Murlidhar S. Chokhani Esq., Importers Panel: W. G. McKee Esq., S. B. Dalal Esq., Commission Agents and Merchants Panel: Purshotam Jivandas Esq., Jamnadas Ramdas Esq., Jethiwallas Panel, Major W. Ellis Jones Broker, Panel.

Officers

D. Mehta Esq., N. A. Secretary, C. M. Parikh Esq., B. Com. Assistant Secretary, A. B. Meneses Esq., Acting Manager, Clearing House.

Some of the objects for which the Association is established are—To provide and maintain suitable buildings or rooms for a Cotton Exchange in the City of Bombay and elsewhere in India and to regulate admission to

and prohibition of the use thereof and the nature and times of such use whether in the case of the general body or particular classes or any individual or firm or company using the Exchange to provide forms of contracts compulsory or permissive and regulate the making, carrying out and enforcement or cancellation of contracts to adjust by arbitration or otherwise controversies between persons engaged in the Cotton Trade to establish just and equitable principles in the said Trade to maintain uniformity of control of the said trade to fix or adopt standards of classification of cotton, to acquire preserve and disseminate useful information connected with the Cotton interest throughout all markets to decrease or insure the local risk attendant upon business and generally to control, promote and regulate the Cotton Trade in the Presidency of Bombay and elsewhere in India improve its stability and augment the facilities with which it may be conducted. To establish and maintain a Clearing House for the purpose of dealing with cotton transactions and to regulate admission to and prohibition of the use thereof and the nature and times of such use whether in the case of the general body or particular classes or any individual or firm or company using the Clearing House. To regulate the handling and exportation of Cotton from India and the importation of Cotton into India in so far as it may be imported. To bring, prosecute, or defend or aid in bringing, prosecuting, or defending any suits, actions, proceedings, applications or arbitrations on behalf of Members or Associate Members or Special Associate Members or otherwise as the Directors of the Association may think proper or conducive to the objects of the Association and to prescribe the principle of framing of contracts with a view to eliminate the temptation and possibility of speculative manipulation.

The Association has erected a fine Exchange Building at Sewri Cotton Depot, containing 121 Buyers Rooms and 84 Sellers Rooms, and a large Trading Hall on the lines of Liverpool and New York Exchanges.

The Inaugural ceremony of the opening of the Exchange Building was performed by His Excellency Sir Leslie Wilson Governor of Bombay, on the 1st December 1923 in the presence of a large gathering which included most of the prominent business men of the City and many leading citizens.

There is a membership of 422 members.

The Bombay Cotton Annual containing matters relating to every branch of the Trade is published annually in December and statistics are issued twice weekly.

The Textile Industry.

India has been the home of the cotton trade from the earliest times. Its cotton, known as white wool, was well known to the ancients and its cloth was familiar to the West in the days of the overland route. The name Calico comes from the fine woven goods of Calicut and the products of the Dacca handlooms are still remarkable as the finest muslins human skill can produce.

Indian Cotton

The exports of Indian cotton began to assume importance with the opening of the sea route. They received an immense stimulus during the American Civil War, when the close blockade of the Confederate ports produced a cotton famine in Lancashire, and threw the English spinners back on India for their supply of raw material. When the war broke out the shipments of Indian cotton were 525,000 bales but during the last year of the war they averaged 975,000 bales. Most of this cotton was sold at an enormously inflated price, and induced a flow of wealth into Bombay, the

great centre of the trade, for which there was no outlet. The consequence was an unprecedented outbreak of speculation known as the 'Share Mania', and when the surrender of Leo re-opened the Southern Ports widespread ruin followed. It is estimated that the surplus wealth brought into the country by the American Civil War aggregated £92 millions. Since then the cultivation of Indian cotton although interrupted by famine, has steadily increased. In the last season for which returns are available 1928-29 the total area in all the territories reported on was computed at 25,000,000 acres which is 1,191,000 acres the revised figures of last year. The total estimated output was 4,957,000 bales of 400 lbs. which is 228,000 bales below the yield of last year.

Bombay, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad are the chief producing centres. The following table gives the rough distribution of the output. The figures are the estimated figures for the past season, and are not exact but they indicate the distribution of the crop —

Provinces and States.	1928-29	
	Area in Thousands	Bales of 400 lbs (In thousands)
Bombay (a)	710	1,400
Central Provinces and Berar	5167	1,142
Madras (a)	476	500
Punjab (a)	2,498	788
United Provinces (a)	982	342
Burma	321	87
Bengal (a)	78	21
Bihar and Orissa	63	13
Assam	41	10
Ajmer Merwara	44	11
North-West Frontier Province	17	4
Delhi	8	1
Hyderabad	3,556	447
Central India	1,386	249
Baroda	771	127
Gwalior	633	89
Rajputana	506	104
Mysore	69	22
Total	25,692	5,260

(a) Including Indian States

EXPORTS OF RAW COTTON FROM INDIA
(In thousands of bales of 400 lbs) to various Countries for year ending 31st March —

Countries	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
United Kingdom	87	160	241	270
Other parts of the British Empire	6	7	7	7
Total British Empire	93	167	248	277
Japan	1 842	1 230	1 610	1 640
Italy	305	330	384	393
France	123	180	204	253
China (exclusive of Hongkong, etc.)	391	11	404	66
Nepal	1 19	230	147	341
Spain	54	61	76	80
Germany	14	206	324	344
Austria	1			
Other Countries	75	110	115	176
Total Foreign countries	3 090	2 19	3 401	3 703
TOTAL	3 183	2 686	3 712	4 070

Bombay is the great centre of the cotton trade. The principal varieties are Dhollera, Broach, Comras (from the Berars), Dharwar and Coomras. Broach is the best cotton grown in Western India. Hinganghat cotton, from the Central Provinces, has a good reputation. Bengals is the name given to the cotton of the Gangetic valley, and generally to the cottons of Northern India. The Madras cottons are known as Western Coconadas, Colabators and Tinnevelly. The best of these is Tinnevelly. Camboia cotton has been grown with success in Southern India, but it shows a tendency to revert. The high prices of cotton realised of recent years have given a great impetus to cultivation. Government have also been active in improving the class of cotton produced, by seed selection, hybridization and the importation of exotic cottons. Although these measures have met with a considerable measure of success, they have not proceeded far enough to lighten the

whole output, which still consists for the most part of a short-staple early maturing variety suitable to soils where the rainy season is brief.

Reference has been made to the popularity of the Indian handloom cloths in the earliest days of which we have record. This trade grew so large that it excited alarm in England, and it was killed by a series of enactments, commencing in 1701, prohibiting the use or sale of Indian saris in England. The reaction of the spinning jenny and the power loom and their development in England converted India from an exporting into an importing country, and made her dependent on the United Kingdom for the bulk of her piece-goods. The first attempt to establish a cotton mill in India was in 1838, but the foundations of the industry were really laid by the opening of the first mill in Bombay in 1860. Thereafter, with occasional set backs from famine, plague and other causes, its progress was rapid.

The following statement shows the quantity (in pounds) of yarn of all counts spun in all India for the twelve months April to March, in each of the past 3 years —

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
BRITISH INDIA				
Bombay Presidency	512,021,432	491,830,977	329,855,006	467,289,320
Madras	64,497,984	68,747,894	69,066,443	74,502,412
Bengal	51,537,433	84,947,044	30,009,250	87,000,844
United Provinces	68,795,209	66,611,123	60,828,347	78,416,462
Ajmer-Merwara	4,613,486	4,230,410	4,022,240	5,695,294
Punjab	3,173,617	3,780,455	3,018,355	3,717,397
Delhi	10,309,660	12,106,951	14,110,110	18,441,589
Central Provinces and Berar	38,895,493	42,860,080	44,007,061	43,110,508
Burma	480,113	63,975	2,047,811	2,575,574
TOTAL	734,224,432	724,567,912	507,602,489	730,801,367
FOREIGN TERRITORY				
Indian States of Indore, Mysore, Baroda, Nandgaon, Bhavnagar, Hyderabad, Wadhwan, Gwalior (Ujjain), Kishan garh, Cambay, Kolhapur, Cochin (a) and Pondicherry	72,891,701	84,852,461	90,620,818	102,607,626
GRAND TOTAL	807,116,133	809,420,373	598,223,307	833,409,013

(a) Figures for Cochin are being reported from April 1928

The Textile Industry.

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The spinning of yarn is in a large degree centred in Bombay the mills of that province producing nearly 74 per cent. of the quantity produced in British India. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and Madras produced about 7 per cent. and 8 per cent respectively, while Bengal and the Central Provinces produced 4.7 and 5.2 per cent. Elsewhere the production is as yet very limited.

BOMBAY ISLAND

Here is a detailed statement of the quantity (in pounds) and the counts, or numbers, of yarn spun in Bombay island —

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Nos 1-10	71,707,525	61,759,076	32,435,744	54,010,403
11-20	153,361,083	131,021,671	61,896,066	10,891,361
21-30	104,049,359	107,482,220	47,018,788	85,715,068
31-40	9,201,370	12,279,894	8,166,621	13,074,238
Above 40	4,306,898	5,028,497	3,131,697	4,628,867
Wastes, &c	1,142,790	1,113,798	8,01,027	870,809
TOTAL	314,859,030	318,746,862	1,03,702,809	208,216,744

YARN AT AHMEDABAD

The corresponding figures for Ahmedabad are as follows —

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Nos 1-10	2,559,048	2,821,175	2,409,007	2,957,203
11-20	40,001,058	30,908,369	39,409,182	48,793,716
21-30	30,209,987	55,667,150	53,194,408	61,127,227
31-40	8,261,613	9,621,431	12,639,915	1,493,621
Above 40	4,824,932	3,596,276	4,061,063	3,809,704
Wastes &c				
TOTAL	105,607,878	111,112,716	117,718,440	130,778,821

YARN SPUN THROUGHOUT INDIA

The grand totals of the quantities in various counts of yarn spun in the whole of India including Native States, are given in the following table —

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Nos 1-10	114,644,780	105,983,183	78,887,784	10,477,320
11-20	401,086,106	388,816,894	203,135,680	357,811,398
21-30	248,310,875	263,071,136	213,013,286	271,768,294
31-40	27,656,853	33,757,997	37,488,197	16,362,781
Above 40	11,531,456	11,141,821	10,027,048	15,278,339
Wastes, &c	3,976,092	6,170,243	5,720,242	6,709,881
TOTAL	807,116,133	808,840,373	648,283,327	833,409,013

In the early days of the textile industry the energies of the millowners were largely concentrated on the production of yarn, both for the China market, and for the handlooms of India. The increasing competition of Japan in the China market, the growth of an indigenous industry in China and the uncertainties introduced by the fluctuations in the China exchanges consequent on variations in the price of silver compelled the millowners to cultivate the Home market. The general tendency of recent years has been to spin

higher counts of yarn, importing American cotton for this purpose to supplement the Indian supply to erect more looms, and to produce more dyed and bleached goods. This practice has reached a higher development in Bombay than in other parts of India and the Bombay Presidency produces nearly 78 per cent. of the cloth woven in India. The United Provinces produces 33 per cent, the Central Provinces 4 per cent and Madras 4 per cent. Grey and Bleached goods represent nearly 74 per cent. of the whole production.

ANALYSIS OF WOVEN GOODS

The following brief extract is taken from the statement of the quantity (in pounds and their equivalent in yards) and description of woven goods produced in all India, including Native States—

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Grey and Bleached piece-goods—				
Pounds	481,711,865	1,403,407,809	330,925,371	421,786,613
Yards	1,677,237,774	1,075,011,583	1,409,897,522	1,814,920,801
Coloured piece goods—				
Pounds	145,920,470	148,297,021	102,175,808	129,850,886
Yards	681,478,201	691,653,222	433,678,103	604,050,124
Grey and coloured goods other than piece goods—				
Pounds	4,151,302	4,205,147	3,330,960	4,578,020
Densens	1,006,548	992,107	786,003	1,164,776
Hosiery—				
Pound	933,308	1,213,970	1,450,691	1,031,942
Densens	351,910	438,237	448,809	372,404
Miscellaneous—				
Pounds	4,289,142	6,827,546	4,403,610	4,636,744
Cotton goods mixed with silk or wool—				
Pound	2,313,760	4,794,012	3,211,767	3,360,508
Total—				
Pounds	538,769,353	567,806,045	445,528,976	562,068,731
Yards	2,258,716,065	2,356,564,806	1,898,268,653	2,418,979,925
Densens	1,358,467	1,400,364	1,234,817	1,737,182

BOMBAY WOVEN GOODS

The output of woven goods during the three years in the Bombay Presidency was as follows—

The weight (in pounds represents the weight of all woven goods the measure in yards represents the equivalent of the weight of the grey and coloured piece goods.)

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Pounds	407,282,500	421,690,878	281,057,132	376,411,158
Yards	1,786,827,896	1,823,617,162	1,203,080,878	1,724,925,104
Densens	529,849	920,817	640,677	960,210

The grand totals for all India are as follows:—

	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Pounds	538,769,353	567,806,045	445,528,976	562,068,731
Yards	2,258,716,065	2,356,564,806	1,898,268,653	2,418,979,925
Densens	1,358,467	1,400,364	1,234,817	1,737,182

Progress of the Mill Industry

The following statement shows the progress of the Mill Industry in the whole of India

Years ending 30th June	Number of Mills	Number of Spindles	Number of Looms	Average No. of Hands Employed Daily	Approximate Quantity of Cotton Consumed, Cwts.	Quantity of Spun Yarn Consumed, lbs.
1877	51	12,44,206	10,385	No. 30	stated	Not stated
1878	53	12,89,706	10,588		Do	Do
1879	56	14,62,794	13,018	42,914	9,36,547	2,67,555
1880	56	14,61,590	12,502	44,410	10,76,708	3,07,681
1881	57	15,18,096	13,707	46,430	13,26,461	3,78,989
1882	65	16,20,814	14,172	48,467	13,91,467	3,97,562
1883	67	17,00,386	15,373	53,476	15,97,946	4,56,556
1884	70	20,01,677	16,262	60,387	18,59,777	5,31,365
1885	87	21,45,646	16,637	67,186	20,88,621	5,96,749
1886	95	22,61,561	17,455	74,363	22,51,214	6,43,204
1887	109	24,21,290	18,538	76,942	25,41,966	7,26,276
1888	114	24,88,551	19,408	82,839	27,54,637	7,86,932
1889	124	27,62,518	21,561	91,598	31,10,286	8,88,654
1890	137	32,74,196	23,412	1,02,721	35,29,617	10,08,482
1891	134	33,51,694	24,531	1,11,018	41,26,171	11,76,906
1892	139	34,02,232	25,444	1,16,161	40,80,783	11,65,978
1893	141	35,75,917	26,164	1,21,500	40,98,628	11,71,008
1894	142	36,49,736	31,154	1,30,461	42,78,778	12,22,638
1895	148	38,09,929	35,338	1,38,669	46,95,999	13,41,714
1896	155	39,32,046	37,270	1,45,432	49,32,617	14,08,318
1897	178	40,65,618	37,584	1,44,335	55,53,276	13,00,876
1898	185	42,59,720	38,013	1,48,964	61,84,648	14,81,328
1899	188	47,28,338	39,069	1,62,108	58,63,165	16,75,180
1900	193	49,45,783	40,124	1,61,169	50,86,732	14,54,853
1901	193	50,00,936	41,180	1,72,888	47,31,090	13,51,740
1902	192	50,06,965	42,544	1,81,031	51,77,873	17,05,038
1903	192	50,43,297	44,092	1,81,399	50,47,690	17,89,340
1904	191	51,12,121	45,837	1,84,779	61,06,091	17,44,766
1905	197	51,63,496	50,139	1,95,277	63,77,864	18,79,244
1906	217	52,79,595	52,608	2,08,618	70,82,806	20,23,016
1907	224	53,32,275	53,436	2,06,596	69,30,595	19,80,170
1908	241	57,56,020	67,920	2,21,195	69,70,260	19,91,510
1909	259	60,53,231	76,398	2,36,924	73,81,500	21,00,040
1910	263	61,95,671	82,725	2,38,624	67,72,636	19,35,040
1911	263	62,57,460	85,352	2,30,649	66,70,871	19,05,866
1912	268	64,63,929	88,951	2,45,637	71,76,357	20,59,112
1913	272	65,96,862	94,136	2,53,786	73,36,056	20,96,016
1914*	271	67,78,895	1,04,179	2,60,276	75,00,941	21,43,126
1915*	272	68,48,744	1,08,009	2,66,840	73,59,212	21,02,632
1916*	266	68,59,877	1,10,268	2,74,861	76,92,013	21,47,714
1917*	263	67,28,697	1,14,621	2,76,771	76,93,674	21,64,164
1918*	262	66,53,871	1,16,484	2,82,227	72,98,873	20,66,678
1919*	258	60,89,680	1,18,221	2,98,271	71,54,806	20,44,230
1920*	253	67,63,876	1,19,012	3,11,078	68,83,118	19,82,318
1921*	287	68,70,204	1,28,783	3,42,176	74,20,376	21,54,212
1922*	298	73,31,019	1,44,620	3,68,728	77,12,390	22,08,540
1923*	313	79,27,088	1,44,794	3,67,380	76,80,943	21,61,688
1924*	336	83,13,273	1,61,435	3,66,867	67,12,113	19,17,743
1925*	337	85,10,623	1,54,202	3,67,877	77,92,085	22,26,310
1926*	334	87,14,168	1,69,464	3,75,608	73,96,844	21,13,384
1927*	336	87,02,790	1,81,952	3,84,728	84,00,942	24,17,412
1928*	395	87,34,172	1,66,532	3,60,921	70,84,237	20,00,782
1929*	314	89,07,064	1,74,692	3,48,925	75,64,081	21,61,166
1930*	348	91,24,768	1,79,250	3,84,022	90,07,999	25,73,714

* Year ending 31st August

The Jute Industry.

Considering its present dimensions, the jute industry of Bengal is of very recent origin. The first jute mill in Bengal was started at Rishra in 1855, and the first power loom was introduced in 1859. The original outturn was 8 tons per day. In 1909 it had grown to 2,500 tons per day, it is now 4,000 tons per day, and it shows every indication of growing and expanding year by year. Another interesting thing about the jute industry of Bengal is that, although it is practically a monopoly of Scotsmen from Dundee, the industry itself owes its inception to an Englishman. The founder of the industry was George Acland, an Englishman, who began life as a midshipman in the navy, and was for some years in the East India Marine Service. He quitted this service while still a young man and engaged in commercial pursuits in Ceylon, where he was successful. Later on he turned his attention to Bengal and arriving in Calcutta about 1853 he got into touch with the management of the paper works, then at Serampore, where experiments were being tried with country grasses and fibre plants to improve the quality or cheapen the manufacture of paper. This seems to have suggested to Acland the manufacture of reba, and in 1854 he proceeded to England, with a view to obtaining machinery and capital in order to manufacture goods from that material. During this trip he visited Dundee, and while there Mr John Kerr, of Douglas Foundry, suggested to him the importing of machinery into Bengal "where the jute comes from and spin it there." This suggestion bore fruit for shortly afterwards Acland placed orders with Kerr for a few systems of preparing and spinning machinery, and returned to India the same year accompanied by his two sons and a few Dundee mechanics who were to assist him in erecting and operating the first jute mill in Bengal. This, as has been stated was at Rishra, the site of the present Welling ton mills, near Serampore, and here, in 1855, the first machine spun jute yarns were made. As not infrequently happens the pioneer got very little out of his venture. After several ups and downs the Acland interest in the Rishra mill ceased in 1867, and the company which Acland had formed in 1854 was wound up in 1868.

Power-loom.—The pioneer's example was followed by Mr George Henderson of that silk and firm, and in 1859 the Borneo Jute Co was launched under his auspices. To this company is due the credit of introducing the power-loom for jute cloth. Unhindered by the financial difficulties which had burdened the Aclands, the Borneo Jute Co made rapid progress, doubling their works in 1864, and clearing their capital twice over. In 1872 the mills were turned into a limited liability company, the present "Barnagore Jute Manufacturing Co., Ltd." Four other mills followed in succession—Gouripore, Serajunge, and India Jute Mills.

"From 1868 to 1873, writes Mr David Wallace in "The Romance of Jute," the five mills excepting the Rishra mill simply coined money and brought the total of their income up to 1,250." To illustrate the pro-

perity of the industry at this period we may take the dividends paid by the Barnagore Company. On the working of their first half year, a 15 per cent interim dividend was declared, which seemed to justify the enormous capital at which the company was taken over from the Borneo Company, and shares, touched 68 per cent premium. The dividend for the first year, ending August 1873, was 25 per cent, for 1874, 20 per cent, and for 1875, 10 per cent. Then came a change. The investing public had forgotten the effect of the Port Canning bubble and the condition of the jute industry in 1872-73 seemed to offer a better return than coal or tea, both of which had just enjoyed a boom, it was only necessary to issue a prospectus of a jute mill to have all the shares snapped up in the course of an afternoon.

In 1872-73 three new companies were floated locally—the Fort Gloster, Budge and Sibpore, and two Home companies, the Champ dany and Samnugger all of which commenced operations in 1874. In 1874-5 eight other mills were launched—the Howrah, Oriental (now Union), Asiatic (now Boraah), Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co (now the Bellaghatta Barnagore branch mill), Rustomjee (now the Central) Ganges (registered in England), and Hastings owned by Messrs Birkmyr, Bros of Greenock fame—in all thirteen new companies coming on all of a heap and swelling the total looms from 1,250 up to 8,500. This was too much of a strain for the new industry, and for the next few years all the mills had a severe struggle. The older ones all survived the ordeal, but four of the new concerns—the Oriental, the Asiatic, the Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co and the Rustomjee—became moribund to appear again later on under new names and management. Fort Gloster also suffered badly.

Between 1875 and 1882 only one new mill was put up. This was Kamarhaty, promoted by Messrs Jardine, Skinner & Co which came into being in 1877 as the result of Dr Barry's visit to Calcutta in 1876, when he transferred the agency of the Gouripore Co from Messrs Jardine, Skinner & Co to his own firm. This mill, together with additions made by some of the other mills, brought the total looms up to 5,160 in 1882. By the end of 1885 the total was further augmented by the Hooghly, Titagbur, Victoria and Kankarnah mills, bringing the number of looms at work up to 6,700. From this period on to 1894 no new mills came into existence except the Calcutta Twist Mill, with 2,440 spindles, since merged into the Wellington branch of the Champdany Co. Between 1895 and 1900 the following new mills were started—The Gordon Twist Mill with 1,800 spindles (now acquired by Anglo India), Khardah, Gondolpara (French owned), Alliance, Arambon, Anglo-India, Standard, National Delta (which absorbed the Serajunge), and the Kinleim. A full of four years witnessed large extensions to the existing mills, after which came the following series of new mills, besides further heavy extensions—Dalhousie, Alexandra, Nathati, Lawrence, Reliance, Belvedere, Auckland, Melvin and Northbrook.

Progress of the Industry

THE record of the jute industry may well be said to be one of uninterrupted progress. The following statement shows quinquennial averages from the earliest year for which complete information is available with actuals for each year from 1917-18 up to 1926-27 and the figures in brackets represent the variations for each period, taking the average of the quinquennium from 1879-80 to 1883-84 as 100 —

	Number of mills at work	Authorised Capital (in lakhs of Rs.)	Number (in thousands) of		
			persons employed daily (average)	Looms	Spindles
Average—					
1879-80 to 1883-84	21 (100)	270.7 (100)	38.8 (100)	5.6 (100)	88 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	24 (114)	341.6 (126)	52.7 (136)	7 (127)	133.4 (157)
1889-90 to 1893-94	26 (124)	402.6 (149)	64.3 (166)	8.3 (151)	172.6 (196)
1894-95 to 1898-99	31 (148)	522.1 (193)	86.7 (223)	11.7 (213)	244.8 (278)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	36 (171)	680 (251)	114.2 (294)	16.2 (295)	334.6 (380)
1904-05 to 1908-09	46 (219)	900 (333)	165 (425)	24.8 (451)	510.5 (580)
1909-10 to 1913-14	60 (286)	1,209 (448)	208.4 (537)	33.5 (600)	691.8 (786)
1914-15 to 1918-19	73 (348)	1,403.6 (519)	259.3 (668)	39.7 (722)	831.2 (933)
1917-18	70 (332)	1,428.5 (528)	266 (686)	40.6 (728)	834 (948)
1918-19	76 (362)	1,477.2 (546)	275.5 (710)	46 (737)	839.9 (954)
1919-20	76 (362)	1,568.5 (579)	280.4 (723)	41.0 (745)	856.3 (973)
1920-21	77 (367)	1,623.5 (599)	288.4 (745)	41.6 (745)	869.9 (988)
1921-22	81 (386)	2,122.4 (784)	288.4 (745)	43.0 (782)	908.3 (1,032)
1922-23	86 (409)	2,324.7 (860)	321.2 (828)	47.5 (863)	1,003.1 (1,140)
1923-24	89 (424)	2,635.8 (973)	330.4 (853)	49.0 (891)	1,043.4 (1,185)
1924-25	90 (424)	2,213.3 (818)	341.7 (881)	50.3 (914)	1,087.0 (1,243)
1925-26	90 (424)	2,134.7 (788)	331.3 (854)	50.5 (914)	1,063.7 (1,204)
1926-27	93 (441)	2,119.8 (783)	333.6 (860)	51.0 (927)	1,038.1 (1,231)

The production of the mills has increased to a still greater extent. The following figures show the exports of jute manufactures and the declared values for the same periods. The value of jute manufactures exported by sea in 1924-25 was over thirty-three times as great as the average of the export in the period 1879-80 to 1883-84 —

	Jute manufactures.		
	Gunny bags in millions of number	Gunny cloths in millions of yards	Value in lakhs of Rs.
1879-80 to 1883-84	54.9 (100)	4.4 (100)	124.9 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	77 (140)	15.4 (350)	162.9 (130)
1889-90 to 1893-94	111.5 (203)	41 (932)	289.3 (232)
1894-95 to 1898-99	171.2 (312)	182 (4,186)	518 (416)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	206.5 (376)	427.2 (9,709)	826.5 (662)
1904-05 to 1908-09	257.8 (469)	698 (15,864)	1,442.7 (1,154)
1909-10 to 1913-14	339.1 (618)	970 (21,046)	2,024.8 (1,621)
1914-15 to 1918-19	667.6 (1,216)	1,156 (26,273)	4,019.8 (3,218)
1919-20	342.7 (624)	1,276.1 (28,980)	5,001.5 (4,004)
1920-21	513.9 (937)	1,357.7 (30,800)	5,399.4 (4,273)
1921-22	340.7 (618)	1,120.5 (25,000)	3,999.6 (3,219)
1922-23	344.2 (637)	1,204.3 (27,350)	4,049.4 (3,265)
1923-24	413.7 (752)	1,348.7 (30,052)	4,238.3 (3,382)
1924-25	423.1 (774)	1,356.2 (30,095)	5,148.8 (4,122)
1925-26	425.0 (774)	1,461.3 (32,211)	5,752.1 (4,606)
1926-27	449.0 (818)	1,503.1 (33,161)	5,283.3 (4,222)
1927-28	463.1 (843)	1,502.7 (33,289)	5,321.8 (4,260)
1928-29	497.6 (900)	1,568.2 (35,640)	5,656.4 (4,528)

Until the outbreak of war the exports by sea of raw jute were marked by increases from year to year although the increase was very much less than that in the case of manufactures. During the war years exports declined very considerably. The cessation of the war stimulated the export trade and in 1919-20 the exports showed an increase as compared with the average of the war quinquennium (1914-18 to 1918-19). In the following two years, the exports recorded a decrease and in 1922-23 they again made a recovery and amounted to 573,000 tons.

Jute, raw, ton	
Average 1879-80 to 1883-84	378,000 (100)
" 1884-85 to 1888-89	445,000 (118)
" 1889-90 to 1893-94	600,000 (159)
" 1894-95 to 1898-99	515,000 (136)
" 1899-1900 to 1903-04	635,000 (168)
" 1904-05 to 1908-09	765,000 (204)
" 1909-10 to 1913-14	464,000 (123)
" 1914-15 to 1918-19	492,000 (130)
Year	
" 1919-20	475,000 (126)
" 1920-21	400,000 (106)
" 1921-22	400,000 (106)
" 1922-23	573,000 (152)
" 1923-24	670,000 (177)
" 1924-25	906,000 (240)
" 1925-26	617,000 (163)
" 1926-27	708,000 (187)
" 1927-28	892,000 (236)
" 1928-29	898,000 (237)

The total quantity of jute manufactures exported by sea from Calcutta during the year 1928-29 was 968,000 tons as against 839,000 tons in the preceding year and 608,500 tons in the pre-war year 1913-14. The value of these exports amounted to Rs. 40.78 lakhs or an increase of Rs. 10.38 lakhs over the preceding year and Rs. 12.08 lakhs over the pre-war year. The shipments of gunny bags were valued at Rs. 15.82 lakhs and of gunny cloth Rs. 24.24 lakhs as against Rs. 13.86 and Rs. 15.92 lakhs respectively in the preceding year and Rs. 12.48 and Rs. 15.58 lakhs in the pre-war year.

The price of raw jute reached a very high point in 1906-07, the rate being Rs. 65 per bale in 1907-08 it dropped to Rs. 42 per bale, and the fall was accentuated in 1908-09 and 1909-10 the price having declined to Rs. 4 and Rs. 31, in 1917-18 it dropped to Rs. 38-8-0 but rose again in 1918-19 up to Rs. 77 5-0. In 1922-23 it dropped to Rs. 65 but rose again to Rs. 86.

It again declined to Rs. 64. In 1921-22 the price rose to Rs. 73 at the end of September but fell back again to Rs. 60 at the end of November and recovered to Rs. 64 at the close of the year.

Average price of jute ordinary per bale of 400 lbs.

	Rs.	s.	d.	(100)
1879-80 to 1883-84	23	8	2	(99)
1884-85 to 1888-89	32	6	6	(138)
1889-90 to 1893-94	30	13	0	(131)
1894-95 to 1898-99	32	1	7	(137)
1900-05 to 1908-09	44	13	6	(191)
1909-10 to 1913-14	51	0	10	(217)
1914-15 to 1918-19	50	6	5	(214)
1917-18	38	5	0	(164)
1918-19	60	0	0	(256)
1919-20	77	8	0	(310)
1920-21	69	8	0	(296)
1921-22	69	0	0	(265)
1922-23	75	0	0	(310)
1923-24	55	0	0	(234)
1924-25	89	2	0	(379)
1925-26	124	2	10	(528)
1926-27	83	9	9	(335)
1927-28	73	8	4	(318)
1928-29	76	13	9	(327)

The average prices of gunny cloth have been as follows —

Price of Headan cloth 10½ x 40" per 100 yds.

	Rs.	s.	d.	(100)
1879-80 to 1883-84	10	7	11	(100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	8	0	7	(78)
1889-90 to 1893-94	10	6	6	(90)
1894-95 to 1898-99	11	8	8	(118)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	12	0	10	(120)
1904-05 to 1908-09	11	14	1	(112)
1909-10 to 1913-14	12	12	2	(122)
1914-15 to 1918-19	23	5	7	(222)
1917-18	33	8	0	(314)
1918-19	33	0	0	(314)
1919-20	28	0	0	(287)
1920-21	20	8	0	(196)
1921-22	14	8	0	(138)
1922-23	21	12	0	(209)
1923-24	19	13	0	(190)
1924-25	22	9	0	(214)
1925-26	24	3	0	(228)
1926-27	19	9	0	(186)
1927-28	21	13	9	(208)
1928-29	22	12	10	(212)

The 1928 crop.—The Anal figures of output for the three provinces work out as follows —

PROVINCE	BALES	
	1927 *	1928
Bengal (including Cooch Behar & Tripura States)	9 054,700	8,589,000
Bihar and Orissa	† 717,000	† 743,000
Assam	466,900	624,200
Total	10,238,600	9,956,200

PROVINCE	AREA IN ACRES.	
	1927 *	1928
Bengal (including Cooch Behar & Tripura States)	3 962,100	4,702,300
Bihar and Orissa (including Nepal)	241,000	247,000
Assam	171,000	195,100
Total	3 874,100	3,144,400

* Revised

Including Nepal

The Indian Jute Mills Association now one of the most important, if not the most important of the bodies affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, was started under the following circumstances.—In 1886 the existing mills, finding that, in spite of the constant opening up of new mills working results were not favourable, came to an agreement, with the late B. J. Clarke, Secretary to the Chamber of Commerce as trustee, to work short time. The only mills which stood out of this arrangement were the Hooghly and Seraijunge. The first agreement, for six months dating from 15th February 1886, was subsequently renewed at intervals without a break for five years up to February 18, 1891. The state of the market at the time of the renewals dictated the extent of the short time which varied throughout the five years between 4 days a week, 9 days a fortnight and 5 days a week. Besides short time, 10 per cent of the sacking looms were shut down for a short period in 1890. An important feature of this agreement was a mutual undertaking by the parties not to increase their spinning power during the currency of the agreement, only a few exceptions being made in the case of a few incomplete new mills.

The present officials of the Association are —
Chairman—Mr R. B. Lalit M.L.C.

Members of Committee—Mr A. N. Mac Kenzie, Mr D. J. Lockie, Mr J. Melin Austin and Mr G. L. Bose, M.L.C.

Working days.—With the introduction of the electric light into the mills in 1899, the working day was increased to 15 hours, Saturdays included which involved an additional amount of cleaning and repairing work on Sundays. In order to minimise this Sunday work and give them a free Sunday, an agitation was got up in 1897 by the Mill European assistants to have the engines stopped at 2 or 3 p.m. on Saturdays. The local Government took the matter up, but their action went no further than applying moral suasion, backed by a somewhat half-hearted threat. The Mill Association held meetings to consider the question and the members were practically agreed as to the utility of early closing on Saturdays, but, *more so*, could not trust themselves to carry it out without legislation. Unfortunately the Government of India refused to sanction the passing of a Resolution by the provincial Government under the Factory Act and the matter was dropped. Only a year or two ago the Jute Mills Association in despair brought out an American business expert, Mr J. H. Parks, to advise them on the possibility of forming a jute trust with a view to exercising some control over the production and price of jute. Mr Parks came, and wrote a report which the Association promptly pigeon holed because the slump was over and the demand was so prodigious that there was no need to worry about the price of jute.

An Association, styled the Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association, has been formed in Calcutta to promote and to guard the common interests of its members as dealers in jute for local consumption. The members are buyers and brokers of jute for sale to the jute mill in and around Calcutta. The present Committee—Mr Geo. Morgan, C.I.A., Chair-

man. **Members**—Mr J. A. Galloway, Mr D. King, Mr H. A. Llake, Mr G. O. Morn and Mr J. L. Buhave.

Effects of the War.—The official review of the Trade of India in 1916-17 says—The value of the exports of raw jute increased in 1916-17 by nearly Rs. 65 lakhs to Rs. 1,829 lakhs. The quantity exported, however, was less than in the preceding year. The estimated yield of the crop was 12 per cent above that of the previous year, viz. 1,490,000 tons or 8,840,000 bales. Owing to the lack of tonnage and other abnormal circumstances brought about by the war, the quantity exported was 10 per cent below that of the previous year. Of the consumers the United Kingdom and Italy took less, while the United States France (mainly via Dunkirk), Russia (via Vladivostok) and Brazil took greater quantities. There were of course no exports to enemy countries which took more than 27 per cent in the five years ending 1913-14, the pre-war year. The increase in the value accompanied by a decrease in the volume of exports was due to the very high range of prices during the months of September, October, November and December. Towards the close of the year under review prices steadily declined and have since gone still lower.

Jute Manufactures.—The value of the exports now approximates to Rs. 42 crores. In spite of the war with its attendant difficulties of freight and finance, the exports of gunny cloth showed an increase of Rs. 241 lakhs of which Rs. 168 lakhs were due to higher prices and Rs. 78 lakhs to an increase in the volume of exports. There were also an increase of Rs. 113 lakhs in the value of gunny bags exported. The number of bags shipped increased while the weight decreased, and bags for war purposes being lighter than the ordinary bags for transporting grain. Exports to Australia in 1916-17 were a record. The United Kingdom with Australia took more than half of the number of bags exported while the United States took more than half of the quantity of cloth exported.

There were 74 mills at work throughout the year with 41,292 looms and 863,859 spindles. The number of persons employed was 235,881. There were no difficulties as regards the supply of labour.

The number of gunny bags shipped from Calcutta during 1922-23 declined from 556 million bags to 342 million bags, but the value increased from Rs. 15.67 lakhs to Rs. 16.82 lakhs. Shipments of gunny cloth rose from 1,120 million yards to 1,261 million yards valued at Rs. 17.92 lakhs and Rs. 24.24 lakhs respectively.

Hemp and Jute Substitutes.

Experiments have been made during the last few years by the Agricultural Department of the Government of India with the Decman hemp plant (*Erbiscus cannabinus*), which yields a fibre very similar to jute. As a result, a new variety of the plant, known as Type 3, has been obtained, which it is now proposed to introduce into several parts of India, and, as a beginning, the variety is to be grown on a number of estates in Bihar. A sample of the fibre prepared from this variety by the usual methods of retting was 10 ft to 12 ft long, of an exceptionally light colour, well cleaned, and of good strength.

It was valued at £18 per ton with Himilpatam jute at £12 10s and Bengal first mark jute at £17 per ton. Decan hemp has been grown fairly extensively in Bombay, the Central Provinces, and Madras where it is used for ropes and cordage and also for the manufacture of a coarse sackcloth. A valuable feature of the plant is its suitability for cultivation in such parts of India as are not suitable for jute.

Prior to the war, the United Kingdom's requirements of hemp were mainly supplied by the following countries in order of importance—the Philippine Islands, New Zealand, India, Russia, Italy and Germany. The opinion appears to be held that the effect of the war will be to cause very considerable changes in the character of the fibre market. There will probably be labour difficulties. It is thought in the prepa-

ration of the hemp crops of Russia and Hungary and it is not unlikely that the world will look to countries such as India for the supply of fibres which may be used as substitutes for the European varieties of hemp. There can be no doubt that one of the early effects of the war was to firm up hemp prices. As far as Indian hemp is concerned, values were persistently depreciated during the first six months of 1914 owing to large stocks held, but the closure of the Russian hemp market on the outbreak of war resulted in a marked improvement in values and there was a keen demand and a considerable rise in price. Exports from Calcutta during 1922-23 made a great recovery from the previous year. The quantity advanced by 37 per cent from 197,412 cwt to 269,487 cwt and the value from Rs 26 95 lakhs to Rs 36 68 lakhs.

THE WOOL INDUSTRY

Wool exported from India consists not only of wool grown in India itself, but of imports from foreign sources these latter coming into India both by land and by sea. Imports by sea come chiefly from Persia, but a certain quantity from Persia also comes by land while the main imports are from Afghanistan, Central Asia, Tibet and Nepal. Quetta, Shikhar, Amritsar and Multan are the main collecting centres for wool received by land from Afghanistan and Persia whence it is almost invariably railed to Karachi for subsequent export overseas.

Imports and Exports.—A considerable amount of wool is imported annually from Tibet and in normal years from Afghanistan. Imports of raw wool in 1929-30 amounted to 17 million lbs. valued at Rs 51 7 lakhs. Exports of raw wool were valued in that year at Rs 4 42 lakhs. The increase in the supplies from Australia has been continuous during the last four years. In 1929-30 imports of wool from Australia were valued at nearly Rs 21 lakhs.

Production in India.—The production of wool in India is estimated at 60 million lbs. the estimate being arrived at from the available figures of the number of sheep in the country and their estimated yield per fleece, the average quantity of wool yielded per sheep per annum being taken at only 2 lbs.

All Indian wools are classed in the grade of carpet wools, and it is correct to say of perhaps fully half the breeds of sheep found on the plains of India that they yield a kind of hair rather than of wool. They are reared chiefly on account of the mutton, and the fleece has been generally regarded as of subsidiary interest. In many respects in actual fact the Indian plains sheep approximate more nearly to the accepted type of the goat rather than of the sheep. Short remarks in his manual on Indian cattle and sheep particularly with respect to the Madras type, that they "resemble a greyhound with tucked up belly having some coarseness of form, the feet light, the limbs bony, sides flat and the tail short."

Mill manufacture.—The number of woollen mills at work in British India in 1902 was three, with an authorised capital of Rs 38,50,000, and employing 23,800 spindles and 624 looms. The number of persons employed in the industry then was 2,559, and the quantity

of woollen goods produced 2,148,000 lbs. At the end of 1917 the number of mills had risen to five, with an authorised capital of Rs 2,00,00,000, employing 39,608 spindles and 1,158 looms. The weight of goods produced then was 9,744,204 lbs. and the number of persons employed 7,824. With regard to Indian States there was one mill in Mysore in 1903, with a capital of Rs. 6,00,000, employing 1,430 spindles and 46 looms. The quantity of goods produced was 1,186,000 lbs. and the number of persons employed 297. In 1907 there was still only the one mill working in an Indian State—the authorised capital had been increased to Rs 15,00,000, the quantity of goods produced to 1,724,987 lbs. and the number of persons employed to 563. Three of the mills manufacture all classes of woollen and worsted goods, the remainder manufacturing blankets only. The existence of these mills in India proved of great service to Government in the meeting of war requirements, and they were all employed to their fullest capacity in supplying army demands for great coat cloth, serge puttees, flannel blankets and hosiery. Their total capacity, however, was not sufficient to meet the full requirements of the army and consequently their supplies had to be supplemented by large imports from home. The bulk of the wool used by the Indian mills is Indian wool, although it is supplemented to some extent by the importation of merinos and cross breeds from Australia for the manufacture of the finer classes of goods. Their market for manufactured goods is almost entirely in India itself.

Blanket weaving and carpet manufacture are carried on in various parts of the country, notably in the Punjab and the United Provinces. Woollen pile carpets are made in many of the jails. Amritsar had a considerable trade at one time in weaving shawls from cashmere, the fine under fleece of the Tibetan goat, but its place has been taken to some degree by the manufacture of shawls from imported worsted yarns, but more generally by the manufacture of carpets of a fine quality which find a ready sale in the world market. This work is done entirely on hand looms and the carpets fetch a high price.

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Silk

In the early days of the East India Company the Indian Silk trade prospered greatly and various sub-tropical races of the Silkworm were introduced. But the trade gradually declined for the following reasons —

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries India a chief competitor in the silk trade was the Levant Company. Successful efforts however, were made to acclimatise in Europe one or two races of a temperate worm, procured from China and Japan. When sericulture became part of the agriculture of France and Italy a quality of silk was produced entirely different from that of India and Turkey, and its appearance created a new demand and organized new markets.

All subsequent experience seems to have established the belief that the plains of India, or at all events of Bengal, are never likely to produce silk that could compete with this new industry. On the lower hills of Northern India, on the other hand, a fair amount of success has been attained with this (to India) new worm, as, for example in Dehra Dun and Kashmir. In Manipur, it would appear probable that *Bombyx mori*, possibly obtained from China, has been reared for centuries. The caprice of fashion has, from time to time, powerfully modified the Indian silk trade. The special properties of the *korah* silk were formerly much appreciated but the demand for them has now declined. This circumstance, together with defective systems of rearing and of hand-reeling and weaving, accounts largely for the present depression in the mulberry silk trade of India.

Mulberry feeding worms—Sir George Watt states that in no other country does the necessity exist so pressingly as in India to treat the subject of silk and the silk industries under two sections, viz., Bombycidae, the domesticated or mulberry-feeding silkworms, and Saturniidae, the wild or non mulberry feeding worms. In India the mulberry worm (*Bombyx Mori*) has been systematically reared for many centuries, there being six chief forms of it. In the temperate tracts of India various forms of *Morus alba*, (the mulberry of the European silk producing countries), are grown specially as food for the silkworm. This is the case in many parts of the plains of Northern India, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and along the Himalaya at altitudes up to 11,000 feet. The other species even more largely grown for the Indian silkworm is *M. Indica* of which there are many distinctive varieties or races. This is the most common mulberry of Bengal and Assam as also of the Nilgiri hills.

India has three well known purely indigenous silkworms, the *tasar*, the *muga* and the *eri*. The first is widely distributed on the lower hills, more especially those of the great central tableland, and feeds on several jungle trees. The second is confined to Assam and Eastern Bengal, and feeds on a laurel. The third exists in a state of semi-domestication being reared on the castor-oil plant. From an art point of view the *muga* silk is the most interesting and attractive, and the cocoon can be reeled readily. The *eri* silk, on the other hand, is so extremely

difficult to reel that it is nearly always carded and spun—an art which was practised in the Khasi Hills of Assam long before it was thought of in Europe.

Experiments and results.—Numerous experiments have been made with a view to improving sericulture in India. French and other experts are agreed that one of the causes of the decline of the silk industry in India has been the prevalence of diseases and parasites among the worms, the most prevalent disease being pebrine. M. Lafont, who has conducted experiments in cross breeding, believes that improvement in the crops will be obtained as soon as the fight against pebrine and other diseases of the worms is taken up vigorously by the producers of seed and the rearers of worms, while improvement in the quality of the cocoons will be obtained by rearing various races pure and cross breeds.

In Kashmir and Mysore satisfactory results have been obtained. In the former State sericulture has been fostered on approved European principles with Italian reeling machinery, seed being imported annually on a large scale. In 1897 in Mysore Mr. Tata, after selecting a plantation and site for rearing houses, sent to Japan for a Superintendent and trained operatives. The Mysore authorities have made a grant of Rs 8,000 a year to the Tata farm in return for instruction given to the people of Mysore in Japanese methods of growing the mulberry and rearing the insects. The products of the Mysore State are exported to foreign countries from Madras. The work of the Salvation Army is also noteworthy in various parts of India. They have furnished experts, encouraged the planting of mulberry trees, and subsidised several silk schools. The draft prospectus has been issued of a silk farm and institute to be started at Elms under the auspices of the Salvation Army. The Lieut. Governor of the Punjab has permitted the school to be called after his name, and the Punjab Government made a grant of Rs 2,000 towards the expenses. Sir Dornabji Tata has also made a donation of Rs 1,000. The Bengal Silk Committee under the guidance of some French experts have conducted cross breeding experiments with a view to establish a multi voltine hybrid of European quality. There is a Government sericultural farm at Berhampore, where, it is said, a pure white multi voltine of silk worm is reared. The results of the Bengal Committee's labours may be summed up as follows: the only really effective method of dealing with the problem is to work up gradually to a point at which the whole of the seed cocoon necessary for the province will be supplied to rearers under Government supervision and to establish gradually a sufficient number of large nurseries throughout the silk districts of the province.

In 1915 there was issued by the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, a Bulletin (No. 48 of 1915) entitled 'First Report on the Experiments carried out at Pusa to improve the Mulberry Silk Industry'. In a short Preliminary note

Mr. Bainbridge Fletcher (Imperial Entomologist) explains that the object of the Bulletin is to place on record some of the more important experiments which were commenced at Pusa, in the year 1910 and have since been carried on in the endeavour to fix a superior multivoltine race of the Mulberry Silkworm which would not degenerate and which would yield silk better both in quality and outturn than that supplied by the multivoltine races which are reared at present.

Central Nurseries.—The report of the Agricultural Department, Bengal, for the year ending June 30, 1913, gives an account of a scheme which has been devised with the object of reclaiming the silk industry. The aim of the scheme is gradually to establish throughout the silk districts a sufficient number of central nurseries with rearing houses and thus enable the whole of the seed cocoons required in the province to be supplied under Government supervision. It is believed that this is the only really effective method of dealing with the problem. A number of the existing smaller nurseries were closed during 1913 and others are being converted into enlarged and improved central nurseries with rearing houses complete. The ultimate success of the scheme depends

largely on the willingness of the rearers to pay an adequate price for pure seed.

A pamphlet was published in 1915 by Mr. V. De, Agricultural Assistant at Pusa, which contains practical hints on improved methods which are recommended to be used for reeling mulberry silk in Bengal and other silk producing districts. It has been found that, by the provision of two small pulleys to the ordinary Bengal type of reeling machine, superior thread can be obtained, the cost of the extra apparatus is merely nominal (five or six annas per machine) whilst the suitability of the machine for cottage workers is maintained. By attention to such simple points as the stifling and storage of cocoons and the temperature and quality of the water used in the reeling pans, great improvements can be effected in most silk centres in Bengal and other districts.

Exports of Silk.—As a result of the war the trade has shown in some degree signs of revival from its decadent condition, both as regards its volume and value. The value of exports during 1915-16 improved by Rs. 12 lakhs to Rs. 27½ lakhs of which raw silk accounted for Rs. 24 lakhs. In 1916-17 the total exports rose to Rs. 54½ lakhs. In 1920-21 exports of raw silk amounted to Rs. 30 lakhs and of silk manufactures to nearly Rs. 2½ lakhs.

Indigo

Indigo dyes are obtained from the *Indigofera* a genus of Leguminosae which comprises some 300 species, distributed throughout the tropical and warm temperate regions of the globe, India having about 40. Western India may be described as the headquarters of the species, so far as India is concerned, 25 being peculiar to that Presidency. On the eastern side of India, in Bihar, Bengal, Assam and Burma, there is a marked decrease in the number of species but a visible increase in the prevalence of those that are met with.

There is evidence that when Europeans first began to export the dye from India, it was procured from the Western Presidency and shipped from Surat. It was carried by the Portuguese to Lisbon and sold by them to the dyers of Holland and it was the desire to obtain a more ample supply of dye stuff that led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company and so to the overthrow of the Portuguese supremacy in the East. Opposition to indigo in 17th century Europe was keen owing to its interference with the wool industry, but it was competition to obtain indigo from other sources than India that led on the first decline of the Indian indigo industry. In the middle of the eighteenth century, when the cultivation of indigo in the West Indies had been given up—partly on account of the high duties imposed upon it and partly because sugar and coffee were found to be more profitable—the industry was revived in India, and, as one of the many surprises of the industry, the province of Bengal was selected for this revival. It had no sooner been organised, however than troubles next arose in Bengal itself through

misunderstandings between the planters, their cultivators and the Government which may be said to have culminated in Lord Macaulay's famous *Memoirs* of 1837. This led to another migration of the industry from Lower and Eastern Bengal to Tirhut and the United Provinces. Here the troubles of the industry did not end, for the researches of the chemical laboratories of Germany threatened the very existence of any natural vegetable dye. They first killed the madder dye of Europe, then the safflower, the lac and the *ai* dyes of India, and are now advancing rapidly with synthetic indigo, intent on the complete annihilation of the natural dye. Opinions differ on many aspects of the present viciatude, meantime the exports from India have seriously declined, and salvation admittedly lies in the path of cheaper production both in cultivation and manufacture. These issues are being vigorously faced and some progress has been accomplished, but the future of the industry can scarcely help being described as of great uncertainty. The issue is not the advantage of new regulations of land tenure, but one exclusively of natural versus synthetic indigo (See Watt's "Commercial Products of India"). In this connection it may be noted that increases in the price of coal in England, due to labour difficulties, have greatly strengthened the position of natural indigo. In February 1916 a conference was held at Delhi when the possibility of assisting the natural indigo industry was considered from three points of view—agricultural, research and commercial. The agricultural or botanical side of the question is fully discussed by Mr. and Mrs. Howard of Pusa in *Bulletins* Nos. 51 and 54 of

the Agricultural Research Institute, Other aspects of the question were fully examined last year in the Agricultural Journal of India by Mr W. A. Davis, Indigo Research Chemist to the Government of India. An Indigo Cess Bill was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1918. It provides for a cess on Indigo exported from India for the scientific investigation of the methods of cultivation and manufacture of Indigo the proceeds of the cess being received and expended by Government.

Decline of the Industry—Since synthetic Indigo was put upon the market, in 1897 the natural indigo industry of India has declined very rapidly, apart from slight recoveries in 1906-07 and 1911-12, the decline continued without a break until the revival due to the impossibility of obtaining artificial dyes in sufficient quantities during the war.

The total yield in 1929-30 was estimated at 14,600 cwt. The exports which are no longer of much importance amounted only to 900 cwt.

OILS AND OIL CAKES

In 1928-29 and again in 1929-30 seeds ranked fourth in order of importance in India's export trade, the first three groups being jute and cotton raw and manufactured and footers. The total exports of oilseeds in 1928-29 amounted to 1,165,000 tons valued at Rs. 26,46 lakh and showed a decrease of 10 per cent in quantity and 11 per cent in value below the preceding year's figures. Compared with the pre-war average there was a decline of 18 per cent in quantity but an increase of 9 per cent in value. The table below shows the quantities of the principal kinds of oilseeds exported during the last three years and in the pre-war quinquennium. Owing to a shortage of world supplies Indian linseed was in better demand but exports of all other varieties of oilseeds showed a decided drop. During the first half of the year prices remained at a reasonable level. Later in acute depression set in as a result of the financial crisis in the United States of America which had the repercussions in Europe and prices began to decline.

	Pre-war 1927 average 28	1928-29 29	1929-30 30
	(Thousands of tons)		
Linseed	379	222	157
Rape seed	278	66	77
Groundnuts	212	613	768
Caster	114	122	121
Cotton	240	153	131
Sesamum	119	11	80
Copra	31		
Others	65	23	24
Total	1,453	1,210	1,328

A pamphlet on the subject recently published by the Commercial Intelligence Department points out that it is both economically and industrially unsound for India to export her oilseeds instead of manufacturing the oils and oil cakes in India. It allows other countries to reap the manufacturers' profits and at the same time deprives Indian agriculture of the great potential wealth, as cattle-food and manure, contained in the oil cakes. An immense quantity of oil is, as a matter of fact, already manufactured in this country by more or less crude processes. Village oil mills worked by bullocks and presses worked by hand exist in all parts of the country and supply most of the local demand for oil. There has also been a great increase in recent years in the number of oil

mills worked by steam or other mechanical power. These crush all the commoner oil seeds and development has been especially marked in the case of mustard oil, castor oil and groundnut oil. In spite of all this there has been a perceptible diminution in the export of oil from India, particularly of coconut oil and linseed oil and an increase in the export of oil seeds which is particularly marked in the case of copra and groundnuts. The situation created by the War has naturally led to too much discussion of the possibility of developing on a large scale the existing oil milling industry in India.

There are three difficulties with which any proposal to develop in India an oil milling industry on a great scale is faced. In the first place, there exist high protective tariffs in European countries which encourage the export from India of the raw material rather than the manufactured product. Secondly, there is a better market for the oil cake in Europe than in India and the freight on oil seeds is less than the freight on cake. Thirdly, it is much easier and less expensive to transport oil seeds by sea than it is to transport oil. While this has been the position in the European markets, Indian made oils other than coconut oil have made enough headway in Eastern markets to suggest the possibility of a development of those markets.

The problem of finding a market for oil cakes is equally important. The value of oil cakes is much better appreciated in Europe than in India. The Indian cultivator is prejudiced against the use of machine-made cake as a cattle food or as manure because he considers that it contains less oil and therefore less nourishment than the village-made cake. He is therefore unwilling to buy it except at a reduced price. His prejudices on this point have no justification in fact since experts are agreed that mill cake is a better food for cattle than village-made cake. Even when the mill cake contains less oil than the village cake, there is still more oil in the cake than cattle can digest. The excess of oil in the village cake, where it exists, is a drawback and not an advantage to the use of the cake as food. A considerable amount of demonstration work has been done by the Agricultural Departments of Government in order to remove the cultivator's prejudices and there is said now to be an increasing demand for most classes of mill cake.

Tea.

Tea cultivation in India is chiefly in Assam, Bengal and Southern India, the cultivation elsewhere being comparatively unimportant.

The total production of tea in India was estimated at 133 million lbs in 1929 as compared with 404 million lbs in 1928 and 391 million

lbs in 1927. Assam contributed 60 per cent., Northern India (excluding Assam) 27 per cent and Southern India 13 per cent, as compared with 61, 25 and 14 per cent, respectively, in the preceding year. The statement below shows the development of the industry during the past years.

	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929
ACREAGE	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres	Acres
Assam	413 300	416 500	420 400	424 000	427 200	429 600
Rest of Northern India	204 400	211 200	212 700	214 200	218 700	223 000
Southern India	97,000	100 000	106,300	117 800	127,100	130 200
Total	714,700	727 700	739 400	756 000	773 000	782 800
PRODUCTION	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)
Assam	297 153	22, 185	241 982	235 828	246,01	278 941
Rest of Northern India	91 301	89,017	90 804	101 923	100,475	117,828
Southern India	46,752	49,305	51 147	63 100	67 272	68 664
Total	375, 56	363 007	392 933	399 920	403,766	433 293

Exports during the same years were as follows —

Exports of tea by sea to foreign countries

	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1,000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)
From Northern India (Calcutta and Chittagong)	299 747	280 024	304 577	15 109	309 845	338 963
From Southern India (Madras ports)	37 717	43,945	41,172	46 142	40 302	50 179
From Bombay Sind and Burma	2 643	2,578	1,373	761	43	600
Total	340 107	326,545	350 502	362,012	350,764	377 142

During 1929-30 the exports rose by 7 per cent in quantity and fell by 2 per cent in value as compared with 1928-29 and amounted to 377 million lbs valued at Rs 26 crores against 360 million lbs valued at Rs 27 crores in the preceding year. The United Kingdom raised her demands of black tea from 208 million lbs valued at Rs 22½ crores in 1928-29 to 317 million lbs valued at Rs 22 crores in 1929-30. The exports of green tea to that country during 1929-30 amounted to 460 000 lbs as against 439 000 lbs in the previous year. The share of the United Kingdom in the total exports was about 84 per cent against 83 per cent in

1928-29. The re-exports of Indian tea from the United Kingdom increased from 52 million lbs in 1928-29 to 6½ million lbs in 1929-30 of which the Irish Free State took 19 million lbs, Russia 10 million lbs, other European Countries 12 million lbs, the United States of America 6 million lbs and Canada 3 million lbs. Exports of Indian tea to Russia, Persia, Canada and the United States of America increased from 4, 4, 11 and 8 million lbs to 6, 12 and 8½ million lbs respectively while those to Iraq, Ceylon and Australia declined from 2, 5 and 5½ million lbs to 1½, 4 and 4½ million lbs respectively during 1929-30.

EXPORTS AND PRICES

The following table shows the quantity of Tea exported by sea and by land to Foreign Countries from India, Ceylon, China and Java in the years 1900-01 to 1929-30 with variations in index numbers, taking the figure of 1896-97 as 100.

	India	Ceylon	China	Java
	lbs	lbs	Black and green	Brick, table and dust
1900-01	192,800,658 (138)	149,264,608 (138)	144,270,333 (100)	59,120,657 (66)
1901-02	182,584,356 (121)	144,570,608 (131)	149,390,000 (74)	59,120,657 (66)
1902-03	185,710,981 (122)	150,629,707 (137)	128,226,833 (79)	78,512,400 (100)
1903-04	209,582,150 (139)	149,227,250 (135)	140,607,867 (85)	83,813,600 (107)
1904-05	214,800,325 (142)	157,920,587 (143)	132,204,933 (83)	61,407,733 (78)
1905-06	216,770,258 (147)	171,658,703 (153)	112,152,533 (69)	70,784,207 (91)
1906-07	238,047,826 (151)	171,658,703 (153)	108,584,534 (67)	70,808,133 (101)
1907-08	238,047,826 (151)	181,120,208 (164)	180,023,206 (80)	84,940,000 (109)
1908-09	235,089,126 (154)	181,120,208 (164)	129,205,733 (80)	80,885,733 (103)
1909-10	240,521,064 (167)	180,535,921 (172)	120,174,900 (74)	79,817,600 (101)
1910-11	256,435,014 (170)	186,935,117 (170)	128,647,724 (77)	84,156,943 (107)
1911-12	268,515,774 (175)	184,720,534 (168)	137,788,933 (85)	57,251,487 (78)
1912-13	281,815,320 (187)	196,632,980 (193)	127,829,300 (79)	69,733,200 (99)
1913-14	291,715,041 (194)	107,419,430 (179)	109,259,733 (66)	83,374,400 (108)
1914-15	302,543,697 (201)	191,835,940 (174)	117,337,867 (83)	81,123,333 (103)
1915-16	340,438,163 (226)	214,900,333 (195)	143,662,000 (89)	93,776,867 (119)
1916-17	292,594,026 (194)	203,000,270 (189)	126,260,800 (78)	78,239,733 (101)
1917-18	360,631,983 (240)	195,231,592 (177)	60,936,666 (78)	60,936,666 (78)
1918-19	320,648,780 (217)	180,817,744 (164)	43,425,973 (57)	10,445,866 (15)
1919-20	325,033,694 (254)	203,560,943 (189)	71,891,200 (44)	20,182,500 (29)
1920-21	287,524,607 (191)	184,770,231 (168)	86,008,500 (54)	58,460,400 (83)
1921-22	317,696,800 (211)	161,610,966 (147)	63,592,533 (93)	67,775,390 (94)
1922-23	294,701,469 (190)	171,607,631 (156)	42,538,133 (63)	3,473,400 (5)
1923-24	344,773,171 (239)	281,439,731 (185)	61,012,133 (84)	8,813,467 (11)
1924-25	348,476,011 (252)	204,981,217 (186)	91,813,323 (94)	10,770,333 (16)
1925-26	387,114,872 (244)	204,701,863 (181)	88,019,600 (94)	23,048,131 (33)
1926-27	335,480,982 (237)	207,701,863 (187)	82,898,500 (91)	23,012,400 (37)
1927-28	370,803,526 (251)	237,057,959 (206)	77,809,900 (84)	33,840,300 (49)
1928-29	366,501,868 (245)	236,710,281 (205)	76,660,967 (88)	46,618,933 (69)
1929-30	350,390,779 (237)	251,338,012 (230)	85,949,067 (93)	40,414,931 (52)

a The figures for years previous to 1905-06 and also from 1917-18 onwards relate to the calendar year

† In the case of Java the figure for 1905-06 has been taken as 100 earlier figures not being available

‡ Figures for 1925-26 to 1929-30 include those of railborne trade at stations adjoining land frontier routes

The following statement illustrates the variations in prices of Indian tea sold at auction sale in Calcutta and in average declared values of exports by sea in 1880-90 and the ten years ending 1929-30 the average price of 1901-02 to 1910-11 being taken as 100 in each case —

Year	Average price of Indian tea		Average declared value of Exports by Sea	
	Price	Variation	Price	Variation
1880-90	As p 7 7	126	As p 8 2	117
1890-91	5 1	85	6 10	98
1901-02	10 1	168	9 8	142
1910-11	13 3	221	12 3	176
1920-21	15 0	250	14 11	211
1921-22	14 11	230	13 9	223
1922-23	13 5	224	13 4	190
1923-24	12 5	204	13 4	190
1924-25	11 10	247	14 4	215
1925-26	11 4	190	11 10	169
1926-27	9 11	165	11 1	158

Tea Cess Fund—In 1908 an Act known as the Indian Tea Cess Act IX of 1908 was passed at the request of the trade for promoting its sale and manufacture under this Act a duty of $\frac{1}{2}$ pice per lb was levied on all Indian tea exported upto the 30th April 1921. From 1st May, 1921, the rate was raised to $\frac{1}{2}$ pice per lb and from the 21st April 1923 to 6 annas per 100 lbs ($\frac{1}{2}$ pice per lb). The whole of the amount collected is made over to a fund known as the Tea Cess Fund which is placed at the disposal of a Committee appointed for the purpose, and Government merely acts as a revenue collecting agency. The total amount collected in 1929-30 was Rs 13,19,600 as against Rs 13,53,000 in 1928-29 and Rs 13,75,000 in 1927-28.

Quantity of Indian Tea exported by sea* (distinguished according to countries of final destination) and by land, in the years 1923-24 to 1929-30

	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs	lbs
United Kingdom	299,722,215	280,572,098	292,501,488	307,246,271	299,002,897	317,522,148	
Rest of Europe	2,723,976	3,601,972	2,895,170	9,167,720	7,025,914	8,406,949	
Africa	4,880,108	6,036,968	7,872,938	6,067,088	8,891,109	9,949,471	
Canada	8,899,269	7,051,242	11,528,435	9,236,135	11,207,718	12,352,840	
U S A	6,269,245	4,002,025	7,619,656	8,798,342	7,083,969	8,446,316	
Rest of America	1,126,316	1,749,018	1,425,656	1,209,404	1,441,980	1,061,932	
Ceylon (a)	3,885,182	4,178,218	4,427,861	4,718,341	4,448,215	4,733,103	
China	104,695	2,039,772	490,002	3,592,673	6,140,235	13,031	
Persia	3,095,991	3,187,714	5,623,808	4,217,751	4,154,481	8,562,901	
Turkey Asiatic	2,680,316	3,279,837	4,292,032	2,377,771	2,468,827	1,745,610	
Rest of Asia	2,382,173	2,498,819	3,271,713	2,314,049	3,220,120	3,174,032	
Australasia	5,105,514	6,861,871	8,751,635	7,026,175	6,785,905	4,980,582	
By Land	7,571,872	10,760,690	12,379,130	5,891,680	8,423,520	8,854,641	
GRAND TOTAL	349,476,011	337,314,172	362,880,932	470,903,804	368,207,822	385,996,779	

* Including shipments from the State of Travancore

(a) Tea consigned from British India to Ceylon is almost entirely transhipped at Colombo to other countries and does not, therefore, appear in the Ceylon Customs Returns as imports into Ceylon.

† Includes Itanq

‡ These figures are not strictly comparable with the previous figures as they represent all the trade registered at selected railway stations adjacent to the land frontier, though a fair portion of them is frontier trade. The old system of registration of frontier trade by means of clerks posted on the important trade routes across the frontier has been discontinued from 1st April 1925. The figure for 1925-26 excludes exports from Burma.

Coffee.

The history of the introduction of coffee into India is very obscure. Most writers agree that it was brought to Mysore some two centuries ago by a Mohammedan pilgrim named Baba Budan, who on his return from Mecca brought seven seeds with him. This tradition is so universally believed in by the inhabitants of the greater part of South India, that there seems every chance of its being founded on fact. About the beginning of the 18th century there is no doubt coffee had found its way to India, and in 1823 a charter was granted to Fort Gloster, near Calcutta authorising it to become a cotton mill a coffee plantation and a rum distillery. Some of the coffee trees planted in fulfilment of that charter are supposed to be still alive, and about the same time coffee was successfully grown in the Botanic Gardens, Calcutta, but the industry of coffee planting nowhere found an abiding place on the plains of India but migrated to the hills of South India, in Mysore more especially, and thus into the very region where tradition affirms it had been introduced two centuries previously.

The first systematic plantation was apparently Mr. Cannon's near Chikmagalur. This was established in 1890. It is supposed, however, that Major Bevan may have actually grown coffee on the Wynad at a slightly earlier date and that Mr.

Cockburn's Shevaroy plantation bears the same date as Mr. Cannon's. In 1840 Mr. Glesson formed a plantation at Manastoddy, and to 1846 plantations were organised on the Nilgiri hills.

The Position of the Industry.—The Indian coffee crop of 1928-29 was estimated at 28 million lbs. or nearly 8 million tons less than in the preceding year. Exports during 1928-29 which were chiefly drawn from the 1924-25 crop declined by 7 per cent. in quantity from 198,000 cwt. to 184,000 cwt. and by 14 per cent. in value from Rs. 1.69 lakhs to Rs. 1.45 lakhs. With the exception of the United Kingdom and a few minor countries all the principal customers reduced their purchases. Shipments to the United Kingdom which were comparatively low in 1928-29 recovered to 69,000 cwt. in 1929-30 as compared with 41,000 cwt. in the preceding year and 76,000 cwt. in 1927-28. France and Norway further curtailed their requirements from 60,000 and 24,000 cwt. to 44,000 and 12,000 cwt. respectively. There were also reduced shipments to Germany, the Netherlands and Belgium which together took 3,000 cwt. as against 4,000 cwt. in the preceding year. Exports to Iraq and the Dutch in India fell to 1,000 cwt. each from 11,000 and 14,000 cwt. respectively in 1928-29 while Australia and New Zealand together took 6,000 cwt. as against 8,000 cwt. in 1928-29.

INDIAN TOBACCO

The tobacco plant was introduced into India by the Portuguese about the year 1605. As in other parts of the world, it passed through a period of persecution but its ultimate distribution over India is one of the numerous examples of the avidity with which advantageous new crops or appliances are adopted by the Indian agriculturist. Five or six species of *Nicotiana* are cultivated, but only two are found in India, namely *N. Tabacum* and *N. rustica*. The former is a native of South or Central America, and is the common tobacco of India. About the year 1829 experiments were conducted by the East India Company towards improving the quality of leaf and perfecting the native methods of curing and manufacturing tobacco. These were often repeated and gradually the industry became identified with three great centres namely (1) Eastern and Northern Bengal (more especially the District of Rangpur) (2) Madras, Trichinopoly, Dindigul, Coimbatore and Calicut in Southern India, and (3) Rangoon and Moulmein in Burma. Bengal is the chief tobacco growing Province, but little or no tobacco is manufactured there. The chief factories are near Dindigul in the Madras Presidency, though owing to the imposition of heavy import duties on the foreign leaf used as a cigar wrapper some cigar factories have been moved to the French territory of Pondicherry.

The question of improving the quality of Indian tobaccos has received the attention of the Botanical section of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, and three Memoirs have been published recording the results of investigations in that direction. The immediate problem at Pusa is the production of a

good cigarette tobacco. Many attempts have been made in the past to introduce into India the best varieties of cigarette tobacco from America, but the results have been disappointing. It is now hoped to build up by hybridization new kinds of tobacco suited to Indian conditions of growth, which possess in addition the qualities necessary to obtain a better price.

Area under Cultivation.—The cultivation of tobacco is very widespread in Burma. The two main varieties are called Burmese tobacco and 'Havana tobacco'. Of the Burmese tobacco there are two main varieties "Peywet-gyi," the large-leaved variety and "Seywet-gyin," a smaller leaved variety with pointed leaves. The former yields a heavier crop, but the latter gives better quality. There is always a great demand on the market for both the Havana and the Burma tobacco. The smooth leaves of the Havana plant are used for the wrappers and the coarser Burmese leaf for the filling.

The most important tobacco tracts in British India are—(1) the Coimbatore and Dindigul tract of Madras, where the *Uri-Kappal* and *Wari Kappal* varieties are largely grown, the former supplying the Trichinopoly cigar; (2) the Godavari Delta of Madras; (3) the Rangpur tract of Bengal; (4) the Districts of Bihar and Orissa; (5) Guzerat in Bombay and (6) the delta tract of Burma.

The season for harvesting varies in different localities ranging from December to June, but the bulk of the crop is harvested during the months of February, March and April. The leaves when quite dry, are assorted and placed in heaps in stacks to ferment. They are then

ried into bundles of 25 or 80, a useless leaf being employed for tying each bundle. The leaves are laid perfectly flat, the bundles being fan shaped. In this condition they are baled the broom like ends projecting outwards. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves different qualities of tobacco are obtained. A black variety is used in India for cake tobacco and this is the most common product, but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Exports.—Exports of unmanufactured tobacco recorded a substantial improvement in 1928-29 and amounted to 33 million lbs. valued at Rs. 1.23 lakhs in 1928-29 as compared with 28 million lbs. valued at Rs. 89 lakhs in the preceding year, an increase of 18 per cent in quantity

and of 24 per cent in value. In 1928-29 the exports fell to 26 million lbs. valued at Rs. 99 lakhs. The decrease was most noticeable in the shipments from Bombay, which were 4 million lbs. compared with over 8 million lbs. in the previous year. Owing to the preference accorded to Empire-grown tobacco, there has been a remarkable increase in the use of Indian tobacco in the United Kingdom although there is yet room for further improvement in the direction of curing, packing and grading of the Indian leaf. Before the war the average exports of unmanufactured tobacco from India to the United Kingdom amounted to 135,000 lbs. only while in 1928-29 the exports totalled 12 million lbs. compared with 8 million lbs. in 1927-28 and 10 million lbs. in 1926-27.

The Cocaine Traffic.

The form of cocaine chiefly used in India is Cocaine Hydrochloride. This salt forms light shining crystals, with a bitterish taste, and is soluble in half its weight of water. The alkaloid cocaine—of which this is a salt—is obtained from the dried leaves of the *Erythroxylon* Cocaine which grows in Bolivia, Peru, Java, Brazil and other parts of South America. The leaves are most active when freshly dried and are much used by the natives as a stimulant. Tea made from them has a taste similar to green tea and is said to be very effective in keeping people awake. In India the Coca plant seems never to have been cultivated on a commercial scale. It has been grown experimentally in the tea districts of Ceylon, Bengal and Southern India and has been found to produce a good quality and quantity of cocaine. As the plant has not been seriously cultivated and as there is no possibility for the present of the drug being manufactured in India, no restrictions have as yet been placed on its cultivation.

Spread of the habit.—The cocaine traffic in India which seems to be reaching an alarming proportion in spite of legislation and strict preventive measures is of comparatively recent growth, though it is impossible to estimate how widespread it was in 1903 when the Bombay High Court for the first time decided that cocaine was a drug included within the definition of an intoxicating drug in the Bombay Abkari Act. Since that date the illegal sale of cocaine in India has largely increased and the various provincial Excise Reports bear witness to the spread of the 'Cocaine habit.' The consumers of the drug, which is notoriously harmful, are to be found in all classes of society and in Burma even school children are reported to be its victims, but in India as in Paris the drug is mostly used by prostitutes or by men as an aphrodisiac. The habit has spread chiefly to those classes which are prohibited by religion or caste rules from partaking of liquor and the well-known Indian intoxicating drugs.

Smuggling.—So far as the cases already detected show the persons who smuggle the drug by sea from Europe and places outside India, into India, are chiefly sailors, stewards, firemen and sometimes engineers and officers of

foreign ships. The ports through which cocaine enters India are Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras, Varmagao and Pondicherry. The main inland distributing centres are Delhi, Lucknow, Meerut, Lahore, Mooltan, Surat and Ahmedabad. Delhi especially is notorious for the cocaine trade. Great ingenuity is employed in smuggling cocaine through the customs houses. It is packed in parcels of newspapers, books, toys and piece-goods and in trunks which have secret compartments. The retail trade in the towns is very cunningly organised and controlled. In addition to the actual retailers there is a whole army of watchmen and patrols whose duty is to shadow the Excise and Police Officials and give the alarm when a raid is contemplated. During the War several cases of importation of Japanese cocaine were detected, the importers being Japanese and Chinese Sailors. The original marks on the packets and phials are usually destroyed so that the names of the manufacturing firm may not be found out. In 1922-23 the largest seizure of cocaine made by the Excise Department in the Bombay Presidency was one of 11,500 grains while in 1923-24 a seizure of 24,000 grains was effected. In October 1924 the Excise Department made a seizure of 48,500 grains in a single case.

The Review of the Customs Administration in India 1925-26 contains the following paragraph:

'Most of the cocaine seized on import into India appears to have come from the Far East. The biggest seizures during the year were—

825 oz at Rangoon
620 oz at Calcutta
270 oz at Bombay
200 lbs and 140 oz at Calcutta

The total amount of cocaine seized by Customs Houses during the year was 3,453 oz.

The amount seized is either given to Hospitals in India or destroyed. It is no longer possible to buy cocaine from any legitimate seller as it was ten years ago but scores of cases in the Police Courts show that the retail trade thrives though to a diminished extent in Bombay. High profits ensure the continuance of the trade.

The law in regard to Cocaine.—This varies in different provinces. A summary of the law in Bombay is as follows: No cocaine can be imported except by a licensed dealer and importation by means of the post is entirely prohibited. The sale, possession, transport and export of cocaine are prohibited except under a license or permit from the Collector of the District. A duly qualified and licensed Medical practitioner is allowed to transport or remove 20 grains in the exercise of his profession and as far as 6 grains may be possessed by any person if covered by a bona fide prescription from a duly qualified Medical practitioner. The maximum punish-

ment for illegal sale, possession, transport, etc., under Act V of 1873 as amended by Act XII of 1912 is as follows: Imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year or fine which may extend to Rs 2,000 or both and on any subsequent conviction imprisonment for a term which may extend to 2 years or fine which may extend to Rs 4,000 or both. The law in Bombay has been further amended so as to enable secrecy to be taken from persons who have been convicted of cocaine offences. The new Act also contains a section for the punishment of house owners who let their houses to habitual cocaine sellers.

The Opium Trade.

Mention opium and half the Western world directs its thought to India as though India were the most important producer of the most noxious drug on earth. Back to the League of Nations, proceedings in regard to opium and again mainly under the leadership of American representatives, one finds India and the Government of India held up to humanity as traffickers in opium and as thereby obstructing to making the world a better place to live in. In fact neither India nor the Government of India has anything to be ashamed of in its opium history. Whatever may be the case in other countries centuries of inherited experience have taught the people of India discretion in the use of the drug, and its misuse is a negligible feature in Indian life. Abuse of its properties is rarer in India than the abuse of alcohol in Western countries so much for the internal position.

The record as regards exports is equally clean. India has never driven hard bargains to secure the sale of the product overseas. Where it has been bought the reason is its superiority over other supplies because of the stringent regulations by which its manufacture has always under the British authorities been regulated in India in order to secure the purity and cleanliness of the finished product. Directly any importing country has expressed a desire to have the trade reduced, the Government of India have responded by attenuating their restrictions on export. There have in recent years meetings at the instance of America been numerous international conferences with a view to making opium and drugs derived from it more difficult to obtain and in every case it has been found that India had already given the lead in the special regulations which it was proposed to lay down.

The China Trade.—The classic case of Indian restriction of her export opium trade is provided by China. There is a long history of Indo-Chinese negotiations on the subject but it is unnecessary to go further back into those than 1911. On 8th May of that year there was drawn up between India and China an agreement under which the Government of India assented to (1) the payment of an import duty three times the existing amount in return for the promised abolition of provincial taxes (2) the partial closure of China to Indian opium by

provinces including not only stoppage of transit passes but also to its port towns Shanghai and Canton excepted. (3) the total abolition of trade before 1917 on proof of total cessation of opium production in China and (4) revision of the agreement on due notice by either party. This agreement is its terms which it was on the side of China the outcome of a professed desire to stamp out the opium trade and opium consumption in her inland. And on her side China in the agreement undertakes among other things to reduce production in China *par passu* with the reduction of exports from India.

In addition to the limit to the China trade imposed by the agreement the Government of India undertakes in order to lessen the danger of smuggling into China and as an earnest of their desire to assist that country, strictly to combine the remainder of Indian opium export to the legitimate demands of the non-China markets. A figure was elaborately calculated for these markets and India drastically cut her non-China exports down to it in 1911. In subsequent years she progressively reduced the permissible export until in 1914 she stopped exports to China altogether.

The financial sacrifice thereby undertaken by India in order to help the Chinese in their professed desire for reform amounted to many millions sterling a year. China never carried out her side of the bargain. She is still demonstrably the greatest opium producing country in the world and the only effect of the reduction and eventual abolition of imports from India is better trade for Chinese opium producers and merchants and largely increased imports of opium into China from Persia and Turkey.

Agreements observed by India.—The Government of India have carried out to the letter their side of the 1911 agreement. They have gone further. Not only were exports to China stopped and exports to non-China countries in the East limited in accordance with the agreement with China but exports to non-China countries have on the voluntary initiative of India been subjected to successive restraining agreements with the countries concerned. The Government of India introduced with effect from 1 January 1923 a certi-

float system recommended by the League of Nations whereby all exports of opium must be covered by certificates from the Government of the importing country that its consignment is approved and is required for legitimate purposes. The pressure exerted by the League of Nations in this regard was not pressure upon the Government of India but upon the Governments of the importing countries and, so far as India was concerned, the new system was welcomed because it removed from the shoulders of the Government of India all responsibility in regard to opium consumption in the importing countries and laid it upon their own respective Governments. In 1928 in order to fulfil the spirit of her international agreements India decided though she was in no way bound by their letter to do so to reduce her exports to Far Eastern countries for other than medicinal and scientific purposes by 10 per cent yearly so as to extinguish them altogether by December 1935 and effect has been given to that policy at considerable financial sacrifice. India is the only country that has made any considerable sacrifices of the kind.

International Aspect of the Problem —

It was only during the processes and negotiations by which the Indian opium export trade to China was being suppressed that the Opium question began to assume a widely international aspect. This happened on the initiative of the U.S.A., at whose instance an International Opium Commission met at Shanghai in 1909 and formulated a series of recommendations for the suppression of opium smoking and the regulation of the use of opium and morphia. The United States thereafter advanced a further proposal for an International Conference at the Hague. This met on 1 December 1911 and finally drew up a convention on the subject the terms of this document presented no new ideas to the Government of India. Their provisions India had long observed. As regards morphia and cocaine with which the Hague Conference concerned itself the uses of these drugs in India had long been subject to exceedingly strict regulations. But these two drugs the use of which for other than medicinal purposes invariably takes the form of dangerous vice were becoming a menace to the world. They were not included within the scope of the proposals submitted by the U.S.A. for the consideration of the Conference. It was mainly owing to pressure by the Government of India that they were included within the terms finally signed and the rigid and universal application of the articles of the Convention which apply to them would rid the world of the drug evil.

As regards prepared opium, that is to say smoking opium India does not and never has exported it and the sale of it in India is prohibited. No opium is exported from India to the United States of America. None has been exported to Great Britain by private merchants since 1916. Exports to Great Britain are strictly limited to medicinal requirements and go officially from the Government of India to the British Government. Nor is Indian opium exported to any other country in Europe.

Indian Uses of Opium.—There is a fundamental difference between the problem in India and that in foreign countries, particularly in

America and Europe. America and Europe are principally concerned with the problem of the vicious consumption of cocaine and morphia and it is on the experience of the abuse of these drugs in those countries that much of the condemnation of Indian policy is based. It is accepted that the consumption of opium in America and Europe is in effect hardly less disastrous than that of morphia and cocaine. And the reason is that to Americans and Europeans opium is an unaccustomed drug. The habit of its use being both new and strange to them it is never used to moderation but always abused and the results have no relation to the result of moderate opium eating in India. The fact appears to be that people acquire a tolerance to drugs, to the use of which they are long habituated. Opium has been used in India since the 16th century at least. The method of use is eating and in India generally up to smoking eating seems to do little if any harm. Smoking which is the habit of the Far Eastern races rather than of the Europeans seems to do much more harm in India than eating with all the other harm where smoking is in ordinary use. Competent authorities (e.g. the Royal Commission on Opium in Malaya) think eating to be more harmful than smoking.

The Government of India have fully participated in the different International Conferences on the drug question and responded to the obligations which her assent to the conclusions has placed upon her in regard to home consumption. But the principal effect upon India of these International discussions has been to draw the fresh attention of her Government and people to the opium situation in her midst to cause consultations on the subject between the Government of India and the Indian Legislature and to produce what may be described as considerable intelligent progress in the development of those regulations upon the use of opium which are time honoured.

The Commission of 1893.—Despite all this the principles of Indian internal opium policy essentially remain, subject to certain changes of scientific opinion in regard to medicinal uses those laid down by a Royal Commission which was appointed by His Majesty's Government mainly as a result of the activities of the Society for the Suppression of the Opium Trade in 1893, to inquire into all the circumstances connected with the production and sale of Indian opium. The Society which was largely instrumental in bringing about the institution of the inquiry, recorded its opinion that the appointment of the Commission constituted the greatest and most solid forward step that the movement for the suppression of the opium trade has yet made and considered that the Royal Commission was as fair-minded and impartial a tribunal as the Society could have desired to hear its case. The results of the inquiry were published in 1896 in seven volumes.

The Royal Commissioners examined with the greatest care the problem of opium consumption in India and in brief they found that it was not only subject to careful regulation but was governed by longstanding and admirable disciplinary habits among the people. Excessive use, they found, was exceptional and condemned by public opinion. As regards the legal restric-

tion of its use to medical needs they advised that Government could do no more than limit the extent of cultivation and hold a monopoly of manufacture and wholesale supply and that to draw a line in popular opinion between medical uses and those not strictly so describable would be impracticable. They agreed that the mass of Indian opinion was opposed to prohibition as an unnecessary restriction on individual liberty and interference with established customs and habits. Apart from the religious question they found Indians generally to consider the use of alcohol to be more objectionable, more injurious and more disgraceful.

The Government of Lord Hardinge, in a Despatch to His Majesty's Government in 1911 and that of Lord Reading in a despatch dated 24th March 1921 both in the same words took their stand on the conclusion of the Royal Commission that the opium habit as a vice scarcely exists in India that opium is extensively used for non-medical and quasi-medical purposes in some cases with benefit and for the most part without injurious consequences, that the non-medical uses are so interwoven with the medical uses that it would not be practicable to draw a distinction between them in the distribution and sale of the drug and that it is not necessary that the growth of the poppy and the manufacture and sale of opium in British India should be prohibited except for medical purposes. The despatch of Lord Hardinge's Government was approvingly quoted by Lord Reading's Government a few years ago. It has long been recognized that any attempt to eradicate by law the use of opium would be open to all the objections involved in bureaucratic interference with popular custom. Making it is largely quasi-medical it is used for the prevention, cure and alleviation of disease as a prophylactic, as an anodyne and as the commonest and most treasured household medicine of the people, to whom qualified medical assistance is inaccessible. It is also taken as a sedative, as a tonic and as a restorative to lessen or avert fatigue and in other ways in which, when moderately used it is relatively innocuous.

Present Policy—The current attitude and policy of the Government of India were lately explained in their behalf to the League of Nations at Geneva. Their representative declared that any genuine measure of reform initiated by a Provincial Minister in connection with it would receive encouragement and support from the Central Government and showed that the policy of that Government is and has been one of non-interference with the moderate use of raw opium, whether the object of the consumer be some real or supposed physical benefit or merely the indulgence of the almost universal desire of human beings, particularly those whose occupations involve exposure or severe bodily exertion for a stimulant or narcotic. Excessive indulgence it is and always has been the desire of Government to express. Opium is under the current Indian constitution a Provincial transferred subject. Nevertheless, owing to the jealous watching and criticism by observers in every continent, the Government of India called an official All India Conference, which was opened at Simla by Lord Irwin on 5 May, 1920, to consider the question of certain areas where opium consump-

tion was alleged to be unduly high. This followed on the prosecution of special provincial inquiries by committees set up by the Local Governments at the special instance of His Majesty's Government. The conference after an exhaustive discussion of the phenomena presented by the various areas selected for investigation and in the light of the personal knowledge of the representatives of the different Provinces and of the reports of the local committees concluded that it appeared that certain parts of Assam and Calcutta might correctly be regarded as having excessive consumption and that Orissa and the Promezore District of the Punjab might be held to provide cases for further inquiry. In other cases the conference considered that there was no evidence of prevalent excess. But they gave a series of examples to show that there were simple explanations showing harmful causes for what appeared to be excessive consumption in many places.

While speaking at the Second Geneva Opium Conference on 10 January 1925 Lord Curzon stated that he had seen figures apparently taken from a report made by the United States Treasury to the effect that consumption was greater in America than in India. The estimate framed by the Advisory Committee of the League of the annual requirements of opium for strictly medicinal and scientific purposes is 400 milligrammes or 0.25 grains per capita which is roughly equivalent to 6 Indian rupees per 10,000. The Health Committee of the League opined that this could be reduced to 450 milligrammes or 0.69 grains in countries possessing a well developed medical service. The consumption per capita in British India during 1924-5, worked out at 17.2 grains per head. The rate of consumption has certainly fallen since the compilation of this published figure. The amount includes veterinary uses and these are extensive though to recur statistics of the quantity of opium given to animals is impossible. Allowance also has to be made for the poor morphine content of Indian opium which is about 8 per cent at 90 per cent and the limited number of medical practitioners trained on Western lines to administer strictly measured doses. Lord Curzon's statement at the League of Nations was received with extreme criticism by Mr. Porter of the American delegation. Mr. Porter said the American statistics cited had been distorted and that Lord Curzon's observations were a vile slander upon the people of the United States. Lord Curzon apologized and withdrew his statement. But Mr. Frederick Wallis, Commissioner of Correction, New York, writing in the current *History Magazine* for February 1925 showed the annual per capita consumption in Italy to be one grain, in Germany 2 grains, in England 3 grains, in France 4 grains and in the United States 36 grains. In current *History* for March 1925 Mr. Wallis defended this last figure and said that in view of the smuggling into the United States it would appear to me that the consumption would be much larger than the Government officially gave as 36 grains.

Opium policy has on several occasions during the past few years come under discussion in the Central Indian Legislature and in regard to it the Government of India and the non-official members of the Legislature have been in accord.

Alkali used is almost entirely of English manufacture being Carbonate of Soda 98-99% in a powdered form. This Alkali has almost completely taken place of the various Alkaline Earths formerly employed by the Glass Banglo manufactures as the latter cannot be used in the manufacture of glass which is to compete with the imported article. These points must be carefully noted for future guidance.

The Industry developed considerably under war conditions but in peace times, in this transition stage immediate efforts must be made in the direction of what the Indian Industrial Commission say in their Report (Appendix B) viz "The Glass Industry, even in its simplest form is highly technical and can be effec-

tly carried on only by scientifically trained managers and expert workmen. The present stage has been reached by importing men only partially equipped with the necessary qualifications, from Europe and Japan, and by sending Indian students abroad to pick up what knowledge they can. The glass industry is a closed trade and its secrets are carefully guarded, so that the latter method has not proved conspicuously successful."

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HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER

India's local manufactures of skins and leather have steadily increased in recent years. Previous to the outbreak of war, the trade in raw hides in this country was good, there was a large demand for hides, and prices ruled high. While in the continental markets stocks were high owing to overtrading in the previous year the United States had a shortage which was estimated at approximately two million pieces. On the declaration of war, the trade which had up till then been brisk was seriously dislocated. Exports to enemy countries especially to the great emporium of Indian hides Hamburg were stopped and exporters had to find new markets for the raw material. The raw hide business of India, it is well known, has hitherto been largely if not quite entirely, in the hands of German firms or firms of German origin. Germany has had the largest share of India's raw hides. In the four months before the outbreak of war she took 89 per cent of the total exports. In 1912-13 she took 32 per cent and in 1913-14, 83 per cent. Raw hides were exported to Trieste in considerable quantities whenever they were taken to Germany or Austria. In the four months before the outbreak of war 15 per cent of India's exports passed through Trieste. In 1913-14 the percentage was 21.

The trade experienced a severe depression in 1929-30 the total value registered having declined from Rs. 18.87 lakhs to Rs. 16.03 lakhs. This rather heavy set back was due mainly to reduced consumption in the principal importing countries viz the United Kingdom, Germany, and the United States of America. The average declared value for the exports showed a slight decline from Rs. 112.4 to Rs. 111.1 per lb in the case of tanned hides and skins although in the case of the raw stuff there was a nominal improvement from Rs. 0.10-4 to Rs. 0.10-9 per lb.

Conditions of the Trade—The trade in hides and skins and the craft in leather manufacture are in the hands either of Mahomedans or of low caste Hindus, and are on that account participated in by a comparatively small community. The traffic is subject to considerable fluctuations concomitant with the vicissitudes of the seasons. In famine years for instance the exports of untanned hides rise to an abnormal figure. The traffic is also peculiarly affected by the difficulty of

obtaining capital and by the religious objection which assigns it to a position of degradation and neglect. It has thus become a monopoly within a restricted community and suffers from the loss of competition and popular interest and favour.

Uses of Indian Hides—The fifteenth report of the Imperial Economic Committee states that Indian hides both raw and partially tanned are largely used for the upper leather of boots, partially tanned skins are used for fancy leather articles, bookbinding and for covering the mill rollers used in cotton mills for drawing the thread. Raw sheep-skins are used in similar articles and also for gloves. They are exported mostly to Germany, France and Italy. Raw goat-skins are used almost entirely in the manufacture of placoid of which commodity the United States is the chief producer. England has per cent of export of Indian raw goat-skins are sent direct to the United States. The consumption of placoid in the United Kingdom has remained stationary during the last five years, while the raw production up to 1924 increased somewhat and exports have slightly grown.

The chief markets for Indian raw hides are in Central and Southern Europe, Hamburg, being an important distributing centre. Directly after the war an effort was made to direct more of this trade to the United Kingdom but it has drifted back to Germany. The assortment and grading of raw hides exported from India before the war largely the result of the work of German firms established there had reached a high standard. After the war the trade became somewhat disorganised from a variety of causes none of which may be cited. Such changes the entry into the trade of new and at first inexperienced firms. The increased cost of arrangements for supervision at up country points. It has however been recovering its reputation.

Protecting the Industry—The report of the Industrial Commission pointed out that the principal difficulty at present in the hides and leather industry was the lack of organisation and expert skill. Government action to foster the industry was first taken in September 1919 when a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council further to amend the Indian Tariff Act, 1894. The effect of this Bill was officially described as follows: "It is to impose

an export duty of 15 per cent on hides and skins with a rebate of 10 per cent on hides and skins exported to other parts of the Empire, and there tanned. Its object is to ensure that our hides and skins shall be converted into fully tanned leather or articles of leather so far as possible in India and falling thus in other parts of the Empire, instead of being exported in a raw state for manufacture in foreign countries." (George Barnes who was in charge of the Bill and described the tanning industry as one of the most promising Indian industries explained that the present position is that we have in India at the present time some hundreds of tanneries for the tanning of hides a large number of which have come into existence in order to satisfy military requirements during the war. We have in fact the foundations of a flourishing tanning industry, but there is reason to fear that it may tend to dwindle and disappear with the diminution of military requirements. If some other support is not given. We want to keep this industry alive, and we believe that in this case protection in the shape of a 15 per cent. export duty is justifiable and ought to be effective. It is clearly just also that the same measure of protection should be extended to the tanners of skins whose business, as I

have already stated, was injured by the necessities of the war. Though Indian tanneries have enormously increased in number during the past three years, they can only deal with a comparatively small proportion of the raw hides and skins which India produces, and it is to the advantage of India and the security of the Empire generally that this large surplus should, so far as possible, be tanned within the Empire, and with this end in view the Bill proposes a 10 per cent rebate in respect of hides and skins exported to any place within the Empire. I should add that it is proposed to limit by notification the benefit of this rebate to hides and skins actually tanned within the Empire and Indian hides and skins re-exported from an Empire port for the purpose of being tanned abroad will not be entitled to any rebate.

Indigenous methods.—India possesses a large selection of excellent tanning materials such as acacia pods and bark, Indian sumach, the tanner's casia, Mangrove, and Myrobolam. By these and such like materials and by various methods and contrivances, hides and skins are extensively cured and tanned and the leather worked up in response to an immense though purely local demand.

INDIAN INVENTIONS AND DESIGNS

A handbook to the Patent Office in India which is published by the Government Press Calcutta, gives the various Acts, rules, and instructions bearing on the subject together with hints for the preparation of specifications and drawings, hints for searchers, and other valuable information that has not hitherto been readily accessible to the general public in so convenient a form. In the preface the Controller of Patents and Designs explains the scope of the Patent laws in India and indicates wherein they differ from English law and procedure.

The foundation of patent legislation throughout the world lies in the English Statute of Monopolies which was enacted in 1623 the 21st year of King James the First. In part this Act has been repealed, but the existing portion of the more important section is as follows—

Provided also that any declaration before mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of fourteen years or under, hereafter to be made of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm to the true and first inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making of such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law nor mischievous to the State by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient the said fourteen years to be accomplished from the date of the first letters patent or grants of such privilege hereafter to be made, but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if this Act had never been made, and of none other."

The existing Indian Patent Law is contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911, supplemented by the Indian Patents

and Designs (Temporary Rules) Act, 1916 and by the Rules made under those Acts. The Patent Office does not deal with trade marks or with copyright generally in books, pictures, music and other matters which fall under the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914. There is, in fact no provision of law in British India for the registration of Trade Marks which are protected under the Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889) which forms Chapter XVIII of the Indian Penal Code.

On the whole, Indian law and procedure closely follow that in the United Kingdom for the protection of inventions and the registration of designs as they always have done in matters of major interest. One main difference exists, however as owing to the absence of provision of law for the registration of trade marks, India cannot become a party to the International Convention under which certain rights of priority are obtainable in other countries.

The first Indian Act for granting exclusive privileges to inventors was passed in 1866, after an agitation that had been carried on fully for some twenty years. Difficulties arising from an uncertainty as to the effect of the Royal Prerogative prevented earlier action, and, owing to some informalities the Act itself was repealed in the following year. In 1869 it was re-enacted with modifications, and in 1872 the Patents and Designs Protection Act was passed. The protection of Inventions Act of 1883, dealing with exhibitions, followed, and then the Inventions and Designs Act of 1888. All these are now replaced by the present Act of 1911.

The existing Acts extend to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Santhal Parganas. This of course includes Burma, but it does not embrace the Native

States Of the latter three was (1) Hyderabad (Deccan), (2) Mysore, (3) Orissa have ordinances of their own for which particulars must be obtained from the Government of the States in question as they are not administered by the Indian Patent Office in Calcutta. The object of the Act of 1911 was to provide a simpler more direct and more effective procedure in regard both to the grant of patent rights and to their subsequent existence and operation. The changes made in the law need not here be referred to in detail. They gave further protection both to the inventor by providing that his application should be kept secret until acceptance and to the public by increasing the facilities for opposition at an effective period. At the same time a Controller of Patents and Designs was established with power to dispose of many matters previously referred to the Governor General in Council and provision was made for the grant of a sealed patent instead of for the mere recognition of an exclusive privilege. The provisions of the Act follow with the necessary modifications those of the British Inventions and Designs Act of 1907.

Important amendments have been made in the Indian Patents and Designs Act since 1911, the most important being the priority given to Indian Inventors over others to apply for British patents within 12 months from the date of the Indian application. Similarly an applicant for a British patent has priority over other applicants in India for 12 months from the date of his British application.

Part I (Patents) of the Act of 1911 has been further amended by Act VII of 1930 and includes the following.

If an Application comprises more than one invention the additional inventions may be made the subject matter of additional applications bearing the same date as the original application.

The term of the Patent will be 10 years instead of 14 years.

Patent of Addition will be granted on the original patent without the payment of additional renewal fees but the additional patent will expire with the date of the original patent.

Fresh provisions are made for the use of an invention by Government.

Government will grant licences to the public on application if the inventor refuses to do so on reasonable terms.

Several other facilities are given under the Indian Amended Act of 1930 on the lines of the present British Patent Act.

Printed Specification of applications for patents, which have been accepted (8 annas per copy), may be seen free of charge, together with other publications of the Patent Office at the following places —

AMERDABAD	E. C. Technical Institute
ALLAHABAD	Public Library
BANGALORE	Indian Institute of Science
BARODA	Department of Commerce and Industry
BOMBAY	Record Office

BOMBAY	Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Matunga
"	The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association, No 1A Sussex Road, Park
CALCUTTA	Patent Office, No 1 Council House Street
"	Bengal Engineering College, Shalpur
CHANDIGARH	Office of the Director of Industries, United Provinces
DINSHURAH	Office of the Commissioner, Furkan Division
DITTAGONG	Office of the Commissioner, Chittagong Division
DURGAM	Office of the District Board, Dacca
DURGAM	Office of the Deputy Commissioner
HYDERABAD	Industries and Commerce Department of His Highness the Nizam's Government
KARACHI	Office of the City Deputy Collector
LAHORE	Punjab Public Library
LONDON	The Patent Office, 25 Southampton Buildings, W.C.
MADRAS	Record Office, Egmore
"	College of Engineering
MYSOORE	Office of the Secretary to Government General and Revenue Department
NAAGPUR	Victoria Technical Institute
POONA	College of Engineering
RANCHI	Office of the Director of Industries, Bihar & Orissa
RANGOON	Office of the Revenue Secretary, Government of Burma
ROOSTER	Thomson College
SHOLAPUR	Office of the Collector

PUBLICATIONS on sale at the Patent Office —		Price
		Rs. 1
Patent Office Handbook (Acts, Rules and Instructions)		1 0
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911		0 10
The Indian Patents and Designs Act, II of 1911 (Crown and Hindi)	each	0 2
The Indian Patents and Designs Rules, 1912		0 2
Weekly Notifications (Extract from the Gazette of India)		0 1
Annual Subscription with postage		1 11
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index 1900—1909 and Chronological Lists, 1900—1901)		2 4
Inventions (Consolidated Subject Matter Index 1900—1911 and Chronological Lists, 1905—1911)		0 0
Patent Office Journal (Issued quarterly)		0 8
Patent Office Journals 1914, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1920		1 0
Printed Specifications of Inventions since 1912		0 0

ABSORPTION OF GOLD (both coin and bullion) IN INDIA

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	AVERAGE OF 5 YEARS ENDING								1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1935-36										
1 Production (b)	2 01	2 05	2 40	3 36	3 89	2 72	2 52	2 54	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 18	2 07
2 Imports	5 48	13 00	16 85	92 79	(a) 9 83	(a) 80 36	29 25	74 29	19 40	18 16	18 16	18 16	18 16	18 16	18 16	18 16	21 23	1 13
3 Exports	3 23	6 82	7 50	4 64	(a) 3 01	(a) 8 28	6	36	10	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	1
4 Net imports (i.e., 2-3)	2 25	6 18	9 35	28 15	(a) 6 82	(a) 72 08	23 19	70 37	19 40	18 10	18 10	18 10	18 10	18 10	18 10	18 10	21 20	14 22
5 Net addition to stock (i.e., 1-4)	4 26	9 13	12 75	31 51	10 26	25 10	21 74	76 47	21 58	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	23 33	16 79
6 Balance added in mint and for standard																		
7 Increase (+) or decrease (-) in stock held in mints, etc., as compared with the preceding year	66	12 38	6 51	19 11	16 93	27 92	23 23	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 32	22 22	32 27
8 Net absorption (i.e., 7-5)	-4 61	+2 67	-3 25	-4 47	-1 02	+9 0	-2 00											
9 Progress, i.e., total of additions to stock	3 65	6 46	16 00	27 04	11 28	24 11	33 74	76 47	21 58	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	20 28	23 33	16 79
10 Net progressive absorption	61 36	101 19	1 38	277 15	372 61	4 66 88	5 19 67	5 00 14	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	6 54 80	7 14 70
	61 19	89 31	1 58 31	5 58 04	4 88 92	4 97 96	5 73 28	6 10 91	6 82 49	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 45 38	6 82 44

Note.—The annual average figures are inserted only for comparative purposes. The progressive total of additions to stock (item 9) and net progressive absorption (item 10) are calculated on the basis of the actual figures and are not based on these averages. Item 9 is the sum of the yearly figures in item 5 and item 10 of the preceding year.

(a) Excludes gold imported and exported on behalf of the Bank of England.

(b) Figures are for calendar year ending 31st December.

The Indian Tariff Board, 1930.

Four Reports of the Indian Tariff Board have been published since its work was last reviewed in the Indian Year Book. These are—

- (1) On the salt industry
- (2) On the gold thread industry
- (3) On additional production for galvanised sheets and
- (4) On certain railway materials made of steel

Salt—This subject was referred to the Board as the result of a decision in the Legislative Assembly in the budget session of 1928. The Board was requested to consider whether it was desirable in the national interest that steps should be taken to encourage the production of salt in India suitable for consumption in those markets which are at present largely supplied from abroad. Its conclusions may be summarised under the following heads:

The Market for salt—The market for imported salt in India proper to which the Board confined itself reserving Burma for a later report is approximately 500,000 tons and is confined to areas normally served from Calcutta and Chittauing. In this market the primary considerations by which the quality of any particular class of salt is judged are whiteness, freedom of grain and absence of moisture. On these it is imported salt falls into two main classes (a) Brine salt such as Liverpool and Hamburg salt and (b) Solar salt such as Port Said, Aden and other Red Sea salts. The tendency in the last few years has been for the cheaper solar salts to replace brine salts. As the result of this tendency the proportion of the market held by Liverpool salt has declined from 7 to 15 per cent. The price of salt in Calcutta fluctuates violently mainly owing to the operations of Combustion and dealers. The latest of such combines was the Salt Importers Association of Bengal which was formed in 1927 and artificially maintained prices at a high level during 1927 and 1928.

Production in India—The annual production of salt in India is about 1,400,000 tons of which however a very large proportion is dirty and unsuitable for crushing. Except in the salt mines of the Punjab and the North West Frontier Province where rock salt is mined or quarried the methods of manufacture are in essence the same throughout India namely solar evaporation. The Board after careful examination of these methods found that salt of a quality suitable for consumption in the Bengal market could be manufactured by solar evaporation in any part of India where a brine supply is available either from the sea or from sub-soil sources, the cost of manufacture necessarily varying according to local conditions. They held that Karachi and Port Okha in the Baroda State enjoy certain natural advantages which *prima facie* indicate them as the most suitable centres for the manufacture by solar evaporation of fine white salt not inferior to Aden salt and that from the Khewra salt mines in the Punjab salt could be obtained which

when crushed compares favourably with Liverpool salt. But although salt of the required quality can be produced in India the present production is only about 15,000 tons. The Board was however satisfied that the output of existing works at Okha and Karachi could be increased to 150,000 tons of salt and that the output of rail borne salt—that is salt from the Khewra mines and from Satulhar and Jachhadra in Rajasthan could be increased by 1,000,000 tons which if crushed would be suitable for the Bengal market. On the assumption that Calcutta continued to import 180,000 tons of salt from Aden this would mean that practically the whole demand of the Bengal market (400,000 tons) could be supplied in India and Aden.

Cost of sea borne and Rail borne sale—The Board's investigations have led to the conclusion that the price at which the consumer may normally expect to obtain sea borne salt is 13 annas 11 pies per maund or approximately Rs. 86 per 100 maunds for Calcutta. At existing rates Khewra salt could be landed at Calcutta at 13 annas 10 pies per maund and Satulhar salt at 13 annas 1 pie per maund. If allowance be made for the fact that Khewra salt approximates in quality to Liverpool salt and that the latter fetches about Rs. 7.80 per 100 maunds more than solar salt it appears that rail borne salt can be landed in Calcutta at a price not more than that at which the consumer on an average may expect to obtain sea borne salt.

Case for assisting the salt industry and possible methods—Before considering the extent to which national interests would be served by assisting the manufacture in India of salt suitable for the Bengal Market the Board examined the position of Aden in relation to India's salt supply. Their conclusion under this head was that there was no ground for discrimination between Aden and Karachi or Okha. As regards sea borne salt that is salt from these three sources of supply they held that if the whole Bengal market were supplied from them the total labour force required would not amount to more than 4,000 and the additional employment afforded to Indian labour would not be large. If profit were taken at the rate of 10 per cent per annum the additional profit retained in the country would not exceed Rs. 12 lakhs. Since salt is normally transported by sea from Aden, Okha and Karachi the extent of adequate supplies at these sources would not necessarily guarantee Bengal against a shortage of white salt in war time. Their conclusion therefore was that whilst the increased supply of sea borne salt from these sources was to some extent in the national interest the advantage was not so great as to justify any drastic action. The case in regard to rail borne salt was very different. The development of the supply of such salt to the Bengal market offered the advantages that it would be a guarantee against war time shortage that it would provide additional traffic for the railways and that it would bring about a reduction in the price of salt as the

result of increased production especially at Khewra. The Board's conclusion therefore was that in the national interest the Bengal market should be supplied as far as possible by rail borne salt but that so far as this source of supply is insufficient, Indian sea borne salt should be encouraged provided that no heavy burden were thereby imposed on the country or the consumer. They recommended that Government should undertake a thorough survey of these sources of supply with a view to their development and that the question of railway rates should be fully investigated with a view to reduce the rates for salt to the lowest possible figure. They held however that no development of Indian sources of supply was possible until prices in the Calcutta market were stabilised but that no stabilisation of prices was possible as long as the import of salt remained in private hands. They therefore held that the first step was for Government to introduce control of the import of salt into Bengal.

Advantages of control.—The control of imported salt would secure for the Indian manufacturer a fair price sufficient to give a reasonable return on investment where manufacture is carried out in reasonable lines. This price would be no higher than that at which salt may be expected to be obtained over a series of years and would be considerably below that which the consumer has had to pay on an average during the past five years. No burden will thereby be thrown on the consumer who will on the contrary be protected from exploitation by combinations of foreign manufacturers. By stabilising prices and standardising quality, speculation would be minimised and prices further reduced. Further by securing an additional source of supply Government might be in a position to make good shortages in Upper India which from time to time in the past have given rise to speculation and high prices in the markets normally served by the Rajputana works.

Agency of control.—The Board held that the Government would not be the best agency for the sale and distribution of imported salt. Distribution is also to its functions and such intricate operations as the adjustment of prices in different localities and the administration of an equalisation fund to stabilise prices could not be safely entrusted to it over and over again. Were it to assume control of distribution it would be difficult to continue its present cost price policy, since to ensure stability of price profits should be built up by the sale of salt in certain areas at a cost price. For these and other reasons the Board suggested that Government should retain its present policy of selling its output to a marketing Board which would be free to adjust its prices so as to secure a more equitable distribution. This Board would be constituted as a public utility company, the rate of profit being limited. There would be permanent Government representation on the Board of Directors with a Government right of veto either general or in prescribed circumstances. The Board will be in charge of the import and sale of salt in the Calcutta market and of the sale of salt in Northern India. It would replace the present system of cost price ex works by a system of quotations for sale

at destination, the method adopted in all modern systems of distribution. It would follow from this that the Board would appoint its own agents in the main distributing centres. Although no attempt would be made to control retail sale in course of time it should be possible to stabilise prices at the principal distributing centres throughout the country. In purchasing its requirements, the Board would give preference to Indian salt of the required quality. Salt from Aden, Karachi and Okha would be purchased at the fair selling price fixed by the Tariff Board either a 1 f or 1 o b as the Marketing Board might decide. Salt from the Northern Indian sources would be purchased at Government's cost price. Foreign salt would be purchased only to the extent to which the demand could not be supplied at the prices already indicated from Indian sources. Surplus profits would be funded and utilised either for stabilising or reducing the price of salt. Safeguards would have to be provided against profiteering or inefficiency on the part of the Marketing Board. The Tariff Board did not suggest that such a Board should be constituted immediately or if constituted, its machinery could be organised save after a lapse of considerable time. The full advantage of such control might not be realised for some years. In the meantime the Board was impressed by the fact that before such a Board could be constituted the salt works at Karachi, Okha and perhaps even the smaller works at Aden might be crushed out of existence by the pressure of foreign competition. They proposed therefore that as an interim measure, in view of the interests of the consumer as of the Indian industry that Government should assume control immediately of the import of salt into Bengal. Indian sea borne salt should be purchased at a fair selling price and efforts should be made to popularise the use of rail borne crushed salt from Khewra and Sambhar by the reduction of railway freights and if possible by the quotation of a lower rate for crushed than for uncrushed salt. The bulk of the requirements of the market should be purchased by Government from foreign manufacturers. Salt should be graded into two grades. A standard price for each of these should be fixed which in the first instance might be the average price of the last five years. After the expiry of the period of administration any surplus profits should be funded for the purpose of stabilising the price of salt. This price should not be changed save at lengthy intervals. The present system of supply on indent should remain unchanged and no attempt should be made so long as control remains with Government to interfere with the existing system of distribution through wholesale and retail traders.

Decision of the Government of India.—In the Press Communiqué issued on the 13th of September 1930 Government stated that in order to follow up the suggestion in the Report that a full investigation should be made of the possibilities of the Northern India sources of salt supply they had decided to entrust the enquiry into the possibility of expanding existing sources of supply in India and the effect of such an expansion on price to Sir Chundil Mehta, K.C.S.I. and Mr. O. H. Pitt, the General Manager of the Northern India Salt Range.

Division. They further stated that before coming to a definite conclusion on the Tariff Board's proposals for the control of imported salt and for the marketing of salt in the North of India, they were anxious to have the benefit of public opinion on these and other aspects of the Report.

At the commencement of the session of the Legislative Assembly in January, 1931 the Report was referred to a Committee of 10 of its members. Shortly afterwards, the report of Sir ChunDul Maitra's Committee was received. That Committee held that the amount of salt that Northern India (Karachi, Khewra, Morvi, Okha and Pachtadra) can produce within the next five years to displace foreign salt is 270 000 tons or 30 000 tons more than are actually required. This may subsequently increase to 550 000 tons and ultimately 635 000 tons. Prices should be established as the Tariff Board suggested for a period of at least 10 years. India even continental India taken by itself can be made independent of foreign salt but foreign salt cannot be eliminated for 3 or 4 years or possibly even more. After consideration of the Tariff Board's report and that of the Salt Survey Committee the Committee of the Assembly in a report which was presented to the Assembly on March 15th recommended the immediate imposition of an additional duty of 4½ annas per maund on all salt Indian or foreign imported by sea into British India.

They also recommended that the Government should have power to increase this duty from time to time by amounts up to a total of 1 anna per maund if at any time the price of foreign imported salt should fall below its present level the object being to adjust the price of such salt plus duty as nearly as possible to the level of the fair selling price as defined by the Tariff Board. A rebate equal to the additional duty should be granted on imported Indian salt on the producers undertaking to deliver a stipulated quantity of salt to the Government (or such smaller quantity as might be requisitioned) at any time at the fair selling price fixed by the Tariff Board. The Committee urged that in the meantime steps should be taken to explore and encourage the development of Indian sources of supply and to study the Tariff Board's final scheme for the establishment of a Marketing Board. The Committee suggested that the proceeds of the additional duty should not go to benefit the general Central revenues but should be earmarked for the development of certain sources of supply in India and any further measures that might be found necessary in the light of experience to secure the stabilisation of prices such as the establishment of a Marketing Board and the provision of working capital and reserves for such a Board. Subject to this, consideration should be given to the distribution of any balance between those Provinces that consume imported salt and would thereby be bearing the burden imposed by the extra duty.

The Gold Thread Industry.—Under the Finance Act of 1930 a duty of four annas an ounce was imposed on silver bullion and in order to maintain the advantage enjoyed by the Indian manufacturers using silver as a raw material under the revenue duty of 30 per cent

on silver manufactures the latter duty was raised to 48 per cent. The increase in the duty on silver manufactures was, however, only imposed until March 31st 1931 subject to an undertaking that the question of extending protection to silver manufactures would be referred to the Tariff Board. In accordance with this undertaking the Tariff Board was directed to enquire into the question of extending protection to the manufacture in India of silver plate, silver thread and wire (including so-called gold thread and wire made mainly of silver, silver loaf and other silver manufactures).

The Board in their report dated August 8th 1930 made no recommendation in regard to silver plate and silver manufactures of all sorts not otherwise specified as they had received no application for protection from manufacturers in India. For real gold thread, lametta, manufactures from silver wire such as spirals, bangles, etc. and all colourable imitations the Board recommended an *ad valorem* duty of 50 per cent. They held that this duty should be levied for ten years on the ground that it would take at least this period before the Indian industry could reach the European standard of quality. They urged that special efforts should be made by the Provincial Industries Departments to enable the Indian industry to capture the South Indian market and added that the institution of a training centre or technical institute at the chief centres of manufacture would lead to satisfactory results.

Decision of the Government of India.—The recommendations of the Tariff Board as to the rate and period of the duty were accepted by the Government of India and embodied in a Bill which was passed by the Central Legislature in March 1931.

Galvanised sheets.—The question of increasing the duty leviable on galvanised iron and steel sheets, not fabricated was referred by the Government of India to the Tariff Board in September 1930 on an application from the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Ltd. The Board was asked to report whether galvanised sheets of British manufacture were being imported into India at such a price as was likely to render the protection afforded by the existing duty of Rs. 30 per ton ineffective. If so it was asked to consider in what form and for what period the additional protection required should be given. Its reply was that the fair selling price of galvanised sheets manufactured in India was Rs. 236 per ton whereas the landed duty free price of imported British sheet was Rs. 169 per ton so that protection was required for the Indian article to the extent of Rs. 67 per ton the difference between these two prices. It therefore recommended that the additional protection required should be given in the form of an additional duty of Rs. 37 per ton & c. a duty of Rs. 67 per ton in all this duty to remain in force until March 31st, 1934. It was also asked to consider, if an increase in the duty on galvanised sheets was recommended what increase would be necessary in the duty on other articles made from galvanised sheet. Its recommendation was that the duty on imported iron or steel pipes and tubes and fittings therefor, if riveted or otherwise built up of

plates or sheets of galvanised iron and also on imported iron or steel sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) under one eighth inch thick fabricate galvanised should be increased from Rs. 54 per ton or 17 per cent *ad valorem* to Rs. 73 per ton or 17 per cent *ad valorem* whichever is higher. The Board further recommended that the higher duty they proposed should remain in force for the remainder of the period covered by the Steel Industry (Protection) Act of 1927 i.e. up to the 31st March 1934.

Decision of the Government of India— In a Resolution dated 19th March 1930 the Government of India accepted the recommendations of the Tariff Board in respect to the amount of the duty. They pointed out that the arguments for proceeding by way of bounty were stronger than the Tariff Board believed but that the existing financial condition precluded the adoption of that in this. Even after the increase in the duty the price of galvanised sheet would be lower by Rs. 14 per ton than the fair selling price as determined by the Board in 1923. As regards the period of the duty the Government of India held the view that the higher duty will be required until the 31st of March 1934, and add that it was not their intention to reduce the rate and circumstances changed so radically as to make its retention clearly unnecessary and undesirable. They added that in the notification issued the duty was being increased for the period ending on the 31st March 1931 but that a Resolution would be placed before the Legislative Assembly in the coming session recommending its continuation beyond that date. A resolution on these lines was moved by the Hon. Mr. D. N. Mahtani in the Assembly on the 28th of January 1931 but after a considerable discussion was amended to provide that the increased duty should be continued up to the 31st of March

1932 only and that before that date Government should make enquiries in order to ascertain whether a system of bounties might not be substituted wholly or in part for the increased duty. A Resolution in similar terms was adopted by the Council of State on the 26th February 1931.

Railway Materials made of Steel.—This question was referred by the Government of India to the Tariff Board in May 1930 on a representation from Messrs. Henry Williams (India) Limited stating that the manufacture in India of chrome steel points and crossings, bearing plates, fish bolts, rivets, bolts and nuts, dog spikes, stretcher bars and gibs and cutters was hampered by the fact that the import duties on the manufactured articles were lower than equal to or insufficiently above the protective duties level on the materials required for their manufacture and asking that the Tariff Board might be directed to inquire into the question whether higher duties should be imposed on all or any of the articles mentioned. The Tariff Board in a report dated the 17th of October 1930 recommended on grounds of tariff equality that the specific duty of Rs. 240 per cwt should be imposed on fish bolts and nuts, ordinary bolts and nuts and dog spikes and of Rs. 2 per cwt on rivets, gibs, cutters and keys. It also recommended that chrome steel switches and crossings should be brought under the protective tariff and that stretcher bars which form part of switches and crossings should be liable to the same duty as switches and crossings which are imported with the latter or super duty.

Decision of the Government of India— The recommendations of the Tariff Board were accepted by the Government of India and embodied in a Bill which was passed by the Central Legislature in March 1931.

Customs Tariff.

General import duties are levied for fiscal purposes and not for the protection of Indian industries. But the tariff has been modified with a view to admitting free or at favourable rates articles, the cheap import of which was considered necessary in the interests of the country. Thus certain raw materials, manures, agricultural implements and dairy appliances are admitted free. Machinery, printing materials etc. are assessed at 3½ per cent and iron and steel railway material and ships at 10 per cent. High duties are imposed on tobacco, liquors and matches.

Re Imports.—Articles of foreign production on which import duty has been once paid, if subsequently exported and on re-import exempted from duty on the following conditions—

The Collector of Customs must be satisfied—

- (1) of the identity of the articles,
- (2) that no drawback of duty was paid on their export,
- (3) that the ownership has not changed between the time of re-export and subsequent re-import
- (4) that they are private personal property re-imported for personal use, not merchandise for sale
- (5) that not more than three years have passed since they were re-exported.

Duty is, however, charged on the cost of repairs done to the articles while abroad which should be declared by the person re-importing the articles in a form which will be supplied to him at the time of re-importation.

To facilitate identification on re-importation an export certificate giving the necessary particulars should be obtained from the Customs Department at the time of shipment of the articles which should be tendered for examination.

This concession of free entry on re-importation is not extended for the benefit of Companies or Corporate Bodies.

Drawbacks.—When any goods capable of being easily identified which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and upon which duties of Customs have been paid on importation are re-exported by sea from such Customs port to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on board a ship proceeding to a foreign port, seven eighths of such duties shall, except as otherwise hereinafter provided be repaid as drawback.

Provided that, in every such case the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector at such Customs port and that the re-export be made within two years from the date of importation, as shown by the records of the Customs House or within such extended

term as the Chief Customs Authority or Chief Customs Officer on sufficient cause being shown in any case determines provided further that the Chief Customs Officer shall not extend the term to a period exceeding 3 years.

When any goods, having been charged with import duty at one Customs port and thence exported to another are re-exported by sea as aforesaid, drawback shall be allowed on such goods as if they had been so re-exported from the former port.

Provided that, in every such case the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Officer in Charge of the Customs House at the port of final exportation and that such final exportation be made within three years from the date on which they were first imported into British India.

No drawback shall be allowed unless the claim to receive such drawback be made and established at the time of re-export.

No such payment of drawback shall be made until the vessel carrying the goods has put out to sea, or unless payment be demanded within six months from the date of entry for ship duty.

Every person, or his duly authorised agent, claiming drawback on any goods duly exported, shall make and subscribe a declaration that such goods have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed and are not intended to be re-landed at any Customs port, and that such person was at the time of entry outwards and shipment, and continues to be, entitled to drawback thereon.

Merchandise Marks.—Imports into India especially from countries other than the United Kingdom, would do well to make themselves acquainted with the law and regulations relating to merchandise marks. In Appendix II will be found the principal provisions of the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889, and connected Acts and the notifications issued thereunder. The following summary of the regulations in force does not claim to be exhaustive. For those seeking more complete information a reference is suggested to the Merchandise Marks Manual which is published under the authority of the Government of India and obtainable of all agents for the sale of Indian Government publications.

Infringements or offences may be classified conveniently under four heads—

- 1 Counterfeit trade marks,
- 2 Trade descriptions that are false in respect of the country of origin,
- 3 Trade descriptions that are false in other respects, and
- 4 Lengths not properly stamped on piece-goods.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)

NOTE 1.—In the expression "*ad valorem*" used in these Schedules the reference is to "real value" as defined in Section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878 (VIII of 1878) unless an article has a tariff value assigned to it.

NOTE 2.—Tariff valued heads are based on the ordinary trade description of each article and cover all reduced grades and mixtures unless they are separately provided for

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	L.—Food Drink and Tobacco			
	FISH			
1	FISH SALTED, wet or dry	Indian maund of 82½ lbs avoirdupois weight		Such rate or rates of duty not exceeding one rupee as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, from time to time prescribe *
2	FISH, excluding salted fish (see Serial No 1)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
3	FISHBONES, including singally and soxille, and sharkins.		"	15 " "
	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES			
3A	CURRENTS	cwt		Rs 14
4	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES all sorts fresh, dried salted or preserved not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	<i>Tariff values —</i>			
	Almonds without shell	cwt	Rs	
	" kagazi Persian in the shell	"	68 0	15 " "
	" in the shell Persian	"	68 0	15 " "
	" "	"	16 0	15 " "
	Cashew or cajoo kernels not skinned		31 0	15 " "
	Cocoanuts, Straits, Dutch East Indies and Siam	thousand	105 0	15 " "
	" Maldives	"	20 0	15 " "
	" other	"	48 0	15 " "
	" kernel (khopra)	cwt	16 0	15 " "
	Dates, dry, in bags	"	10 0	15 " "
	" wet in bags, baskets and bundles	"	6 0	15 " "
	" " packed in other receptacles	"	11 12	15 " "
	Figs dried Persian	"	11 0	15 " "
	European	"	17 8	15 " "
	Garlic	"	9 8	15 " "
	Pistachio nuts	"	65 0	15 " "
	Raisins, Red, Persian Gulf	"	11 14	15 " "

* The rate on the 1st January, 1931 plus 5 per cent surcharge

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	I—Food, Drink and Tobacco—conts GRAIN, PULSE AND FLOUR.		Rs n p	
5	FLOUR except sago flour <i>Tariff value—</i> Cassava or Tapioca flour	Cwt	<i>Ad valorem</i> 8 4 0	15 per cent
6	GRAIN AND PULSE, all sorts, including broken grains and pulse, but excluding flour (see Serial Nos 5 and 7)			15 Free "
7	SAGO FLOUR			Free
8	LIQUORS ALE, Beer, Porter, Older and other fermented liquors	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles		In barrels or other contain- ers holding .7 cws or more 12 annas per 1 gal. In bot- tles less than 27 cws not less than 20 cws 2 annas a bottle. In bottles less than 13½ cws not less than 10 cws 1 anna a bottle. In bottles less than 6½ cws not less than 3 cws ½ anna a bottle. Otherwise Rs 1 per liquid gallon
9	DENATURED SPIRIT <i>Tariff value—</i> Spirit from Java denatured before clearance	Imperial gallons	<i>Ad valorem</i> 1 0 0	7½ per cent
10	DENATURED SPIRITS	Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles		Rs 48 or 20 per cent <i>Ad valorem</i> whichever is higher
11	LIQUORS, Cordials, Mixtures and other preparations containing spirit— (a) Entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested (b) If tested	Ditto Imperial gallon or 6 quart bottles of the strength of London proof		Rs 40 or 20 per cent <i>Ad valorem</i> whichever is higher. Rs 30 and the duty to be in- creased or reduced in proportion as the strength of the spirit exceeds or is less than London proof of 20 per cent <i>Ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher.
12	All other sorts of SPIRITS	Ditto		Ditto

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

[illegible]

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	I.—Food Drink and Tobacco—contd			
	SPICES		<i>Rs a p</i>	
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Mace	lb	1 8 0	10 per cent
	Nutmegs		0 0 0	10
	in shell		0 0 0	10
	Pepper	cwt	07 0 0	10
	black		72 0 0	10
	" long		04 0 0	10
	" white			
	SUGAR			
19	CONFECTIONERY		<i>Ad valorem</i>	80 per cent
20	SUGAR, excluding confectionery (see Serial No 19)			<i>Rs a.</i>
	(1) Sugar, crystallised or soft 25 Dutch Standard and above	cwt		7 ½
	(2) Sugar, crystallised or soft inferior to 1 Dutch Standard but not inferior to 8 Dutch Standard	"	<i>Ad valorem</i>	8 12 ½ per cent plus <i>Rs a</i>
	(3) Sugar, below 8 Dutch Standard, and sugar candy			2 12 ½ per cwt
	(4) Molasses		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Molasses—			
	(i) imported in bulk by tank steamer	cwt	2 11 0	25 " "
	(ii) otherwise imported		3 6 0	25 " "
	Sugar Candy		13 0 0	25 " plus <i>Rs a</i>
	TEA			<i>Ad valorem</i>
21	TEA		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Tea, black	lb	0 11 0	15 " "
	" Green		0 14 0	15 " "
	OTHER FOOD AND DRINK.			
22	COFFEE		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15
	<i>Tariff value—</i>			
	Coffee, other than roasted or ground	cwt	50 0 0	10 " "
23	FLOPS			Free <i>Rs a p</i>
24	4, 12, excluding Salt exempted under Serial No 25	Indian maund of 82½ lbs avoirdupois weight		1 8 6

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	L.—Food Drink and Tobacco—contd		Rs a p	
	OTHER FOOD AND DRINK—contd			
23	SALT Imported into British India and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, for use in any process of manufacture also salt imported into the port of Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware also salt imported into any port in the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council for use in curing fish in those provinces (for the general duty on salt, see Serial No. 24)	.		Free
26	ALL OTHER SORTS OF FOOD AND DRINK not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
27	TOBACCO			
28	TOBACCO			
28	CIGARETTES of value— (a) not exceeding Rs 10-8 per thousand (b) exceeding Rs 10-8 per thousand <i>Note</i> —For the purposes of this item, value means real value as defined in Section 30 of the Sea Customs Act 1878, provided that the amount to be deducted on account of duties payable on importation to determine the real value in accordance with the provisions of clause (a) of the said Section shall be Rs 7 per thousand	thousand		Rs a p 8 0 0 12 0 0
29	TOBACCO, unmanufactured	lb		1 0 0
30	All other sorts of TOBACCO, manufactured	"		3 0 0
	II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured			
	COAL COKE AND PATENT FUEL			
31	COAL COKE AND PATENT FUEL	ton		0 8 0
31	DYES AND COLOURS			Free
	GUMS, RESINS AND LAC			
32	GUMS, RESINS AND LAC all sorts, not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 3.)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
33	<i>Tariff values</i> — Gambier, block and cube " in flakes or circular pieces Gum Ammoniac " Arabic other than ground " Benjamin " Cassia " Bysa bol (course myrrh) " Dammar (or Copal) " Olibanum or frankincense " Persian (false) Myrrh Rosin	cwt	17 8 0 30 0 0 35 0 0 45 0 0 35 0 0 30 0 0 23 0 0 32 0 0 10 4 0 18 0 0 28 0 0 18 10 0	15 15 15 15 13 15 15 15 15 15 15 15

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff valuation	Duty
	II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—<i>contd</i>			
	HIDES AND SKINS, RAW			
34	HIDES AND SKINS, raw or salted			Free
	METALLIC ORES AND SCRAP IRON OR STEEL FOR RE-MANUFACTURE			
5	IRON OR STEEL, old <i>Tariff value—</i>		<i>Id id id id</i>	<i>1 per cent</i>
6	METALLIC ORES, all sorts, except ochres and other pigment ores	cw	1 1	Free
	OILS			
37	KEROSENE, also any mineral oil other than kerosene and motor spirit which has its flashing point below one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer by Abel's closed test	Imperial gallon		<i>4 1 0</i>
38	MOTOR SPIRIT			<i>0 1 0</i>
39	MINERAL OIL—			
	(1) which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is ordinarily used for the batching of jute or other fibre	ton		<i>1 1 0</i>
	(2) which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is such as is not ordinarily used for any other purpose than for lubrication	Imperial gallon		<i>0 1 0</i>
	(3) which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purposes		<i>Ad valorem</i>	<i>0 per cent</i>
	<i>Tariff value—</i>			
	Mineral oil which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purposes if imported in bulk	ton	<i>1 0 0 7 1</i>	<i>7 1</i>
40	All sorts of animal essential, mineral and vegetable non-essential oils not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos. 27, 28 and 30)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	<i>1 0</i>
	<i>Tariff Values—</i>			
	Castor oil from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East	lb	<i>1 5 0</i>	<i>1 0</i>
	Olive oil from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East		<i>1 1 0</i>	<i>1 5</i>
	Coconut oil	cwt	<i>2 3 0</i>	<i>1</i>
	Kajiputti oil from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East	lb	<i>1 1 0</i>	<i>1 1</i>
	Lined oil, raw or boiled	Imperial gallon	<i>3 0 0</i>	<i>1 5</i>
	Peppermint oil from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East	lb	<i>4 0 0</i>	<i>1 5</i>

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Serial No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—<i>contd.</i>		Rs a p.	
	SEEDS			
41	Oil seeds imported into British India by sea from the territories of any Prince or Chief in India			Free
42	SEEDS, all sorts not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
	TALLOW, STEARINE AND WAX			
43	TALLOW			Free
44	All sorts of stearine, wax, grease and animal fat not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	<i>Tariff values —</i>			
	Mineral grease	lb	0 2 0 15	per cent
	Vegetable wax	cwt	46 0 0 15	" "
	TEXTILE MATERIALS			
45	COTTON raw			Free
46	TEXTILE MATERIALS the following		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	Silk waste and raw silk including cocoons raw flax, hemp jute and all other unmanufactured textile materials not otherwise specified			
	<i>Tariff values —</i>			
	Coir fibre	cwt	5 8 0 15	
	Hemp, raw	"	15 0 0 15	"
	Silk raw—	lb	12 0 0 15	"
	(a) Bokhara	"	4 4 0 15	"
	(b) Chinese—	"	2 14 0 15	"
	Mathow	"	2 12 0 15	"
	Panjam	"	6 0 0 15	"
	White Shanghai, Thonkoon or Dupplion	"	0 8 0 15	"
	other kinds	"	0 2 0 15	"
	Yellow Shanghai	"	5 6 0 15	"
	other kinds	"	7 8 0 15	"
	(c) Persian	"	5 8 0 15	"
	(d) Siam	"		
47	WOOL, raw and wool tops			Free
	WOOD AND TIMBER			
48	KERWOOD		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent
49	WOOD AND TIMBER all sorts not otherwise specified including all sorts of ornamental wood			15 " "
	MISCELLANEOUS			
50	CANES AND BATTANS			15 "
	<i>Tariff values.—</i>			
	Canes—			
	Malacca	100 pieces	24 10 0 15	"
	Chinty	"	8 8 0 15	"
	Tries	"	7 0 0 15	"
	Root Moonah	"	12 0 0 15	"
	Mannu	"	14 0 0 15	"
	Polo all kinds—			
	Not exceeding 10 feet in length	"	45 0 0 15	"
	Exceeding 10 feet in length	"	80 0 0 15	"
	Tohito	cwt	25 0 0 15	"

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	II—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—contd.			
	MISCELLANEOUS—contd.		Rs a p	
	BATTANS—			
	Chair	cwt	20 0 0	15 per cent.
	Basket		11 8 0	15 " "
	Outer		67 0 0	15 " "
	Inner		26 0 0	15 " "
1	COWRIES AND SHELLS		Ad valorem	15 "
	Tariff values—			
	Cowries bazar, common	cwt	4 12 0	15 "
	" yellow superior quality		5 4 0	15 "
	" Maldivi	"	21 0 0	15 "
	" Sankhli		104 8 0	15 "
	Mother of pearl, nacre	"	27 8 0	15 "
	Nakhla	"	117 0 0	15 "
	Tortoise-shell	lb	8 0 0	15 "
	" nakh	"	2 0 0	15 "
52	IVORY unmanufactured		Ad valorem	15 "
	Tariff values—			
	Elephant's grinders	cwt	300 0 0	15 "
	Elephant's tusks (other than hollows centres and points), each exceeding 20 lb in weight and hollows centres and points each weighing 10 lb and over	"	65 0 0	15 "
	Elephant's tusks (other than hollows centres and points) not less than 10 lb and not exceeding 20 lb each and hollows centres and points each weighing less than 10 lb	"	2 0 0	15 "
	Elephant's tusks, each less than 10 lb (other than hollows centres and points)	"	263 0 0	15 "
	Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 4 lbs	"	276 0 0	15 "
	Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 3 lbs and under 4 lbs	"	220 0 0	15 "
	Sea-cow or moye teeth, each less than 3 lbs	"	130 0 0	15 "
53	MANURES all sorts including animal bones and the following chemical manures—Basic slag nitrate of ammonia nitrate of soda muriate of potash, sulphate of ammonia sulphate of potash, kainit salts carbo lime, urea nitrate of lime calcium cyanamide ammonium phosphates mineral phosphates and mineral super phosphates *			Free
54	PAGODUS STONES , unset and imported uncut, and Pearls unset.			
55	PAGODUS STONES unset and imported cut (see Serial No 54)		Ad valorem	15 per cent
56	PULP OF WOOD rags and other paper making materials.			Free
57	RUBBER STUMPS rubber seeds and raw rubber			
58	All other raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured not otherwise specified *		Ad valorem	15 per cent

* Under Government of India, Commerce Department Notification No 4317, dated the 2nd July 1921, unmanufactured mica is exempt from payment of import duty

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured.			
	APPAREL			
50	APPAREL, including drapery boots and shoes, and military and other uniforms and accoutrements but excluding uniforms and accoutrements exempted from duty under Serial No 60 and articles made of gold or silver thread and articles made of silk or silk mixtures		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	UNIFORMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS appertaining thereto imported by a public servant for his personal use			Free.
	ARMS AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES			
61	Subject to the exemptions specified in Serial No 64—			
	(1) Firearms including gas and air guns, gas and air rifles and gas and air pistols, not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos 65 and 185)	each.	Rs. 15	} Specific duty plus 10 per cent or 30 per cent whichever is higher
	(2) Barrels for the same, whether single or double.	"	Rs. 15	
	(3) Main springs and magazine springs for firearms, including gas guns gas rifles and gas pistols.	"	Rs. 5	
	(4) Gun stocks and breech blocks	"	Rs. 3	
	(5) Revolver-cylinders for each cartridge they will carry	"	Rs. 2	
	(6) Actions (including skeleton and waster) breech bolts and their heads cocking pieces, and locks for muzzle loading arms	"	Rs. 1	
	(7) Machines for making loading, or closing cartridges for rifled arms.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent
	(8) Machines for capping cartridges for rifled arms		"	30 "
62	GUNPOWDER for cannons, rifles guns, pistols and sporting purposes.		"	30 " "
63	SUBJECT TO THE EXEMPTIONS SPECIFIED in Serial No 64 all articles other than those specified in Serial Nos 61, 62 and 165 which are arms or parts of arms within the meaning of the Indian Arms Act, 1878 (excluding springs used for air-guns which are dutiable as hardware under Serial No. 84) all tools used for cleaning or putting together the same, all machines for making loading closing or capping cartridges for arms other than rifled arms and all other sorts of ammunition and military stores and any articles which the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> , declare to be ammunition or military stores for the purposes of this Act.		"	30 " "

Schedule II — (Import Tariff) — continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty.
	<p>III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i></p> <p>ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—<i>contd</i></p>			
64	<p>The following ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES —</p> <p>(a) Arms forming part of the regular equipment of a commissioned or gazetted officer in His Majesty's Service entitled to wear diplomatic, military, naval, Royal Air Force or police uniform</p> <p>(b) A revolver and an automatic pistol and ammunition for such revolver and pistol up to a maximum of 100 rounds per revolver or pistol (i) when accompanying a commissioned officer of His Majesty's regular forces or of the Indian Auxiliary Force or the Indian Territorial Force or a Gazetted Police Officer or (ii) certified by the commandant of the corps to which such Officer belongs or in the case of an Officer not attached to any Corps, by the Officer Commanding the Station or District in which such Officer is serving or in the case of a Police Officer, by an Inspector-General or Commissioner of Police, to be imported by the Officer for the purpose of his equipment,</p> <p>(c) Swords for presentation as Army or Volunteer Prizes,</p> <p>(d) Arms ammunition, and Military Stores imported with the sanction of the Government of India for the use of any portion of the Military Forces of a State in India being a unit notified in pursuance of the first Schedule to the Indian Extradition Act, 1903.</p> <p>(e) Morris tubes and patent ammunition imported by Officers Commanding British and Indian Regiments or Volunteer Corps for the instruction of their men</p>			Free
65	<p>ORNAMENTAL ARMS of an obsolete pattern possessing only an antiquarian value, Masonic and theatrical and fancy dress swords, provided they are virtually useless for offensive or defensive purposes, and <i>do</i>s intended exclusively for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes.</p>		Ad valorem	15 per cent
66	<p>EXPLOSIVES, namely, blasting gunpowder, blasting gelatine, blasting dynamite, blasting robitrite, blasting tonite, and all other sorts, including detonators and blasting fuse</p>			16

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles.	Unit	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—solid		R. a p	
	CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES			
67	ANTI PLAGUE SERUM			Free
68	BLEACHING PASTE and bleaching powder			"
69	COPPERAS, green		<i>Ad valorem</i>	2½ per cent
70	<i>Tariff value.</i> — Copperas green, if imported in bulk OPIMUM and its alkaloids and their derivatives	cwt sec of 80 tolns.	4 0 0	2½ Rs. 24 of 1, per cent ad valorem, which ever is higher free
71	CINCHONA BARK and the alkaloids extracted therefrom including Quinine and alkaloids derived from other sources which are chemically identical with alkaloids extracted from cinchona bark			free
72	MAGNESIUM CHLORIDE			"
73	STYRENE			"
74	CHEMICALS, Drugs and Medicines, all sorts, not otherwise specified *		<i>Ad valorem</i>	1½ per cent
	<i>Tariff values —</i>			
	Alkali, Indian (sooji khar)	cwt	3 8 0	1½ "
	Alum (lump)		6 0 0	1½ "
	Ammonia gas anhydrous	lb	0 9 0	1½ "
	Ammonium carbonate or bicarbonate	cwt	24 0 0	15 "
	Ammonium chloride—			
	Muritate of Ammonia crystalline	"	15 0 0	1½ "
	Salammoniac sublimed	"	23 8 0	1½ "
	Other sorts, including compressed	"	17 8 0	15 "
	Arsenic (China manali)	"	7½ 0 0	15 "
	Calcium carbide	"	15 0 0	15 "
	chloride	"	3 14 0	15 "
	Carbonic acid gas	lb	0 8 0	15 "
	Chlorine	"	0 4 8	15 "
	Copper sulphate	cwt	15 8 0	15 "
	Epsom salts	"	8 4 0	15 "
	Menthol (peppermint) crystals	oz	0 13 6	15 "
	Potassium bichromate	cwt	23 8 0	15 "
	Soda ash, including calcined natural soda and manufactured sesqui carbonates	"	6 0 0	15 "
	Soda, Caustic flake	"	13 12 0	15 "
	" powdered	"	14 0 0	15 "
	" solid	"	11 0 0	15 "
	" crystals	"	6 8 0	15 "
	Sodium, bicarbonate	"	6 12 0	15 "
	bichromate	"	24 12 0	15 "
	sulfate (in liquid form)	"	8 0 0	15 "
	Sulphide	"	7 8 0	15 "
	Trons or natural soda uncalcined	"	8 8 0	15 "
	Amfetide (hing)	"	108 0 0	15 "
	" coarse (hingra)	"	81 12 0	15 "

* Under Government of India, Finance Department, (Central Revenue) Notifications Nos and 28, dated the 6th February 1930, respectively, calcium acetate and radium salts are exempt on payment of import duty

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Serial No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation.	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		Rs. a p.	
	CHEMICALS DRUGS AND MEDICINES—contd			
	<i>Tariff rates—contd</i>			
	Danalochan (bamboo camphor)	lbs	1 2 0	15 per cent.
	Calumba root	cwt	1 0 0	15
	Camphor, refined other than powder	lb	1 13 0	15
	" powder other than synthetic	"	1 8 0	15
	" synthetic, tablets and slabs	"	1 12 0	15
	" powder	"	1 2 0	15
	Camela lignea	cwt	14 0 0	15
	China root (Chobchini) rough	"	17 0 0	15
	" " " scraped	"	23 0 0	15
	Cubeba	"	60 0 0	15
	Galangal, China	"	12 0 0	15
	Salep	"	240 0 0	15
	Storax, liquid (rose mellos or salaras)	"	31 0 0	15
	CONVEYANCES			
75	COAL TIPS tipping wagons and the like conveyances designed for use on light rail track if adapted to be worked by manual or animal labour and if made mainly of iron or steel and component parts thereof made of iron or steel—			
	(a) if of British manufacture	ton		Rs 21 or 17 per cent ad valorem, whichever is higher
	(b) if not of British manufacture	"		Rs 21 or 17 per cent, ad valorem whichever is higher, plus Rs. 15 per ton.
76	CONVEYANCES not specified in Serial No 75, namely, tractors motor-omnibuses, motor lorries, motor vans, passenger lifts, carriages, carts jinrikshas, bath chairs perambulators trucks wheelbarrows, bicycles tricycles and all other sorts of conveyances not otherwise specified and component parts and accessories thereof, except such parts and accessories of the motor vehicles above mentioned as are also adapted for use as parts or accessories of motor cars motor cycles or motor scooters (see Serial No 77)		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
77	MOTOR CARS, MOTOR CYCLES, and MOTOR SCOOTERS, and articles (other than rubber tyres and tubes) adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof provided that such articles as are ordinarily also used for other purposes than as parts and accessories of motor vehicles included in this item or in Serial No 76 shall be dutiable at the rate of duty specified for such articles.		Ad valorem	30 per cent.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd			
	CL FLEBY, HARDWARE IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS			
78	The following Agricultural Implements, namely winnowers, threshers, mowing and reaping machines, binding machines, elevators seed and corn crushers, chaff cutters, root-cutters ensilage cutters horse and bullock gears ploughs, cultivators, scarifiers harrows, clod crushers, seed-drills, hay tedders, hay presses potato diggers, latex sprouts spraying machines powder blowers, white-ant exterminating machines, beet pullers broadcast seeders corn pickers, corn shellers, chili packers, drag scrapers, stalk cutters huskers and shredders potato planters lime sowers, manure spreaders, finger soil graders and rakes also agricultural tractors, also component parts of these implements machines or tractors provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the implements machines or tractors for which they are imported and that they cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture *			Free
79	ARTICLES plated with gold and silver excluding surgical instruments †		Ad valorem	30 per cent
80	CLOCKS and WATCHES and parts thereof		,	80 "
81	CUTLERY, excluding plated cutlery (see Serial No 79)		Ad valorem	15 per cent.
82	The following Dairy and Poultry Farming Appliances, namely cream separators milking machines, milk sterilizing or pasteurizing plants, milk aerating and cooling apparatus churns, butter dryers butter workers, milk bottle fillers and cappers apparatus specially designed for testing milk and other dairy produce and incubators, also component parts of these appliances, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the appliances for which they are imported and that they cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy and poultry farming purposes.			Free
82A	DOMESTIC REFRIGERATORS		Ad valorem	15 per cent

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notifications Nos 37 and 41, dated the 18th September and 20th November 1930 respectively the following agricultural machines and implements namely flame throwers for attachment to spraying machines designed for the extermination of locusts and latex cups, are exempt from payment of import duty

† Under the Government of India, Finance department (Central Revenues) Notification No 18, dated the 30th March 1929, articles of imitation jewellery (including buttons and other fasteners), which consist of, or include base metal plated with gold or silver and in which the proportion of precious metal to total metallic contents is less than 15 per cent. are liable to duty at 15 per cent ad valorem.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured— <i>contd.</i>		Es a p	
	CUTLERY HARDWARE IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS— <i>contd.</i>			
83	ELECTRICAL CONTROL GEAR AND TRANSMISSION GEAR, namely, switches fuses and current-breaking devices of all sorts and descriptions designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts and regulators for use with motors designed to consume less than 187 watts bare or insulated copper wires and cables, any one core of which not being one specially designed as a pilot core has a sectional area of less than one eightieth part of a square inch and wires and cables of other metals of not more than equivalent conductivity and line insulation including also electric connectors leading in tubes and the like of types and sizes such as are ordinarily used in connection with the transmission of power for other than industrial purposes and the fittings thereof		Ad valorem	15 per cent
84	HARDWARE ironmongery and tools all sorts, not otherwise specified		Ad valorem	15 per cent
	Tariff value			
	Crown corks	gross	0 11 0	15 per cent
85	INSTRUMENTS apparatus and appliances, imported by a passenger as part of his personal baggage and in actual use by him in the exercise of his profession or calling			Free
86	MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS and parts thereof		Ad valorem	30 per cent
87	TELEGRAPHIC INSTRUMENTS and APPARATUS, and parts thereof imported by or under the orders of a Railway Administration.		Ad valorem	10 per cent
88	WATER LIFTS sugar mills, sugar centrifuges, sugar pug mills oil presses and parts thereof when constructed so that they can be worked by manual or animal power, and pans for boiling sugar-cane juice			Free
89	All other sorts of implements instruments apparatus and appliances (including plated surgical instruments) and parts thereof, not otherwise specified *		Ad valorem	15 per cent

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No 11 dated the 5th April 1930 (a) apparatus designed solely for the reception of broadcast wireless and such component parts of apparatus for wireless telegraphy or telephony as can be used as parts of apparatus for the reception of broadcast wireless are liable to duty at 12½ per cent *ad valorem*, and (b) other apparatus for wireless telegraphy or telephony and other component parts thereof are liable to duty at 2½ per cent *ad valorem* provided that nothing shall be deemed to be a component part of apparatus for wireless telegraphy or telephony for the purpose of this Notification unless it is essential for the working of such apparatus and has been given for that purpose some special shape or quality that would not be essential for its use for any other purpose

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued*

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs a p	
	DYES AND COLOURS			
90	DYES derived from coal tar and coal tar derivatives used in any dyeing process.			Free.
91	DYING and Tanning Substances all sorts not otherwise specified and paints and colours and painters materials all sorts.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
	<i>Tariff values</i>			
	Cochineal	lb	1 10 0	15 per cent
	Gallnuts, Persian	cwt	38 8 0	15
	Gamboge	lb	1 9 0	15
	Turmeric	cwt.	25 0 0	15
	Vermillion Canton	box of 90 bundles.	250 0 0	15
	FURNITURE CABINETWARE AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOD			
92	FURNITURE, Cabinetware and all other manufactures of wood not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	GLASSWARE AND EARTHENWARE			
93	GLASS and GLASSWARE lacquered ware earthenware, china and porcelain all sorts except glass bangles and beads and false pearls (see Serial No 139A)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent*
	<i>Tariff values.</i>			
	Aerated water bottles empty—			
	Codd's pattern—			
	Under 10 oss.	gross.	28 0 0	15 per cent
	10 oss.	,	29 0 0	15 "
	Over 10 oss.	"	31 0 0	15 "
	Crown cork pattern—			
	7 oss. and under	"	16 0 0	15 "
	Over 7 oss up to and including 10 oss	,	18 12 0	15 ,
*	Over 10 oss.	"	21 0 0	15 .

* There is no entry bearing Serial No. 94

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.			
	HIDES AND SKINS AND LEATHER.			
85	HIDES and SKINS not otherwise specified. Leather and Leather Manufactures all sorts not otherwise specified.		Ad valorem	1s per cent
	MACHINERY			
96	MACHINERY namely such of the following articles as are not otherwise specified:—			Free
	(1) prime-movers, boilers, locomotive engines and tenders for the same, portable engines (including power driven road rollers, fire engines and tractors) and other machines in which the prime-mover is not separable from the operative parts			
	(2) machines and sets of machines to be worked by electric steam, water, fire or other power, not being manual or animal labour or which before being brought into use require to be fixed with reference to other moving parts			
	(3) apparatus and appliances not to be operated by manual or animal labour which are designed for use in an industrial system as parts indispensable for its operation and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose			
	(4) control gear, self-acting or otherwise and transmission gear designed for use with any machinery above specified, including belting of all materials (other than cotton, hair and canvas ply) and driving chains but excluding driving ropes not made of cotton			
	(5) bare hand-drawn electrolytic copper wires and cables and other electrical wires and cables insulated or not and poles, troughs, conduits and insulators designed as parts of a transmission system and the fittings thereof			
	NOTE.—The term industrial system used in sub-clause (3) means an installation designed to be employed directly in the performance of any process or series of processes necessary for the manufacture, production or extraction of any commodity.			

Schedule II — (Import Tariff) — continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III — Articles wholly or mainly manufactured — contd			
	MACHINERY — contd			
97	The following textile machinery and apparatus by whatever power operated, namely, heads head cords and head knitting needles reeds and shuttles warp and weft preparation machinery and looms bobbins and pins dobblies Jacquard machines Jacquard harness linen cords Jacquard cards punching plates for Jacquard cards warping mills multiple box sleys solid border sleys tape sleys swivel sleys tape looms wool carding machines wool spinning machines hosiery machinery coil mat shearing machines coil fibre willowing machines, head knitting machines, dobby cards lattices and leas for dobblies wooden winders silk looms silk throwing and reeling machines cotton yarn reeling machines sizing machines doubling machines silk twisting machines cone winding machines, plano card cutting machines harness building frames card lacing frames, drawing and denting hooks, sewing thread balls making machines cumbl finishing machinery hank boilers cotton carding and spinning machines mail eyes lingoes, comber boards and comber board frames take-up motions temples and pickers picking bands picking sticks printing machines roller cloth clearer cloth sizing flannel, and roller skins.			Free
98	Printing and Lithographic Material, namely presses lithographic plates, composing sticks, chase, imposing tables lithographic stones stereo-blocks wood blocks, half tone blocks electrotpe blocks, process blocks and highly polished copper or zinc sheets specially prepared for making process blocks, roller moulds roller frames and stocks roller composition lithographic map rollers standing screw and hot presses perforating machines gold blocking presses, galley presses, proof presses, arming presses copper plate printing presses, rolling presses ruling machines, ruling pen, making machines, lead cutters, rule cutters slug cutters, type casting machines type setting and casting machines, paper in rolls with side perforations to be used after further perforation for type-casting, rule bending machines, rule mitring machines bronzing machines, stereotyping apparatus, paper folding machines, paging machines and clarified liquid glue, but excluding ink and paper			Free.
99	Component Parts of Machinery as defined in Serial Nos. 96, 97 and 98 namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of the machine or apparatus and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose			Free.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	<p>III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—could</p> <p>MACHINERY—could</p> <p>Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the machine to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.</p>			
99A	Cotton hair and canvas ply belting for machinery		<i>Ad valorem</i>	5 per cent
99B	Rubber in vulcanized sheets and cables, no core of which other than one specially designed as a pilot core has a sectional area of less than one eightieth part of a square inch whether made with any additional insulating or covering material or not			15
100	MACHINERY and component parts thereof meaning machines or parts of machines to be worked by manual or animal labour not otherwise specified and any machines (except such as are designed to be used exclusively in industrial processes) which require for their operation less than one quarter of one brake-horse power			15
	Metals IRON AND STEEL			
101A	Iron alloys		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
101B	IRON ANGLE channel and tee— (a) fabricated all qualities— (i) of British manufacture (ii) not of British manufacture (b) not fabricated kinds other than galvanized, tinned or lead coated and other than Crown or superior qualities— (i) of British manufacture (ii) not of British manufacture	ton		Rs. 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher Rs. 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher plus Rs. 15 per ton
101C	IRON ANGLE channel and tee not otherwise specified (see Serial No 101B)	ton		Rs. 19 0 0
	Tariff values— Angle, channel and tee— Crown and superior qualities not fabricated Other kinds, not fabricated if galvanized, tinned or lead coated	ton "	<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent 10

Schedule II —(Import Tariff)—continued.

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		Rs. a. p.	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—contd			
1020	STEEL, BAR AND ROD, the following kinds—		Ad valorem	10 per cent
	(a) shapes specially designed for the reinforcement of concrete if the smallest dimension is under $\frac{1}{4}$ inch			
	(b) all shapes and sizes if—			
	(i) of alloy crucible shear blister or tub steel or			
	(ii) galvanized or coated with other metals, or			
	(iii) planished or polished including bright steel shafting			
	(c) other qualities if of any of the following shapes and sizes—			
	(i) rounds not over $\frac{7}{16}$ inch diameter			
	(ii) squares not over $\frac{7}{16}$ inch side			
	(iii) flats, if under 1 inch wide, and not over $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick			
	(iv) flats not under 8 inches wide and not over $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick			
	(v) ovals if the dimension of the major axis is not less than twice that of the minor axis			
	(vi) all other shapes any size			
	Tariff values—			
	Bar and rod—			
	Galvanized or coated with other metals all shapes and sizes	ton	205 0 0	10 per cent,
	Planished or polished including bright steel shafting all shapes and sizes.		215 0 0	10 "
1021	STEEL, BAR AND ROD not otherwise specified (see Serial No 1020)—			
	(i) of British manufacture	ton		Rs. a. p. 26 0 0
	(ii) not of British manufacture	"		37 0 0
1022	STEEL (other than bars) alloys crucible shear, blister and tub		Ad valorem	10 per cent
1023	STEEL (other than bars) made for springs and cutting tools by any process.		"	10 "
1024	STEEL Ingots, blooms and billets and slabs of a thickness of $\frac{1}{4}$ inches or more		"	10 "

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		Rs a p.	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—contd			
102 H	STEEL STRUCTURES, fabricated partially or wholly, not otherwise specified if made mainly or wholly of steel bars sections plates or sheets, for the construction of buildings bridges tanks well curbs, trestles, towers and similar structures or for parts thereof but not including ladders hardware (see Serial No. 84) or any of the articles specified in Serial Nos 78 90 94 or 156—			
	(i) of British manufacture	ton		Rs 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher
	(ii) not of British manufacture			Rs 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher, plus Rs 15 per ton
102 I	STEEL tinplates and tinned sheets including tin taggers and cuttings of such plates sheets or taggers			Rs 48
103 A	IRON OR STEEL anchors and cables		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
103 D	IRON OR STEEL bolts and nuts, including hookbolts and nuts for roofing	cwt		Rs 2
103 C	IRON OR STEEL EXTRUDED METAL		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
103 D	IRON OR STEEL HOOPS AND STRIPS			10 "
*103 F	IRON OR STEEL NAILS rivets and washers all sorts			10 "
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Nails rivets and washers—			
	Nails wire including French	cwt	8 0 0	10
	Nails rose dick, and flat-headed	"	10 8 0	10
	bullock and horse-shoe	"	58 8 0	10
	Panel pins 16 gauge and smaller	"	12 0 0	10
	Rivets boilermakers or structural, if black	"	10 0 0	10
	Washers, black structural	"	10 0 0	10
103 G	IRON OR STEEL PIPES and tubes and fittings therefor if riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets—			
	(a) galvanized	ton		Rs 33 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher

* There is no entry bearing Serial No 103e

Schedule II — (Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	<p>III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd</p> <p>MFIALS IRON AND STEEL—contd</p> <p>IRON OR STEEL PIPES AND TUBES and fittings therefor if riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets—contd</p> <p>(b) not galvanized—</p> <p>(i) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick— of British manufacture</p> <p>ton</p> <p>Rs 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>, whichever is higher</p> <p>not of British manufacture</p> <p>Rs 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>, whichever is higher plus Rs. 15 per ton</p> <p>(ii) under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick— of British manufacture</p> <p>Rs 39 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>, whichever is higher</p> <p>not of British manufacture</p> <p>Rs 39 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>, whichever is higher plus Rs. 20 per ton</p>		Rs a p	
103 II	IRON OR STEEL PIPES AND TUBES also fittings therefor that is to say bends, boots elbows tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves cocks and the like excluding pipes tubes and fittings therefor otherwise specified (see Serial No. 103g)		4d <i>valorem</i>	10 per cent
103 I	<p>IRON OR STEEL PLATES OR SHEETS (including cuttings discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick and not of cast iron—</p> <p>(a) fabricated all qualities—</p> <p>(i) of British manufacture</p> <p>ton</p> <p>Rs 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>, whichever is higher</p> <p>(ii) not of British manufacture</p> <p>Rs 21 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i>, whichever is higher plus Rs. 15 per ton</p> <p>(b) not fabricated, chequered and ship tank bridge and common qualities—</p> <p>(i) of British manufacture</p> <p>(ii) not of British manufacture</p> <p>Rs 20 Rs 26</p>			

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs. a p	
	METALS IRON AND STEEL—<i>contd</i>			
103 J	IRON OR STEEL PLATES AND SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos 102k 102a 103g and 103f), whether fabricated or not		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Plates and sheets (including cuttings discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick—			
	Roller fire-box and special qualities not fabricated	ton	240 0 0	10 ,
	Galvanized, plain not fabricated	"	200 0 0	10 ,
103 K	IRON OR STEEL SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick whether fabricated or not, if coated with metals other than tin or zinc		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 "
103 L	IRON OR STEEL SHEETS (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick—			
	(a) fabricated—			
	(i) galvanized	ton		Rs 33 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher
	(ii) all other sorts not otherwise specified (see Serial No 103k)—			
	of British manufacture			Rs 39 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher
	not of British manufacture			Rs. 39 or 17 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher plus Rs 25 per ton
	(b) not fabricated—			
	(i) galvanized			Rs 30,
	(ii) all other sorts not otherwise specified (see Serial Nos. 102i and 103k)—			
	of British manufacture	"		Rs. 35
	not of British manufacture			Rs. 59

Schedule II —(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		Rs a p	
	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—contd			
103	IRON OR STEEL RAILWAY TRACK MATERIALS—			
	A Rails (including tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved)—			
	(a) (i) 30 lbs per yard and over	ton		Rs 17
	(ii) fish plates therefor			Rs 1 of 10 per cent ad valorem, whichever is higher
	(b) under 30 lbs per yard and fish plate therefor—			
	If of British manufacture			Rs 26
	If not of British manufacture	,		Rs 37
	B Switches and crossings and the like materials not made of alloy steel including switches and crossings and the like materials for tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved—			
	(i) for rails 30 lbs per yard and over	,		Rs 14 or 17 per cent ad valorem whichever is higher
	(ii) for rails under 30 lbs per yard—			
	of British manufacture	,		Rs 13 or 17 per cent ad valorem whichever is higher
	not of British manufacture			Rs 29 or 17 per cent ad valorem whichever is higher plus Rs 12 per ton
	C Sleepers, other than cast iron, and keys and distance pieces and the like for use with such sleepers.	"		Rs 10 or 10 per cent ad valorem, whichever is higher

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>concid</i>		Rs. a. p.	
	METALS IRON AND STEEL—<i>concid</i>			
	1) Spikes and tie-bars— of British manufacture	ton		Rs. 26 Rs. 97
103 N	IRON OR STEEL RAILWAY track material not other wise specified (<i>see</i> Serial Nos. 103m and 117) including bearing plates, cast iron sleepers and fastenings therefor other than tie-bars, and lever boxes.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent.
*103 P	IRON OR STEEL FRAMWAY track material, not other wise specified (<i>see</i> Serial No. 103m) including rails, fish plates, tie bars, switches, crossings and the like materials of shapes and sizes spe- cially adapted for tramway tracks		"	10 "
103 Q	IRON OR STEEL wire including fencing wire and wire rope, but excluding wire netting		"	10 "
*103 S	IRON OR STEEL (other than bar or rod) specially designed for the reinforcement of concrete		"	10 "
103 T	IRON OR STEEL the original material (but not in- cluding machinery) of any ship or other vessel intended for inland or harbour navigation which has been assembled abroad, taken to pieces and shipped for reassembly in India.— Provided that articles dutiable under this item shall not be deemed to be dutiable under any other item	ton		Rs. 28 or 10 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> , whichever is higher
104	ALL SORTS OF IRON AND STEEL and manufactures thereof not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent.
	Tariff values—			
	Iron and Steel cans or drums— When imported containing kerosene and motor spirit, namely — Cans, tinned, of four gallons capacity Cans or drums not tinned, of two gallons capacity— (a) with faucet caps (b) ordinary Drums of four gallons capacity— (a) with faucet caps (b) ordinary	can can or drum drum "	0 8 0 1 8 0 0 6 0 2 3 0 1 8 0	15 15 15 15 15
	METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL			
105	CURRENT coin of the Government of India			Free
106	GOLD bullion and coin and gold sheets and plates which have undergone no process of manufacture subsequent to rolling			"
107	GOLD PLATE, gold thread and wire, gold leaf and gold manufactures, all sorts not otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	30 per cent.
117 A	SILVER bullion and coin not otherwise specified and silver sheets and plates which have undergone no process of manufacture sub- sequent to rolling	ounce		Six annas
108	SILVER PLATE, silver thread and wire, (including so- called gold thread and wire mainly made of silver), silver leaf and silver manufactures, all sorts not otherwise specified.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	33 per cent

* There are no entries bearing Serial Nos 103e and 103r

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued.

Serial No	Names of Articles	Unit	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>concd</i>		Rs a p	
	METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL			
	<i>—concd</i>			
109	TIN block	ton		Rs 2.00
110	ZINC unwrought including cakes ingots tiles (other than boiler tiles) hard or soft slabs and plates dust dross and ashes and broken zinc			Free
111	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL and manufactures thereof not otherwise specified *		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Aluminium circles	lb	0 10 0	15 "
	" sheets plain		0 9 8	15 "
	Brass patent or yellow metal sheets and sheathing weighing 1 lb or above per square foot and brassiers and plates	cwt	46 0 0	15 "
	Brass patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) ingots	"	34 0 0	15 "
	Brass patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) old		27 0 0	15 "
	Copper brassiers sheets plates and sheath ing	"	52 0 0	15 "
	" old		48 0 0	15 "
	" pigs tiles ingots cakes bricks and slabs	"	50 0 0	15 "
	" foil or danksana plain white 10 to 11 in x 4 to 5 in	hundred leaves	1 7 0	15 "
	" foil or danksana, plain coloured, 10 to 11 in x 4 to 5 in	"	1 7 0	15 "
	Lead, pig	cwt	17 8 0	15 "
	Quicksilver	lb	4 0 0	15 "
	PAPER PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY			
112	Paper and articles made of paper and papier mache pasteboard millboard and cardboard all sorts and stationery, including drawing and copy books, labels, advertising circulars sheet or card almanacs and calendars Christmas, Easter and other cards including cards in booklet form including also waste paper and old newspapers for packing, but excluding trade catalogues and advertising circulars imported by packet book or parcel post and postage stamps whether used or unused and paper money and paper and stationery otherwise specified		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 "
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Old newspapers in bales and bags	cwt	4 0 0	15 "
	Printing paper (excluding chrome marble tint poster and stereo) in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to not less than 65 per cent of the fibre content, glazed or unglazed, white or grey	lb	0 1 10	15 "

* Under the Government of India, Finance Department (Central Levies) Notification No 28, dated the 8th August 1930, radium is exempt from payment of import duty

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs a p	
	PAPER, PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY <i>contd</i>			
	<i>Tariff values—contd</i>			
	Lacking and wrapping paper—	lb	0 2 0	15 per cent
	Machine glazed pressing	,	0 2 1	15
	Manilla machine glazed or unglazed and sulphate envelope		0 2 3	15
	Kraft and imitation kraft	cwt	6 0 0	15
	Straw boards			
113	Printing paper (excluding chrome marble flint paper and stone) all sorts which contain no mechanical wood pulp or in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to less than 6 per cent of the fibre content	lb		One anna
114	WRITING PAPER— (a) Ruled or printed forms (including letter paper with printed headings) and account and manuscript books and the binding thereof	,		One anna or 1 per cent <i>ad valorem</i> whichever is higher
115	(b) All other sorts			One anna
116	TRADE CATALOGUES and advertising circulars imported by packet, book or parcel post			free
116	POSTAGE STAMPS whether used or unused			
116 A	PAPER MONEY			
	RAILWAY PLANT AND ROLLING STOCK			
117	Railway materials for permanent-way and rolling stock, namely sleepers other than iron and steel and fastenings therefor, bearing plates, fish bolts and nuts, chairs, interlocking apparatus, brake-gear, abutting, slides, couplings and springs, signals, turntables, weighbridges, carriages, wagons, traversers, rail removers, scooters, trolleys, trucks, switches, crossings and the like materials made of alloy steel, also cranes, water cranes and water tanks when imported by or under the orders of a railway administration		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
	Provided that for the purpose of this entry, railway means a line of railway subject to the provisions of the Indian Railways Act 1890 and includes a railway constructed in a State in India and also such tramways as the Governor-General in Council may by notification in the <i>Gazette of India</i> specifically include therein			
	Provided also that articles of machinery as defined in Serial No 86 or No 99 shall not be deemed to be included hereunder			
118	Component Parts of Railway Material as defined in Serial No 117, namely such parts only as are essential for the working of railways and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent

Schedule II—(Import Tariff) — continued.

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		Rs a p	
	RAILWAY PLANT AND ROLLING STOCK <i>—contd</i>			
	Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the railway material to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable			
	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS			
119	ARTIFICIAL SILK YARN AND THREAD		<i>Ad valorem</i>	10 per cent
120	(a) cotton piece goods (with or without cuts of not more than nine yards in length)			
	(a) plain or 3 that is not divided or dyed in the piece if imported in pieces which either are without woven head tags or contain any length of more than nine yards which is not divided in transverse woven headings—			
	(i) of British manufacture		<i>Ad valorem</i>	20 per cent or 1½ annas per pound whichever is higher
	(ii) not of British manufacture		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent or 3½ annas per pound whichever is higher
	(b) other—			
	(i) of British manufacture		<i>Ad valorem</i>	20 per cent
	(ii) not of British manufacture		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent
121	COTTON TRIPP AND YARN and cotton sewing or darning thread		<i>Ad valorem</i>	25 per cent or 1½ annas per pound whichever is higher
122	SECOND-HAND or used gunny bag or cloth made of jute			Free
122 A	YARN (including cotton yarn) such as is ordinarily used for the manufacture of hosiery for machinery		<i>Ad valorem</i>	5 per cent
123	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS that is to say— Cotton thread other than sewing or darning thread and all other manufactured cotton goods not otherwise specified FLAX twist and yarn and manufactures of flax Haberdashery and millinery (excluding articles made of silk and silk mixtures)		<i>Ad valorem</i>	1

Schedule II —(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>		R s a p	
	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—<i>contd</i>			
	Hemp manufactures Hosiery excluding articles made of silk Jute twist and yarn and jute manufactures excluding second hand or used gunny bags or cloth Silk yarn, bolls and warps and silk thread Woollen yarn knitting, wool and other manufatures of wool including felt All other sorts of yarns and textile fabrics not otherwise specified			
124	SILK GOODS used or required for medical purposes namely —silk ligatures elastic silk hosiery elbow pieces thigh pieces knee caps, legwarmers, socks, anklets stockings suspensory bandages silk abdominal belts, silkweb catheter tubes and other silk		Ad valorem	15 per cent
125	SILK mixtures that is to say— (a) fabrics composed in part of some other text less than silk and in which any portion either of the warp or of the weft but not of both is silk (b) fabrics not being silk on which silk is superimposed such as embroidered fabrics (c) articles made from such fabrics and not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial No 124) <i>N B</i> —For tariff values under this item <i>see</i> those marked with an asterisk (*) under Serial No 126 below		"	27½ "
126	SILK MIXED-GOODS and other manufactures of silk not otherwise specified (<i>see</i> Serial Nos 124 and 125)		,	3
	Tariff values — Silk piece-goods (white or coloured, plain or figured, all lengths and all widths) and other manufactures of silk from Japan and China (including Hongkong)—			
	<i>Japan</i> — Pa, all kinds, including Habutai Thama, Janken and Nankein, and including striped printed woven so-called (<i>i.e.</i> swivel weave work of Khakho embroidered) embossed and pineapples but excluding all kinds of Shioji or Shin Pa]	lb	10 8 0	
	Satins, Taffetas and Kohokus, all kinds including striped, printed woven so-called (<i>i.e.</i> swivel weave work or Khakho embroidered) and embossed		18 0 0	
	Twill all kinds		16 12 0	
	Jasina (gold embroidered)		19 8 0	
	Fugi and Boteki, all kinds		7 10 0	
	Fancies printed and woven so-called (<i>i.e.</i> swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered) including georgettes crepes mimes, gauzes and all kinds of Shioji or Shin Pa]		22 8 0	

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd.		Rs a p	
	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—contd.			
	Spun crepe all kinds	Ad valorem	14 12 0	
	Silk embroideries and silk embroidered piece-goods excluding Burmese scarves		33 0 0	
	Dhotties handkerchiefs, hankie muffers shawls and scarves excluding shawls with artificial silk fringes and Burmese scarves		26 14 0	
	Dupettas and China silk putkas		17 0 0	
	Burmese scarves—(a) Paj or Hahutai		31 0 0	
	(b) Other kinds		33 0 0	
	*Cotton and silk mixed satins embroidered		14 0 0	
	*Cotton and silk mixed satins other kinds		7 0 0	
	Cotton and silk mixed hosiery		24 0 0	
	*Cotton and silk mixed Fugi and Roseki all kinds		5 4 0	
	Silk Fents		6 8 0	
	(China including Hongkong but excluding Canton)—			
	Hosiery all kinds and putkas		7 8 0	
	Shantung and Tussons all kinds including putkas		6 4 0	
	Colled all kinds excepting white cords		1 12 0	
	White cords all kinds		8 12 0	
	Crepe gauze and paj all kinds		17 8 0	
	Sarees and fancies all kinds including longies and stripes Taffetas and Fagris all kinds		15 8 0	
	Fugi and Roseki all kinds		8 0 0	
	Y B—The tariff values marked with an asterisk (*) are also applicable to silk mixtures under serial No 123 above			
	MISCELLANEOUS			
127	AEROPLANES, aeroplane parts aeroplane engines aeroplane engine parts and rubber tyres and tubes used exclusively for aeroplanes.	Ad valorem		2½ per cent.
128	ART the following works of—(1) statuary and pictures intended to be put up for the public benefit in a public place and (2) memorials of a public character intended to be put up in a public place including the materials used or to be used in their construction whether worked or not.			Free
129	ART, works of excluding those specified in Serial No 128 and Serial No 135	Ad valorem		1½ per cent.
130	Bangles, bead, and false pearls			30
	Tariff values			
	Celluloid bangles—			
	Celluloid, plain flat with borders and without border and grooved but excluding double border	doz pairs	1 0 0	30
	Celluloid (rubber) rings excluding celluloid		0 4 0	30
	Celluloid rings all colours		0 4 0	30
	Glass Bangles—			
	China—			
	Nimochi and passai	100 pairs	2 6 0	30
	Emelet, Jodi and fancy all kinds		4 0 0	30
	Rajawarakh, all kinds		6 0 0	30

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—contd		R s p	
	MIL ELIANEOL S—contd			
	Japan—			
	Rashmi or lustre all colours—			
	Fancy (including all kinds of Yakmai or Akazag)	doz pairs	0 1 9	30 per cent
	All others		0 1 0	30
	Hollow or tube all colours		0 2 2	30
	Monerikara (golbala)—			
	Containing gold in their composition		1 0 0	30
	All others		0 2 8	30
130	BOOKS PRINTED including covers for printed books maps charts and plans proofs made manuscript and illustrations specially made for binding (i) books		id valorem	15 per cent
131	Brushes and brooms			15
132	Building and Engineering Materials including asphalt bricks cement (excluding Portland cement other than white Portland cement) chalk and lime clay pipes of earthenware tiles firebricks not being component parts of any article included in Serial No 98 or No 117 and all other sorts of building and engineering materials not otherwise specified, including bitumen and other insulating materials.			
133	ANDLKS			15
134	CHINA CLAY			Free
135	CINEMATOGRAPH FILMS		id valorem	30 per cent
	Tariff value—			
	1 exposed standard positive film new or used—	foot	0 4 6	15
136	Cordage and rope and twine of vegetable fibre not otherwise specified		id valorem	15
	Tariff value—			
	Coil yarn	wt	1 9 0 0	15
137	Fireworks specially prepared as danger or distress lights for the use of ships		id valorem	15
138	FIREWORKS not otherwise specified (see Serial No 137)			30
139	FURNITURE tackle and apparel not otherwise described for steam sailing rowing and other vessels			15
140	TOYS manufactured not otherwise specified			30
141	JEWELLERY AND JEWELS*			30
142	LIGHT SHIPS			Free
143	MATCHES			
	(1) in boxes containing on the average not more than 100 matches	gross of boxes		R s p
	(2) in boxes containing on the average more than 100 matches	For every 100 matches or fraction thereof in each box per gross of boxes		1 8 0 0 6 0

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No 18 dated the 30th March 1920 articles of imitation jewellery (including buttons and other fasteners) which consists of or include base metal plated with gold and silver and in which the proportion of precious metal to total metallic contents is less than 15 per cent, are liable to duty at 15 per cent ad valorem.

Schedule II — (Import Tariff)—continued

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	III—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>contd</i>			
	MISCELLANEOUS—<i>contd</i>			
143	Undipped splints such as are ordinarily used for match making	lb		0 4 0
144	Veneers such as are ordinarily used for making boxes including boxes and parts of boxes made of such veneers			0 6 0
145	MATS AND MATTING		Ad valorem	1 per cent
146	OILCANS			15
147	OILCLOTH AND FLOOR CLOTH			15
148	PACKING—Packing and Baler—all sorts excluding packing forming a component part of any article included in Serial Nos 98 and 117			15
149	PERFUMERY not otherwise specified			15
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Gowla husked and unhusked	cwt	70 0 0	15
	Kapurkachi (sedgeary)		22 0 0	15
	Patch leaves (patchouli)		20 8 0	15
	Rose-flowers dried		23 0 0	15
150	PITCH tar and dammer		Ad valorem	15
	<i>Tariff values—</i>			
	Coal pitch	cwt	3 2 0	15
	Stockholm pitch		15 8 0	15
	tar		14 0 0	15
	Dammer batu		4 0 0	15
151	POLISHES and compositions		Ad valorem	15
152	PORTELAND CEMENT excluding white Portland cement.	ton		11 0 0
153	PRINTERS INK		Ad valorem	5 per cent.
153A	Printing Type	lb		One anna
154	The following printing material, namely: leads brass rules wooden and metal galleys shooting sticks and galleys and metal furniture		Ad valorem	2 1/2 per cent
155	PRINTS, Engravings and Pictures (including photographs and picture post cards), not otherwise specified			30 "
156	RACES for the withering of tea leaf			2 1/2
157	ROPES cotton			Free
158	RUBBER TYRES and other manufactures of rubber not otherwise specified (see Serial No 127)		Ad valorem	15 per cent
159	Ships and other vessels for inland and harbour navigation, including steamers, launches boats and barges imported entire or in sections Provided that articles of machinery as defined in Serial No 98 or No 99 shall when separately imported not be deemed to be included hereunder			10
160	SMOKERS requisites excluding tobacco (Serial Nos 27 to 30) and matches (Serial No 142)			30

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—concluded

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff valuation	Duty
	III — Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—<i>concid</i>		<i>Re a. p.</i>	
	MISCELLANEOUS—<i>concid</i>			
161	SOAP		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	<i>Tariff value —</i>			
	Soft Soap	cwt.	15 0 0	15 „
162	STARCH and farina			Free.
162A	STONE prepared as for road metalling			
163	STONE AND MARBLE and articles made of stone and marble but excluding stone prepared as for road metalling		<i>Ad valorem</i>	1 1/2 per cent,
164	TOILET REQUISITES, not otherwise specified			1 „
165	TOYS, games, playing cards and requisites for games and sports including bird-shot toy cannons, air guns and air pistols for the time being excluded in any part of British India from the operation of all the prohibitions and directions contained in the Indian Arms Act 1878, and bows and arrows.		30	„
	<i>Tariff value —</i>			
	Bird shot	cwt.	33 0 0	30 „
166	All other articles wholly or mainly manufactured not otherwise specified.		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 „
	IV — Miscellaneous and Unclassified			
167	ANIMALS, living, all sorts			Free
168	CORAL		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
169	FOODSTUFFS, bran and pollards			2 1/2 „
169A	INSIGNIA and badges of official British and Foreign Orders.			Free
169B	PLANTS living all sorts			„
170	Specimens, Models and Wall Diagrams illustrative of natural science and modern and antique coins			„
171	UMBRELLAS, including parasols and sunshades and fittings therefor		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 per cent
	<i>Tariff values —</i>			
	Umbrella ribs other than nickelled braced			
	zuted or metal tipped—			
	Solid Fibres, all sizes—			
	From Japan	Dozen	1 5 0	15 per cent.
		Sets of 8		
	From other countries		2 3 0	15 „
	Solids, 23, 25 and 27 inches		2 1 0	15 „
		Dozen		
	Solids, 16, 19 and 21 inches	Sets of 1 1/2	1 0	15 „
		Dozen		
172	All other articles not otherwise specified, including articles imported by post		<i>Ad valorem</i>	15 „

Schedule III—(Export Tariff)

Serial No.	Names of Articles	Per	Tariff Valuation	Duty
	JUTE OTHER THAN HIMLIPATAN JUTE		Rs. a p	Rs a p
1	RAW JUTE— (1) Cuttings	Bale of 400 lbs		1 4 0
	(2) All other descriptions	"		4 8 0
2	JUTE MANUFACTURES when not in actual use as coverings, receptacles or bindings for other goods— (1) Sacking (cloth, bags, twist, yarn, rope and twine). (2) Essians and all other descriptions of jute manufactures, not otherwise specified †	100 of 2,240 lbs.		20 0 0 32 0 0
	HIDES AND SKINS			
3	RAW HIDES AND SKINS ‡ Tariff values — If exported from Burma— (1) Arsenicated and air-dried hides— (a) Cows (including calf skins) (b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) (2) Dry salted hides— (a) Cows (including calf skins) (b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) (3) Wet salted hides— (a) Cows (including calf skins) (b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) (4) Goat and kid skins (5) Sheep skins If exported from any place in British India other than Burma— (1) Arsenicated and air dried hides— (a) Cows (including framed calf skins) (Unframed) (b) Buffaloes (including framed calf skins) (Unframed) (2) Dry salted hides— (a) Cows (including calf skins) (b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) (3) Wet salted hides— (a) Cows (including calf skins) (b) Buffaloes (including calf skins) (4) Goat and kid skins (5) Sheep skins	lb lb Piece	Ad valorem	5 per cent
	RICE			
4	RICE husked or unhusked including rice flour, but excluding rice bran and rice dust which are free	Indian maund of 82 2/7 lbs avoirdupois weight.		Two annas & three pies

* Under Government of India Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No 10 dated the 17th May 1930 bagging for raw cotton made from jute rope weighing not less than 1½ lbs per square yard and having a total of not more than 250 warp and weft threads per square yard is liable to duty at Rs 8 0 per ton.

† Under Government of India Finance Department Notification No. 1428, dated the 17th November 1923 Jute Bags such as are used for paper making, are exempt from payment of export duty provided that the Customs Collector is satisfied that they are useless for any purpose to which cloth or rope is ordinarily put.

‡ Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenue) Notification No 85 dated the 25th September 1926, hide and skin cuttings and scabbings such as are used for glue-making, are exempt from payment of export duty.

Finance

The gradual evolution of the present financial organisation of India is in many respects a reflection of her constitutional development. Those who take a broad view of the history of Federal States—and by whatever name it may be called India must in its political structure be a Federal State—nothing is more impressive than the ebb and flow in what may be called the adjustment of Federal and State rights. There is a constant mutation in the powers of the central government and the federal components though in India we use the terms Government of India and Provincial Governments to describe them. In the earliest days of British rule, the Provinces and especially the older *Presidencies* were for all practical purposes independent of the central government and responsible only to the authority sitting in London. After the middle of the nineteenth century, the process was reversed and the Government of India was all powerful, controlling the Provinces down to the smallest items of their expenditure. This centralisation reached its blindest point during the long Viceroyalty of Lord Curzon who was so jealous of his supreme authority that he sought to deprive the Presidency Governors of their right to correspond direct with the Secretary of State for India. This system was found too heavy; in the days of his successors and a continuous process of devolution set in. In the matter of finance the measures took the form of long term contracts with the Provincial Governments and later in the assignment of definite heads of revenue to the Provincial Governments thus removing the dual authority and responsibility which had clogged progress. A much clearer cut was made when the great reform scheme embodied in the Government of India Act of 1919 was passed. Here, for all practical reasons Provincial finance was entirely separated from the finances of the Government of India and with one reservation the Local Governments were made masters in their own financial houses. The reservation arose from the circumstance that the funds of the Government of India did not then permit them to do entirely without contributions from the Provinces. These contributions were fixed in the shape of definite sums, which the Provincial Governments had to find from their own resources and pay to the Government of India in cash. They varied between Province and Province, on a scale which at first sight seemed inequitable but which had a definite logical basis. The total of these contributions was a little less than ten crores of rupees. This was admittedly a temporary expedient, to last only so long as was necessary for the Government of India to reduce its post-war expenditure and develop its revenues to the point when they would balance without drawing from the Provinces. They were an open sore, each Province claiming that it paid an undue proportion of the total contribution and that it was starved in consequence. There was no possibility of adjusting these differences, so the contributions were reduced as fast as the finances of the Government of India permitted. They finally disappeared from the Budget in 1923-24.

But this did not end the discussion. Indeed it was only the first phase. A large issue remains, and despite the extinction of the Provincial contributions the finances of some of the Provinces are in an unsatisfactory state. Broadly the issue may be put in this way. The Government of India has taken the growing heads of revenue those which issue from taxes on income and customs. The Provinces are left with resources which are either almost static like land revenue, or which are actually declining as with excise where steps are being taken to reduce the consumption of alcoholic liquor in response to the strong Indian sentiment towards prohibition. At the same time the Provinces are confronted with the great growing sources of expenditure like those on education and sanitation which bulk largely in Provincial budgets. The burden is heaviest in the industrial provinces such as Bombay and Bengal. The standard of living is high, wages and costs are a good deal above those of the agricultural provinces. This means an expensive administration. On the other hand the industrial progress which induces this costlier administration pours all its taxable product into the coffers of the Government of India. Rules made to give Bombay and Bengal some share in the Income Tax receipts have been inoperative in practice. Whilst therefore relief is felt at the abolition of the Provincial Contributions under the 1919 settlement it is felt that this does not go far enough and there is still this pressure for some share in the revenues from the taxes on income which it is believed alone can put the industrial Provinces on a satisfactory basis. The question was remitted with others to the Parliamentary Commission which under the chairmanship of Sir John Simon is charged with the duty of inquiring into the working of the Indian constitution and making proposals for the future. In 1928 a financial expert Mr. Leyton was added to the Secretariat for this duty because all the evidence went to show that the adjustment of these differences was an integral part of the working of the constitutional machine.

Railway Finance—The year 1924-25 was marked by a step of great importance in the better organisation of Indian finance. As is explained in detail under the section Railways (q.v.) the Government of India is a great railway owner. It owns and operates itself a very large proportion of the railway system through what are called State Railways. It is the principal shareholder in other lines which are leased to Companies which operate them. Prior to the year in question the railway finances were incorporated in the general finances of the country. The effects of this were unfortunate. As the finances of a State are not managed on commercial principles the railways were not conducted on commercial principles. Then the annual allotments to railway expenditure were not determined by the needs of the railways themselves, but by the amount at the disposal of the Government of India. The evil effects of this policy were forcibly exposed in the report of a strong committee of investigation usually called after the name of its chairman, the Acworth Committee, which recommended the entire

separation of the Railway Budget from the general finances. Some delay occurred in giving effect to this recommendation, but it was carried out in the year 1924-25. The basis of the settlement was complete separation of finance, a definite annual contribution from the railway revenues to the general revenues and the creation of a Standing Finance Committee of the Legislative Assembly to review estimates of railway expenditure before they are placed before the Assembly. The railway contribution was settled on the basis of one per cent on the capital

at charge plus one-fifth of the surplus profits further, if after the payment of the contributions so fixed the amount available for transfer to Railway Reserves exceeds the sum of Rs. 5 crores one-third of the excess should be paid to the General Revenues. The effects of this change are expected to yield to the General Revenues a fixed contribution from the railway property instead of a varying figure destructive of accurate budgeting, and to give to the railways the benefit of their operation and secure management and development on commercial principle.

I RECENT INDIAN FINANCE

The year 1923 marked a distinct and very important stage in the finances of India. Those who have studied the history of Indian finance will remember the general trend of the country's finance sheet. Up to the outbreak of the war it was a record of very careful finance with a general surplus of revenue over expenditure, all such surpluses, save when they were in the nature of windfalls going to the avoidance of debt. Throughout the war the finances were carefully handled and with certain moderate increases in taxation the accounts were made to balance. But commencing in 1919 a lamentable change came over the situation. The wanton invasion of India by Afghanistan meant a war which cost the exchequer directly some 34 crores of rupees. War was this all. Whilst the military resistance of Afghanistan to the Indian forces was contemptible, and Kabul lay open to easy seizure if it had been thought worth while to occupy it the effect of this attack was to set a large part of the North West Frontier afloat and to thrust on the Government of India a series of costly expeditions. When these were completed there remained the necessity of establishing a new Frontier system to take the place of that which collapsed in 1919. This especially in the notoriously troublesome country of Waziristan, (a Frontier) involved the occupation of certain dominating posts and of connecting them with each other and with the advanced military stations of India by a series of very expensive roads. This abnormal expenditure dislocated the financial equilibrium of the whole country. Nor is it possible to acquit the Finance Department of the Government of India in the difficult post-war period of a relaxation of that close control of expenditure which in previous years had balanced the accounts even in the years of famine and plague. The result was that the accumulated deficits of the Government of India reached the very high figure of Rs. 100 crores. This led to two results.

Retrenchment and Taxation—Owing to the insistent demand for retrenchment the Government of India appointed in 1922 a retrenchment committee on the model of the Geddes Committee which overhauled the extra

vagant post-war expenditure of the British Government. This committee is usually called after its chairman the Inchcape Committee. It sat in 1923 and presented a report which recommended reductions in expenditure which amounted in the aggregate to Rs. 18 crores.

Financial equilibrium was established and a surplus realised in the Budget of 1923-24.

Statement comparing the actual Revenue and Expenditure of the Central Government (Imperial Revenue and Expenditure before the reforms) with the Revised Estimates for each year from 1915-16 to 1928-29.

	In thousands of Rupees		
	Revenue	Expenditure	Surplus (+) Deficit (-)
1915-16	80,00,000	81,79,000	-1,79,000
1916-17	84,11,100	87,31,300	+3,20,200
1917-18	1,18,00,000	1,00,57,500	+17,42,500
1918-19	1,30,40,000	1,31,14,700	-74,700
1919-20	1,37,13,800	1,80,79,100	-46,65,300
1920-21	1,36,05,000	1,31,64,100	+4,40,900
1921-22	1,21,21,600	1,42,86,000	-21,64,400
1922-23	1,21,11,000	1,38,43,000	-17,32,000
1923-24	1,33,16,300	1,30,77,600	+2,38,700
1924-25	1,35,03,000	1,32,95,600	+2,07,400
1925-26	1,35,32,900	1,31,18,000	+4,14,900
1926-27	1,31,00,000	1,31,60,000	-60,000
1927-28	1,27,20,000	1,27,20,000	0
1928-29	1,31,20,000	1,31,20,000	0

II THE PRESENT FINANCIAL POSITION

The year 1929-30 marked a considerable change in the finances of the Government of India, synchronising with a change in the control of this Department. When Sir Basil

Blackett took charge of the finances in 1922-23, the position was difficult. The war deficits had not been worked off and the provincial contributions hung like a millstone round the organs.

action. He was therefore driven to agree to the doubled salt duty which brought serious political troubles in its train. But thereafter the position improved. The next five years may be said to have been a period of comparative ease. Recurrent surpluses allowed the gradual extinction of the provincial contributions, the doubling of the salt tax was reversed and a period of constructive work set in. The main features of this period were a great improvement in the technique of the financial organisation and a great expansion in capital expenditure without any proportionate increase in the total debt. But this was accomplished only by drawing heavily on the balances of the Government, and postponing the payment of or not providing for the payment of, the interest on the Post Office Savings Certificates, which in India take the place of the National Savings Certificates in Great Britain. This was the position when Sir George Schuster, taking office as Finance Member, presented his first Budget in February 1929.

Actually the financial year 1928-29 closed with an uncovered deficit of Rs 92 lakhs after the whole of the balance to the credit of the Revenue Reserve Fund had been drawn upon. Nevertheless the Finance Member was able to present another balanced Budget without increasing taxation and aided by a windfall the bringing to account of a large sum held by India at credit of the German Liquidation Account under the Treaty of Versailles the year 1929-30 closed with an even balance. It is a curious coincidence the amount received by the Government of India as the result of the decisions arrived at by the Hague Conference was Rs 126 lakhs and exactly balanced the deficit which would otherwise have arisen.

The Budget of 1930-31—From the foregoing it will be seen that the strain caused by the reduction of provincial contributions was proving too much for the Government of India's finances. The Finance Member did not increase taxation in the 1929-30 Budget because he wished to see if the revenues would naturally increase sufficiently to bridge the gap. They did not and as we have already noted he would have found himself with a deficit of Rs 156 lakhs had it not been for the Reparations windfall. But when he came to present the Budget for 1930-31 the unsatisfactory state of the country's revenues had to be squarely faced. In submitting the estimates for the year Sir George Schuster said he had to take into account several unfortunate factors including the civil disobedience campaign threatened by the All India Congress the serious blow given to commerce by talk of repudiation of debts in the resolutions passed by the Congress at its Lahore session, and the not very bright prospects of world trade. Customs receipts showed a reduction exclusive of the Road Fund receipts of Rs 109 lakhs and opium receipts a fall of Rs 34 lakhs but increases were estimated to the extent of Rs 70 lakhs from Income Tax and Rs 70 lakhs from salt. The net result was that so far as the main heads of revenue were concerned, a net growth of no more than Rs 6 lakhs was anticipated. On the other side of the shield the Finance Member said he had to provide for deterioration in the main Commercial Departments, Railways and Posts and Telegraphs

to the extent of Rs 99 lakhs, essential new services and demands Rs 148 lakhs, net addition to interest on deadweight debt Rs 107 lakhs, special provision for bonus on Post Office cash certificates Rs 88 lakhs, increase in provision for reduction of avoidance of debt Rs 27 lakhs. Budget deficit of 1929-30 Rs 90 lakhs, total Rs 567 lakhs. Deducting Rs 5 lakhs due to the net improvement in revenue there was thus a gap to be filled of Rs 552 lakhs. The Finance Member proposed reductions in the civil estimates and in military expenditure amounting in all to Rs 142 lakhs leaving a deficit of Rs 410 lakhs.

New Taxation—To meet this deficit the following items of new taxation were announced—

1. Aise duty on kerosene raised from one anna to one anna 4½ pies, import duty reduced from two annas six pies to two annas three pies. Estimated yield Rs 3 lakhs.

2. Import duty on sugar raised by Rs 1½ per cwt. Estimated yield Rs 180 lakhs.

3. Duty of four annas per ounce on silver. Estimated yield Rs 100 lakhs.

4. Duty on cotton piecegoods raised from 11 to 15 per cent with an additional duty of 5 per cent to be levied on non-British cotton goods for which a separate Part II Bill would be introduced. Estimated yield Rs 125 lakhs.

The total yield from the new taxes was estimated at Rs 310 lakhs, but as it was proposed to reduce the import duty on rice by one-quarter, the Budget estimates anticipated a surplus of Rs 70 lakhs. Justifying the demand for new taxation the Finance Member pointed out that certain heads of revenue were declining, notably that from opium which was to disappear entirely after 1934. New needs for expenditure on the other hand were constantly likely to press upon Government. Yet another consideration was that Government had, in his opinion, been working during the past three years with a dangerously low margin and in a country like India subject to great risks of loss of revenue from failure of rains or from floods it was desirable to have some margin of revenue over expenditure from which a reserve could be built up in reasonably good years.

Imperial Preferences—Explaining his Imperial Preference proposals on the new cotton duty the Finance Member said—We informed His Majesty's Government that it would not be right for us to ask the Assembly to commit themselves to Imperial Preference as a principle, but merely to adopt a particular course which in our judgment was consistent with India's interests at a critical juncture when much might depend on India's response to the British Government's appeal. We also stated that we should have to make it plain to the Assembly that while there were grounds for treating plain grey goods specially we could not in any circumstances agree for the emergency purpose which we had in view to an additional protection duty of 5 per cent on all classes of piece goods irrespective of country of origin since the immediate benefit to the Indian producer would be wholly incommensurate with the burden imposed on the Indian consumer. Finally, we

made it clear that in a matter of this kind after frankly stating our conclusions we should desire to put our carefully considered views before the Legislative Assembly with whom the final decision must rest. That is how the matter stands and it is on this basis that our proposals are now put forward. I have thought it right frankly to put the position before Hon. Members in this way. Indeed whatever our proposals had been we could have consented to no other course for we felt that it is essential at this transitional stage of the constitution that there should be full confidence wherever possible between the Government and the Legislature. There are certain points with reference to what has passed between ourselves and the British Government and to the attitude which we adopted on which I desire to give a further explanation. We left in fact that this method of approach from the British Government had a special significance. It affords striking evidence that the fiscal autonomy convention has become an integral part of the constitution and that even when British interests are most profoundly affected by tariff changes in India the intervention of the British Government is restricted to representation and appeal. Complete freedom was accorded to the Government of India to take the final decision in whatever manner they thought right for India. It appeared to us that subject to our paramount duty of considering Indian interests first, our Government of India could ignore such an appeal for to any statesmanlike view it must be clear that India must be really interested in maintaining a spirit of co-operation with Great Britain. We felt moreover on very good ground that no members of any Government of India be British or Indian would desire to introduce measures likely to inflict serious injury on British interests unless such measures were necessary for India's own development. It is of course, obvious that these proposals will evoke very considerable comment and will be subjected to the closest and most critical scrutiny.

Sales of Silver.—Dealing with the new silver duty, the Finance Member said:—“Government, owing to their possession of surplus stocks of silver and the creation of the new refinery at Bombay have got into the position of being themselves important producers of silver. Our proposal therefore has the new incidental advantage of providing Government with a protected market for their own produce. Having said as much as this, however, I must say more in order to avoid the creation of any misunderstanding. I feel that it is important that the masses of India who invest so large an amount of money in silver should realise that silver is only an ordinary commodity liable to fluctuations in price just as other commodities are. It has no sacred properties which make it immune from these vicissitudes and although the Government in taking these measures have in mind as one of the main advantages an improvement in the internal value of silver we should in the long run be doing a very poor service to the population of India if we allow it to be supposed that the Government have the power definitely to maintain prices at a particular level. It is far better that the people should generally appreciate the realities of the situation

in this respect. At the same time the Government do recognise the importance of the interests involved owing to the position of silver in India as in some respects a store of value and while they must as holders of a surplus commodity which they desire to sell reserve freedom of action, I am prepared to assure this Assembly that in considering that direction the Government will not go to the market unless they are advised that as in the past the market will not be appreciably affected by their operations. If that is any danger of the world's production of silver exceeding the consuming capacity of all markets then of course there must be a tendency to falling prices. Only the combined action of producers and holders can prevent this. The Government of India holding as they do surplus stocks which in the public interest they consider that they ought to realise cannot fairly be asked to do more than other producers but I am prepared on behalf of the Government of India as important holders or producers to say that if the other interests concerned show any desire to consider the possibility of joint action for the regulating sales in order to meet the world's demand the Government of India would willingly co-operate further than this we cannot in the public interest go.

Expenditure for 1930-31.—On the expenditure side of the budget the Finance Member referred to the difficulty caused by the general demand for retrenchments on one side and on the other persistent and insistent pressure for increased expenditure on particular projects such as the improvement of conditions of service, education, hospitals and sanitary arrangements, agricultural endowment, police measures and roads. Government's demands for new expenditure were submitted after most careful scrutiny. In the first place there were the normal increments in the rates of pay for the existing staff of Government officials an inevitable commitment which had not yet approached anything like the peak figure. Apart from that there was a number of new demands of a special nature. These included Rs. 11 lakhs for the revenue operations, Rs. 10 lakhs for a special fund for financing measures for the encouragement of sugar cultivation, Rs. 71 lakhs for the Banking Inquiry and Rs. 24.5 lakhs for civil aviation.

WAYS AND MEANS

The ways and means position was explained as follows:—

	(In crores of rupees)
	Budget 1930-31
Expenditure	
Railway capital outlay (construction)	16.7
Purchases of Railways	
Other capital outlay	3.97
Provincial Transactions	7.93
Discharge of permanent debt (net)	18.84
Contractions against treasury bills	..
Contractions against silver	..
Other transactions	1.44
Total	49.2

	(In crores of rupees)
	Budget
	1930-31
Receipts	
Revenue surplus	70
Staple loan (net)	23 50
Swelling loan (net)	
Treasury bills with public	- 4 00
India Bills	
Post Office cash certificates and savings bank	6 20
Other unfunded debt	3 16
Appropriation for reduction, etc. of debt	5 60
Intervention and Reserve Funds	5 27
Reduction of cash balances	8 62
Total	49 35

Reception by Assembly—The proposal to raise the import duty on cotton piece goods consisted of two parts. The first was the raising of the import duty on all cotton goods from 11 to 15 per cent *ad valorem* for revenue purposes. This was effected in the Finance Bill by a change in the import tariff. To provide for the special additional protection a separate Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Bill was introduced by the Commerce Member. It provided for the imposition for protective purposes of an additional 5 per cent *ad valorem* import duty with a minimum of $\frac{1}{2}$ anna a pound on piece goods on all cotton piece goods from outside the United Kingdom. This protective duty to be in force for three years only and an undertaking to be given that its effects should be examined by the Tariff Board before the end of the Triennium. The differentiation in favour of cotton at Britain was adopted as a convenient

means of classification for the purpose in view which was to impose a protective duty on goods competing with Indian mill products and to leave alone goods not competing with them. To have imposed the new duty on all goods would have been to lay a heavy burden on the consumer without producing a particle of benefit for the Indian manufacturer. Political extremists vehemently opposed the protective differential duty because it nominally gave advantage to Great Britain and put forward an amendment to make it applicable to all imported piece goods. Government declined to make the change in their proposals on the ground that a general duty would impose a colossal further burden on the consumer without serving any useful purpose. Government on the other hand accepted an amendment from Moderate political parties abolishing the differentiation in so far as it affected plain grey goods in regard to which there was shown to be competition between British and Indian mills. This amendment the Assembly adopted by 62 votes to 42 in preference to the extremist amendment. The extremists finding themselves defeated left the House before the vote on the third reading of the Bill was taken and the motion that the Bill as amended be passed was therefore adopted *per se*. The Bill was also passed in the Council of 49 etc.

The Assembly made only one substantial cut in the appropriation grants demanded by Government. That was the reduction of the grant required for the Army Department from Rs. 5.47 lakhs to one rupee. When the remaining grant for one rupee was submitted to the House the President declared that he heard none shout *aye* and that therefore that also was cut. The grant was restored by the Governor General. The annual Finance Bill was passed without serious amendment.

Statement showing the interest-bearing obligations of the Government of India, outstanding at the close of each financial year

	31st March 1925	31st March 1926	31st March 1927	31st March 1928	31st March 1929	31st March 1930
In India				(In crores of rupees)		
Loans	370 8	64 29	74 44	72 25	190 74	400 11
Treasury bills in the hands of the public				7 69	4 00	36 04
Treasury bills in the Paper Currency Reserve	10 60	49 60	41 47	31 94	39 10	29 22
Total Loans etc.	120 68	417 94	415 91	411 78	483 88	470 57
Other Obligations—						
Post Office Savings Banks	25 14	27 23	29 51	32 67	34 49	37 48
Cash Certificates	13 12	20 96	26 94	30 70	32 50	35 00
Provident Funds, etc.	42 30	46 36	51 02	56 82	60 52	65 65
Depreciation and Reserve Funds	0 08	10 45	20 10	25 48	31 09	31 77
Provincial Balances	4 83	11 87	10 49	10 48	10 43	10 17
Total Other Obligations	85 06	121 87	137 80	155 16	168 83	180 07
Total in India	205 74	539 81	553 71	566 93	652 71	650 64

Statement showing the interest bearing obligations of the Government of India outstanding at the close of each financial year—continued

	31st March 1925	31st March 1926	31st March 1927	31st March 1928	31st March 1929	31st March 1930
<i>In England—</i>						
Loans	261 30	261	245 00	272 82	283 1	280 04
War Contribution	18 81	18	17 81	17 28	16 2	16 1
Capital value of liabilities under going redemption by way of terminable railway annuities	8 84	7	6 10	1 70	3	1 86
India bills						6 00
Provident Funds etc.	16	1	7	10	1	2 00
Total in England	341 20	316	309 91	312 88	325 81	325 90
Liquidated at 1s 6d to the Rupee	11 4	0	5	1 11	17 1	4 30
Total interest bearing obligations	370 6	316	314 96	314 99	342 92	330 20
Interest yielding assets held against the above obligations—						
(i) Capital advanced to Railways	78 0	10 0	65 0	66 0	700 0	711 00
(ii) Capital advanced to other Governmental Departments	26 00	17 77	19 16	20 0	21 81	23 00
(iii) Capital advanced to Provinces	106 13	114 10	120 17	120	117	112 11
(iv) Capital advanced to Indian States and other interest bearing loans	10 16	11 84	12 11	13 01	13 0	17 27
Total interest yielding assets	210 35	253 71	216 44	220 11	850 81	913 38
Cash, billions and securities held on Treasury account	57 30	51 00	87 18	21 20	28 31	46 78
Balance of total interest bearing obligations not covered by above assets	196 03	193 56	181 81	172 88	170 81	176 18

General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure

	Accounts 1928-29	Revised Estimate 1929-30	Budget Estimate 1930-31
	Rs	Rs	Rs
REVENUE—			
Principal Heads of Revenue—			
Customs	49 28 00 801	51 02 09 000	54 63 81 000
Taxes on Income	18 70 49 999	17 10 06 000	17 99 78 000
Salt	7 39 92 742	6 72 9 000	7 04 88 000
Opium	3 26 0 453	3 08 27 000	2 71 80 000
Other Heads	2 23 85 102	2 28 02 000	2 30 86 000
TOTAL PRINCIPAL HEADS	79 08 72 270	80 20 83 000	84 71 08 000
Railways Net Receipts (as per Railway Budget)	37 48 75 950	37 06 80 000	38 10 00 000
Irrigation Net Receipts	9 40 32 9	12 75 000	14 25 000
Posts and Telegraphs Net Receipts	7 41 35 4	7 99 000	21 52 000
Interest Receipts	2 80 03 030	4,32 78 000	3 45 81 000
Civil Administration	1 00 93 320	1 11 06 000	1 08 44 000
Currency and Mint	2 84 32 728	2 85 51 000	2 89 10 000
Civil Works	17 04 62 7	24 30 000	26 17 000
Miscellaneous	49 47 43 7	02 21 000	86 11 000
Military Expenditure	9 10 37 431	3 07 77 000	3,02 08 000
Provincial Contributions and miscellaneous adjustments be- tween Central and Provincial Governments	3 99 74 9		37
Extraordinary Items	1 04 02 000	1 90 23 000	32 00 000
TOTAL REVENUE	1 28 98 10 475	1 82 84 08 000	1 35 04 11 000
DEFICIT	81 54 002		
TOTAL	1 29 29 64 477	1 32 84 08 000	1 35 04 11 000
EXPENDITURE—			
Direct Demands on the Revenue	4 02 12 793	4 12 99 000	4 35 57,000
Forest and other Capital Outlay charged to Revenue	4 62 468	5 21 000	6 32 000
Railways Interest and Miscellaneous Charges (as per Railway Budget)	32 25 56 493	30 94 94 000	32 36 43 000
Irrigation	22 24 830	30 36 000	25 71 000
Posts and Telegraphs	81 63,816	81 11 000	92 78 000
Debt Services	15 02 43 872	16 51 58 000	17 81 58 000
Civil Administration	11 43 51,316	12 68 72 000	13 26 59 000
Currency and Mint	71 61 822	74 39 000	77 68 000
Civil Works	1 59 28 196	2 63 25 000	2 81 06 000
Miscellaneous	4 05 92 852	4 58 59 000	4 16 87 000
Military Services	58 49 37 451	39 07 77,000	57 97 08 000
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	1 08 05 0		75
Extraordinary Items	1 20 510	7,000	50 000
TOTAL EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE	1 29 29 64 477	1 32 40 08 000	1 34,78 11 000
SURPLUS		35 00,000	86 00 000
TOTAL	1 29 29 64 477	1 32 84 08,000	1 35 04 11 000

THE LAND REVENUE.

The principle underlying the Land Revenue system in India has operated from time immemorial. It may be roughly formulated thus:—the Government is the supreme landlord and the revenue derived from the land is equivalent to rent. On strictly theoretical grounds exception may be taken to this statement of the case. It agrees, however, as a substantially correct description of the relation between the Government and the cultivator. The former gives protection and legal security. The latter pays for it according to the value of his holding. The official term for the method by which the Land Revenue is determined is "Settlement." There are two kinds of settlements in India—Permanent and Temporary. Under the former the amount of revenue has been fixed in perpetuity, and is payable by the landlord as distinguished from the actual cultivator. The Permanent Settlement was introduced into India by Lord Cornwallis at the close of the eighteenth century. It had the effect intended of converting a number of large revenue farmers in Bengal into landlords occupying a similar status to that of landowners in Europe. The actual cultivators became the tenants of the landlords. While the latter became solely responsible for the payment of the revenue, the former lost the advantage of holding from the State. This system has prevailed in Bengal since 1793 and in the greater part of Oudh since 1819. It also obtains in certain districts of Madras.

Temporary Settlements

Elsewhere the system of Temporary Settlement is in operation. At intervals of thirty years more or less the land in a given district is subjected to a thorough economic survey on the basis of the trigonometrical and topographic surveys carried out by the Survey Department of the Government of India. Each village area wherever the Temporary Settlement is in vogue, has been carefully mapped, property-boundaries accurately delineated, and records of rights made and preserved. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal the occupant does not enjoy these advantages. The duty of assessing the revenue of a district is entrusted to Settlement Officers, members of the Indian Civil Service specially delegated for this work. The duties of a Settlement Officer are thus described in Strachey's *India* (revised edition 1911):—"He has to determine the amount of the Government demand and to make a record of all existing rights and responsibilities in the land. He has a staff of experienced subordinates, almost all of whom are natives of the country, and the settlement of the district assigned to him is a work which formerly required several years of constant work. The establishment of agricultural departments and other reforms have however led to much simplification of the Settlement Officer's Proceedings, and to much greater rapidity in the completion of the Settlements. All the work of the Settlement Officer is liable to the supervision of superior officers, the assessments proposed by him require the sanction of the Government before they become finally

binding, and his judicial decisions may be reviewed by the Civil Courts. It is the duty of the settlement officer to make a record of every right which may form the subject of future dispute whether affecting the interests of the State or of the people. The intention is to alter nothing, but to maintain and place on record that which exists."

The Two Tenures

Under the Temporary Settlement land tenures fall into two classes—tenant holdings and landlord holdings, or *Ryotwari* and *Zamindari* tenures. Broadly speaking the difference between the two in a fiscal sense is that in *Ryotwari* tracts the *ryot* or cultivator pays the revenue direct. In *Zamindari* tracts the landlord pays on a rental assessment. In the case of the former, however, there are two kinds of *Ryotwari* holdings—those in which each individual occupant holds directly from Government, and those in which the land is held by village communities the heads of the village being responsible for the payment of revenue on the whole village area. This latter system prevails in the North in Madras, Bombay, Burma and Assam. *Ryotwari* tenure is on an individual basis and the Government enters into a separate agreement with every single occupant. The basis of assessment on all classes of holdings is now more favourable to the cultivator than it used to be. Formerly what was believed to be a fair average sum was levied on the anticipated yield of the land during the rising period of settlement. Now the actual yield at the time of assessment alone is considered so that the cultivator gets the whole of the benefit of improvements in his holding subsequently brought about either by his own enterprise or by unearned increment. The Government however may at a new settlement re-classify a holding so as to secure for itself a fair share in an increment that may have resulted from public works in the vicinity, such as canals and railways, or from a general enhancement of values. But the principle that improvements effected by private enterprise shall be exempt from assessment is now accepted by the Government and provided for in definite rules.

Incidence of the Revenue

The incidence of the revenue charges varies according to the nature of the settlement, the class of tenure and the character and circumstances of the holding. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal Government derive rather less than £3,000,000 from a total rental estimated at £12,000,000. Under Temporary Settlements, 60 per cent of the rental in the case of *Zamindari* land may be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost falls as low as 35 and even 25 per cent and only rarely is the proportion of one-half the rental exceeded. In regard to *Ryotwari* tracts it is impossible to give any figure that would be generally representative of the Government's share. But one-fifth of the gross produce is the extreme limit, below which the incidence of the revenue charge

varies greatly. About sixteen years ago the Government of India were invited in an influential signed memorial to fix one fifth of the gross produce as the maximum Government demand. In reply to this memorial and other representations the Government of India (Lord Curzon being Viceroy) issued a Resolution in defence of their Land Revenue Policy. In it was stated that under the existing practice the Government is already taking much less in revenue than it is now invited to exact, and the average rate is everywhere on the down grade. This Resolution, together with the statements of Provincial Governments on which it was based, was published as a volume; it is still the authoritative exposition of the principles controlling the Land Revenue Policy of the Government of India. In a series of propositions claimed to be established by this Resolution the following points are noted—(1) In *Zemindari* lands progressive moderation is the key note of the Government's policy, and the standard of 50 per cent. of the assets is more often departed from on the side of deficiency than excess. (2) In the same areas the State does not hesitate to interfere by legislation to protect the interests of the tenants against oppression at the hands of the landlords. (3) In *Kyotwar* tracts the policy of long term settlements is being extended and the proceedings in connection with new settlements simplified and cheapened. (4) local taxation (of land) as a whole is neither immoderate nor burdensome. (5) over-assessment is not as alleged, a general or widespread source of poverty and it cannot fairly be regarded as a contributory cause of famine. At the same time the Government laid down as principles for future guidance—(a) large enhancements of revenue, when they occur, to be imposed progressively and gradually, and not *per saltum*. (b) greater elasticity in revenue collection, suspensions and remissions being allowed according to seasonal variations and the circumstances of the people. (c) a more general resort to reduction of assessments in cases of local deterioration.

Protection of the Tenants.

In regard to the second of the five propositions noted above, various Acts have been passed from time to time to protect the interests of tenants against landlords and also to give greater security to the latter in possession of their holdings. The Oudh Tenancy Act of 1886 placed important checks on enhancement of rent and eviction and in 1900 an Act was passed enabling a landowner to entail the whole or a portion of his estate, and to place it beyond the danger of alienation by his heirs. The Punjab Land Alienation Act, passed at the instance of Lord Curzon embodied the principle that it is the duty of a Government which derives such considerable proportion of its revenue from the land to

interfere in the interests of the cultivating classes. This Act greatly restricted the credit of the cultivator by prohibiting the alienation of his land in payment of debt. It had the effect of arresting the process by which the Punjab peasantry were becoming the economic serfs of money lenders. A good deal of legislation affecting land tenure has been passed from time to time in other provinces and it has been called for more than once in Bengal where under the Permanent Settlement (in the words of the Resolution quoted above), 'so far from being generously treated by the *Zemindars* the Bengal cultivator was rack rented impoverished, and oppressed'.

Government and Cultivator

While the Government thus interferes between landlord and tenant in the interests of the latter its own attitude towards the cultivator is one of generosity. Mention has already been made of the great advantage to the agricultural classes generally of the elaborate systems of Land Survey and Records of rights carried out and maintained by Government. In the Administration Report of Bombay for 1911-12 it is stated—'The Survey Department has cost the State from first to last many lakhs of rupees. But the outlay has been repaid over and over again. The extensions of cultivation which have occurred (by allowing cultivators to abandon unprofitable lands) have thus been profitable to the State no less than to the individual whereas under a *Zemindari* or kindred system the State would have gained nothing however much cultivation had extended throughout the whole of 30 years lease'. On the other hand the system is of advantage to the *ryots* in reducing settlement operations to a minimum of time and procedure. In the collection of revenue the Government consistently pursues a generous policy. In times of distress, suspensions and remissions are freely granted after proper inquiry.

Land revenues is now a provincial head of revenue and is not shown in the All India accounts. It may be taken roughly at £28 million as compared with £84 million said to have been raised annually by Aurangzeb from a much smaller Empire.

The literature on the subject is considerable. The following should be consulted by readers who require fuller information—Land Revenue Policy of the Indian Government, 1902 (Superintendent of Government Printing); Baden Powell's Land Systems of British India; Sir John Strachey's India, its Administration and Progress, 1911; (Macmillan & Co.) M. Joseph Chailley's Administrative Problems of British India (Macmillan & Co 1910) and the Annual Administration Reports of the respective Provincial Governments.

EXCISE

The Excise revenue in British India is derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp drugs, toddy and opium. It is a commonplace amongst certain sections of temperance reformers to represent the traffic in intoxicating liquors as one result of British rule. There is, however, abundant evidence to show that in pre-British days the drinking of spirituous liquors was commonly practised and was a source of revenue.

The forms of intoxicating liquor chiefly consumed are country spirit, fermented palm juice, beer made from grain, country brands of rum, brandy, etc., locally manufactured malt beer and imported wine, beer and spirits. Country spirits is the main source of revenue except in the Madras Presidency and yields about two-thirds of the total receipts from liquors. It is usually prepared by distillation from the Mhowa flower molasses and other forms of unrefined sugar fermented palm juice and rice. In Madras a very large revenue is derived from fresh toddy. The British inherited from the Native Administration either an uncontrolled Out-Still System or in some cases a crude Farming System and the first steps to bring these systems under control were the limitation of the number of shops in the area farmed and the establishment of an improved Out-Still System under which the combined right of manufacture and sale at a special shop was annually granted. This of course was a kind of control but it only enabled Government to impose haphazard taxation on the liquor traffic as a whole by means of vend fees. It did not enable Government to graduate the taxation accurately on the still head duty principle nor to insist upon a standard of purity or a fixed strength of liquor. Moreover for political and other reasons the extent of control could not at first be complete. There were tribes of aborigines who regarded the privilege of making their own liquor in their private homes as a long established right and who believed that liquor poured as libations to their god should be such as had been made by their own hands. The introduction of any system against those people had to be worked very cautiously. Gradually as the Administration began to be consolidated the numerous native pot-stills scattered all over the country under the crude arrangements then in force began to be collected into Central Government enclosures called Distilleries thus enabling Government to perfect its control by narrowing the limits of supervision and to regularize its taxation by imposing a direct still head duty on every gallon brewed from the Distillery. Under Distillery arrangements it has also been possible to regulate and supervise thoroughly the manufacture of its liquor and its disposal subsequent to leaving the Distillery by means of a system of transport passes, establishment supervision improved distribution and vend arrangements.

Various Systems

The Out-Still System may be taken to include all systems prior in order of development to the imposition of Still head duty. Briefly

stated the stages of development have been—first farms of large tracts, second farms of smaller areas, third farms of the combined right to manufacture and sell at particular places without any exclusive privileges over a definite area, fourth farms of similar right subject to control of means and times for distilling and the like. The Provincial Governments have had to deal with the subject in different ways suited to local conditions and so the order of development from the lower forms of systems to the higher has not been always everywhere identical in details. Yet in its essence and main features the Excise Administration in most provinces of British India has progressed on uniform lines the key note being in attempts where it has not been possible to work with the fixed duty system in its simplest forms to combine the farming and fixed duty systems with the object of securing that every gallon of spirit should bear a certain amount of taxation. The Out-Still System has in its turn been superseded by either the Free supply system or the District Monopoly system. The Free supply system is one of free competition among the licensed distillers in respect of manufacture. The right of vend is separately disposed of. The District monopoly system on the other hand is one in which the combined monopoly of manufacture and sale in a district is leased to a farmer subject to a certain amount of minimum still head duty revenue in the monopoly area being guaranteed to the State during the term of the lease.

The recommendations of the Indian Excise Committee of 1907-08 resulted in numerous reforms in British India one of them being that the various systems have been or are gradually being superseded by the contract Distillery system under which the manufacture of spirit for supply to a district is disposed of by tender the rate of still head duty and the supply price to be charged are fixed in the contract and the right of vend is separately disposed of. This is the system that now prevails over the greater portion of British India. The other significant reforms have been the revision of the Provincial Excise Laws and Regulations and the conditions of manufacture, vend, storage and transport an improvement in the quality of the spirit an improved system of disposal of vend licences, reductions and re-distributions of shops under the guidance and control of local Advisory Committees and gradual enhancement of taxation with a view to checking consumption.

Since the issue of the report of the Excise Committee 1907-08, no less than 213,000 square miles of territory were transferred from the out-still to the distillery system. In 1905-06 39 per cent of the total excise area and 28 per cent of the population of that area were served by out-stills the proportions in 1912-13 were only 15 and 8 per cent respectively.

Excise has now been made over entirely to the Provincial Governments and the duties vary from province to province. The governing principle in fixing these rates is the highest duty compatible with the prevention of illicit distillation. In the Bombay Presidency the issue of spirit to all country spirit shops has been rationed on the basis of consumption for the year 1920-21. From that consumption reduced to proof gallons 10 per cent. is deducted in the case of shops in Bombay City and 5 per cent. elsewhere and the ration is then fixed for each shop according to the issues in the corresponding month of 1920-21. This is the most important step taken by the new Government to reduce consumption. Two large distilleries in the Presidency have been placed entirely under Government management thus partially superseding the Contract Distilling system.

Sap of the date, palmyra, and coconut palms called toddy is used as a drink either fresh or after fermentation. In Madras and Bombay the revenue is obtained from a fixed fee on every tree from which it is intended to draw the liquor and from shop license fees. In Bengal and Burma the sale of shop licenses is the sole form of taxation. Country brands of rum, and so-called brandies and whiskeys, are distilled from grape juice, etc. The manufacture is carried out in private distilleries in various parts of India. A number of breweries has been established, mostly in the hills, for the manufacture of a light beer for European and Eurasian consumption. The uniform fee of 5 annas per gallon is levied all over India at the time of issue.

Foreign liquor is subject to an import duty at the tariff rates, which are set out in the Customs Tariff (q v). It can only be sold under a license.

Since the war Brandy and Whisky have been manufactured in considerable quantities at Baroda.

The base used is the Mhowra flower. It is drunk in big towns as a substitute for German spirit, and is excised at tariff rates.

Drugs—The narcotic products of the hemp plant consumed in India fall under three main categories namely ganja or the dry flowering tops of the cultivated female hemp plant charas, or the resinous matter which forms an

active drug when collected separately and blang, or the dried leaves of the hemp plant whether male or female cultivated or uncultivated. The main features of the existing system are restricted cultivation under supervision, storage in Bonded Warehouses, payment of a quantitative duty before issue, retail sale under licenses and restriction on private possession. Licenses to retail all forms of hemp drugs are usually sold by auction. The sale of charas has been prohibited in the Bombay Presidency except Sindh from the 1st April 1923.

Opium—Opium is consumed in all provinces in India. The drug is commonly taken in the form of pills, but in some places, chiefly on social and ceremonial occasions, it is drunk dissolved in water. Opium smoking also prevails in the City of Bombay and other large towns. The general practice is to sell opium from the Government Treasury or a Central Warehouse, to licensed vendors. The right of retail to the public is sold by annual auction to one or several sanctioned shops. Further legislation against opium smoking in clubs and dens is now under contemplation.

The revenue from opium is derived mainly from exports of what is called provision opium to foreign countries and from the sale to Provincial Governments of excise opium for internal consumption in India. The entire quantity is now exported under the system of direct sales to Foreign and Colonial governments, the system of auction sales in Calcutta to traders for export to foreign countries having been stopped with effect from 7th April 1926. In no case are exports permitted without an import certificate by the Government of the country of import as prescribed by the League of Nations.

It has been decided to reduce the total of the opium exported since the calendar year 1926 by 10 per cent. annually in each subsequent year until exports are totally extinguished at the end of 1935.

Excise opium is sold to Provincial Governments for internal consumption in India at a fixed price based on the cost of production. This opium is retailed to licensed vendors at rates fixed by the Provincial Governments and varying from Province to Province.

SALT

The salt revenue was inherited by the British Government from Native rule together with a miscellaneous transit dues. These transit dues were abolished and the salt duty consolidated and raised. There are four great sources of supply, rock salt from the Salt Range and Kohat Mines in the Punjab, brine salt from the Sambhar Lake in Rajputana, salt brine condensed on the borders of the lesser Rann of Cutch and sea salt factories in Bombay, Madras and at the mouth of the Indus.

The Salt Range mines contains an inexhaustible supply. They are worked in chambers excavated in salt strata, some of which are 250 feet long, 15 feet wide and 200 feet high. The Rajputana supply chiefly comes from the Sambhar Lake where brine is extracted and evaporated by solar heat. In the Rann of Cutch the brine is also evaporated by solar heat and the product is known as Barasra salt. Important works for the manufacture of that salt were opened in Dhrangadhra State in 1923. In Bombay and Madras sea water is let into shallow pans on the sea-coast and evaporated by solar heat and the product sold throughout India. In Bengal the damp climate together with the large volume of fresh water from the Ganges and the Brahmaputra into

the Bay of Bengal render the manufacture of sea salt difficult and the bulk of the supply both for Bengal and Burma, is imported from Liverpool, Germany, Aden, Bombay and Madras.

Broadly one half of the indigenous salt is manufactured by Government Agency, and the remainder under license and excise systems in the Punjab and Rajputana the salt manufacturing factories are under the control of the Northern India Salt Department a branch of the Commerce and Industry Department. In Madras and Bombay the manufacturing are under the supervision of Local Governments. Special treaties with Native States permit of the free movement of salt throughout India, except from the Portuguese territories of Goa and Daman on the frontiers of which patrol lines are established to prevent the smuggling of salt into British India.

From 1888-1903 the duty on salt was Rs. 2-8 per hundred of 82 lbs. In 1903 it was reduced to Rs. 2 in 1905 to Rs. 1-8-0, in 1907 to Rs. 1 and in 1916 it was raised to Rs. 1-4-0. The successive reductions in duty have led to a largely increased consumption the figures rising by 25 per cent between 1903-1908. In 1923 the duty was doubled bringing it again to Rs. 2-8. In 1924 it was reduced to Rs. 1-4-0. The estimated salt revenue in 1929-30 is Rs. 674,64,000.

CUSTOMS

The import duties have varied from time to time according to the financial condition of the country. Before the Mutiny they were five per cent, in the days of financial stringency which followed they were raised to 10 and in some cases 20 per cent. In 1875 they were reduced to five per cent but the opinions of Free Traders, and the agitation of Lancashire manufacturers who felt the competition of the Indian Mills induced a movement which led to the abolition of all customs dues in 1882. The continued fall in exchange compelled the Government of India to look for fresh sources of revenue and in 1894 five per cent duties were reimposed, yarns and cotton fabrics being excluded. Continued financial stringency brought place goods within the scope of the tariff and after various expedients the demands of Lancashire were satisfied by a general duty of 5½ per cent on all woven goods—an import duty on goods by sea, an excise duty on goods produced in the country. The products of the hand looms are excluded. These excise duties are intensely unpopular in India, for reasons set out in the special article dealing with the subject. In 1910-11 in order to meet the deficit threatened by the loss of the revenue on opium exported to China, the silver duty was raised from 5 per cent to 4d an ounce, and higher duties levied on petroleum, tobacco, wines, spirits, and beer. These were estimated to produce £1 million annually.

The Customs Schedule was completely revised in the Budget of 1916-17 in order to provide additional revenue to meet the financial distress caused set up by the war. The general import tariff which had been at the rate of 5 per cent *ad valorem* since was raised to 7½ per cent

ad valorem, except in the case of sugar, as India is the largest producer of sugar in the world the import duty on this staple was fixed at 10 per cent. There was also a material curtailment of the free list. The principal article of trade which was not touched was cotton manufactures. For the past twenty years the position has been that cotton twists and yarns of all kinds are free of duty while a duty at the rate of 3½ per cent is imposed on woven goods of all kinds whether imported or manufactured in Indian mills. The Budget left the position as it stood. The Government of India would have been glad to see the tariff raised to 5 per cent, without any corresponding alteration of the excise but were over ruled by the Cabinet on the ground that this controversial matter must come up for discussion after the war. Finally the Budget imposed export duties on tea and jute. In the case of tea the duty was fixed at Rs. 1-8-0 per 100 lbs. In the case of jute the export duty on raw jute was fixed at Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs., approximately equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. Manufactured jute was charged at the rate of Rs. 10 per ton on sacking and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessian.

The Customs Tariff was further materially modified in the Budget for 1917-18. In the previous year an export duty on jute was imposed at the rate of Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs. In the case of raw jute and Rs. 10 per ton on sackings and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessian these rates were doubled with a view to obtaining an additional revenue of 2,00,000. The import duty on cotton goods was raised from 5½ per cent to 7½ per cent without any alteration in the excise which remained at 3½ per cent. This change was

expected to produce an additional revenue of Rs 21,000,000. The question of the Excise was left untouched for the reason, amongst others, that the Government could not possibly forego the revenue of Rs 220,000 which it was expected to produce. With these changes in operation the revenue from Customs in 1920-21 was Rs 32,37,29,000.

The Customs Tariff was further raised in the Budget of 1921-22 in order to provide for the big deficit which had then to be faced. The general *ad valorem* duty was raised from 7½ to 11 per cent. A special duty was levied on matches of 12 annas per gross boxes in place of the existing *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent. The duties on imported liquors were raised to 5 annas per degree of proof per gallon, the *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent was raised to 20 per cent in the case of certain articles of luxury. The import duty on foreign sugar was increased from 10 to 15 per cent and the duty on manufactured tobacco was raised by 50 per cent. The Customs duties were further increased in the Budget of 1923-24. The Government proposals in this direction have been described in an early passage. They were to raise the general Customs duty from 11 to 15 per cent, the cotton excise duty from 3½ per cent to 7½ per cent, the duty on sugar from 15 to 26 per cent, a duty of 5 per cent on imported yarn, a rising duty on machinery, iron steel and railway material from 2½ per cent to 10 per cent together with the general duty on articles of

luxury from 20 per cent to 30 per cent. In the course of the passage of the Budget through the Legislature the cotton excise duty was retained at 5½ per cent, the duty on machinery was retained at 2½ per cent, and the duty on cotton piece-goods at 11 per cent. The other increases being accepted. In 1925 the Cotton Excise duties were finally abolished. Full details with regard to the customs duty are set out in the section on Indian Customs Tariff (q. 9). The estimated revenue from the customs in 1929-30 is Rs 51,21,77,000.

The Senior Collectors were Covenanted Civilians specially chosen for this duty before the introduction of the Imperial Customs Service in 1935. Since that date of the five Collectorship at the principal ports (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon and Karachi) there are ordinarily recruited 10 Members of the I.C.S. (4 Covenanted Civilians). The other two are reserved for members of the Imperial Customs Service.

Assistant Collectors in the Imperial Customs Service are recruited in two ways: (a) from members of the Indian Civil Service—3 vacancies, and (b) by the Secretary of State—10 vacancies. There are in addition a few gazetted Officers in what is known as the Provincial Customs Service. These posts are in the gift of the Government of India and are usually filled by promotion from the subordinate (in the Government sense of the word) service. The subordinate staff is recruited entirely in India.

INCOME TAX.

The income tax was first imposed in India in 1860, in order to meet the financial dislocation caused by the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent or a little more than 6d. in the pound on all incomes of five hundred rupees and upwards. Many changes have from time to time been made in the system and the present schedule was consolidated in the Act of 1936. This imposed a tax on all incomes derived from sources other than agriculture which were exempted. On incomes of 2,000 rupees and upwards it fell at the rate of five pias in the rupee, or about 6d. in the pound, on incomes between 500 and

2,000 rupees at the rate of four pias in the rupee or about 5d. in the pound. In March 1903 the minimum taxable income was raised from 500 to 1,000 rupees. The income tax schedule was completely revised, raised, and graduated in the Budget of 1916-17 in the general scale of increased taxation imposed to meet the deficit arising out of war conditions.

Since then the process has been almost continuous and in every financial difficulty the authorities turn to the Income Tax as a means of raising fresh revenue. The last revision was in the Budget of 1931-32 when the scale was fixed as follows—

(RATES OF INCOME TAX)

Rs.		Rate	
2,000 to Rs.	10,000	6 pias in the rupee	
5,000 to	10,000	9	" "
10,000 to	1,00,000	12	" "
15,000 to	1,00,000	15 to 18	" "
20,000 to	30,000	18 to 19	" "
30,000 to	40,000	21 to 22	" "
40,000 to	1,00,000	25	" "
1,00,000 and above		26	" "

RATES OF SUPER-TAX

In respect of the excess over thirty thousand rupees of total income.—Rate

- (1) In the case of every company One anna in the rupee
- (2) (a) In the case of every Hindu undivided family—
- (i) In respect of the first twenty five thousand rupees of the excess Nil
- (ii) for every rupee of the next twenty five thousand rupees of such excess One anna in the rupee
- (b) In the case of every individual and every unregistered firm, for every rupee of the first fifty thousand rupees of such excess One anna in the rupee
- (c) In the case of every individual, every unregistered firm and every Hindu undivided family—
- (i) for every rupee of the second fifty thousand rupees of such excess One and a half annas in the rupee
- (ii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Two annas in the rupee
- (iii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Two and a half annas in the rupee
- (iv) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Three annas in the rupee
- (v) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Three and a half annas in the rupee
- (vi) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Four annas in the rupee
- (vii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Four and a half annas in the rupee
- (viii) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Five annas in the rupee
- (ix) for every rupee of the next fifty thousand rupees of such excess Five and a half annas in the rupee
- (x) for every rupee of the remainder of the excess Six annas in the rupee

The head of the Income-Tax Department of a province is the Commissioner of Income tax who is appointed by the Governor General in Council. The rest of the income tax staff in a province are subordinate to him and they are appointed and dismissed by him. His power of appointment and dismissal is under section 5 (4) 'subject to the control of the Governor General in Council,' but the Governor General in Council exercises this control through the local Government.

The estimated yield of Income-tax in 1929-30 was Rs. 10 69 00 000

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE

The Indian mints were closed to the un restricted coinage of silver for the public from the 20th June 1893 and Act VIII of 1893 passed on that date, repealed Sections 19 to 26 of the Indian Coinage Act of 1873, which provided for the coinage at the mints for the public of gold and silver coins of the Government of India. After 1893 no Government rupees were coined until 1897, when, under arrangements made with the Native States of Bhopal and Kashmir, the currency of those States was replaced by Government rupees. The re-coinage of these rupees proceeded through the two years 1897 and 1898. In 1899 there was no coinage of rupees, but in the following year it seemed that coinage was necessary, and it was begun in February 1900, the Government purchasing the silver required, and paying for it mainly with the gold accumulated in the Paper Currency

Reserve. In that and the following month a crore of rupees was coined and over 17 crores of rupees in the year ending the 31st March 1910 including the rupees issued in connection with the conversion of the currencies of Native States. From the profit accruing to Government on the coinage it was decided to constitute a separate fund called the Gold Reserve Fund as the most effective guarantee against temporary fluctuations of exchange. The whole profit was invested in sterling securities the interest from which was added to the fund. In 1906 exchange had been practically stable for eight years and it was decided that of the coinage profits devoted to this fund six crores should be kept in rupees in India, instead of being invested in gold securities. The Gold Reserve Fund was then named the Gold Standard Reserve. It was ordered in 1907 that only

one half of the coinage profits should be paid into the reserve, the remainder being used for capital expenditure on railways. The Gold Standard Reserve was called into action before the year 1907-08 was out. Exchange turned against India, and in March 1908 the Government of India offered bills on the Secretary of State up to half a million sterling, while the Secretary of State sold £1,000,000 Consols in order to meet such demands. During April to August further sterling bills were sold for a total amount of £8,958,000. On a representation by the Government of India, the Secretary of State agreed to defer the application of coinage profits to railway construction until the sterling assets of the Gold Standard Reserve amounted to £25,000,000. On the outbreak of the war in August 1914 the Reserve was drawn upon to meet the demands for sterling remittances and Government offer to sell £1,000,000 of Bills weekly.

Gold

Since 1870 there had been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs before 1918 in which year coinage was resumed, was in the year 1891-92.

A Royal proclamation was issued in 1918 establishing a branch of the Royal Mint at Bombay. It stated—Subject to the provision of this proclamation the Bombay Branch Mint shall for the purpose of the coinage of gold coins be deemed to be part of the Mint, and accordingly, (a) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint shall comply with all directions he may receive from the Master of the Mint whether as regards the expenditure to be incurred or the returns to be made or the transmission of specimen coins to England or other wise and (b) the said specimen coins shall be subject to the trial of the pyx under section 12 of the Coinage Act 1870, so that they shall be examined separately from the coins coined in England or at any other branch of the Mint, and (c) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint and other officers and persons employed for the purpose of carrying on the business of the Branch Mint may be appointed, promoted, suspended and removed and their duties assigned and salaries awarded and in accordance with the provisions of section 15 of the Coinage Act 1870. Pending the completion of the arrangements at the Branch, Royal Mint, power was taken by legislation to coin in India gold mohurs of the same weight and fineness as the sovereign. Altogether 2,109,708 pieces of these new coins of the nominal value of Rs 3,16,45,545, were struck at the Bombay Mint. The actual coinage of sovereigns began in August, 1918 and 1,295,372 sovereigns were coined during the year. This branch of the Royal Mint was closed in April, 1919, owing to difficulties in supplying the necessary staff.

The Indian Currency Act of 1927 established a new ratio of the rupee to gold. It established this ratio at one shilling and sixpence by enacting that Government would purchase gold at a price of twenty-one rupees three annas ten pice per tola of fine gold in the form of bars containing not less than forty tolas and would sell gold or at the option of Government sterling for immediate delivery in London at the same price after allowing for the normal cost of transport from Bombay to London. A rate of one shilling and fivepence forty-nine

sixty-fourths was notified as Government's selling rate for sterling to meet these obligations.

With the receipt of large consignments of gold, the Bombay Mint made special arrangements for the refining of gold by the chlorure process and at the end of the year 1919-20 the Refinery Department was capable of refining a daily amount of 8,000 ounces of raw gold. The Refinery turned out 18,624 488 fine toles of refined gold in 1920-21.

Silver

The weight and fineness of the silver coins are—

	FINE SILVER grains	ALLOY grains	TOTAL grains
—			

Rupce	185	15	180
Half rupce	82½	7½	90
Quarter rupce or 4-anna piece	41½	3½	45
Eighth of a rupce or 2-anna piece	20½	1½	22½

One rupce = 185 grains of fine silver
One shilling = 80½ grains of fine silver
One rupce = shillings 2 6430

Copper and Bronze

Copper coinage was introduced into the Bengal Presidency by Act XVII of 1855 and into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XXI of 1844.

The weight of the copper coins struck under Act XXI of 1870 remained the same as it was in 1845. It was as follows—

	Grains troy
Double pice or half anna	200
Pice or quarter anna	100
Half pice or one-eighth of an anna	50
Pice being one-third of a pice or one-twelfth of an anna	33½

The weight and dimensions of bronze coins are as follows—

	Standard weight in grains troy	Diameter in millimetres
Pice	75	20.4
Half pice	37½	21.15
Pice	25	17.45

Nickel

The Act of 1906 also provides for the coinage of a nickel coin. It was directed that the nickel one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined at the Mint and issue. The notification also prescribed the design of the coin, which has a wavy edge with twelve scallops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 31 millimetres and its least diameter 19.8 millimetres. The desirability of issuing a half-anna nickel coin was considered by the Government of India in 1909 but after consultation with Local Governments it was decided not to take action in this direction until the people had become thoroughly familiar with the present one-anna coin. The two-anna nickel coin was introduced in 1917-18, and the four-anna and eight-anna nickel coins in 1919. The eight-anna nickel is now being withdrawn from circulation.

The Currency System.

The working of the Indian currency system which has commanded a large amount of public attention since 1893, was forced to the front in 1920, as the result of measures taken to stabilise the exchange value of the rupee after the fluctuations caused by the war. These assumed so

much importance, and they continue to bulk so largely in all Indian economic questions that we propose to give here a short summary of the Indian currency system in non-technical language.

I. THE SILVER STANDARD

Prior to 1893 the Indian currency system was a mono-metallic system, with silver as the standard of value and a circulation of silver rupees and notes based thereon. But with the opening of new and very productive silver mines in the United States of America the supply of silver exceeded the demand and it steadily rose in value. The result was that the gold value of the rupee which was nominally two shillings fell continuously until it reached the neighbourhood of a shilling. These disturbances were prejudicial to trade but they were still more prejudicial to the finances of the Government. The Government of India has to meet every year in London a substantial sum in the form of payment of interest on the debt the salaries of officials on leave the pensions of retired officials, as well as large payments for stores required for State enterprises. As the rupee fell in its gold value the number of rupees required to satisfy these payments rose. The total reached a pitch which seriously alarmed the Government, which felt that it might be called upon to raise a sum in rupees which would necessitate a considerable increase in taxation which should be avoided if possible. It was therefore decided to take measures to raise and fix the gold value of the rupee for the purposes of exchange.

Closing the Mints.—The whole question was examined by a strong committee under the presidency of Lord Herschell, whose report is commonly called the Herschell Report. It was decided in 1893 to close the mints to the unrestricted coinage of silver. This step was intended to a gradual divergence between the exchange value of the rupee and the gold value of its silver content. Government refused to add rupees to the circulation. Rupees remained unlimited legal tender and formed the standard of value for all internal transactions. Since Government refused and no one else had the power to coin rupees as soon as circumstances led to an increased demand for rupees, the exchange value of the rupee began to rise. By 1898 it had approached the figure of one shilling and fourpence. Meantime, in response to the undertaking of Government to give notes or rupees for gold at the rate of fifteen rupees to the pound sterling, gold began to accumulate in the Paper Currency Reserve. These purposes having been attained a second committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir Henry Fowler to consider what further steps should be adopted in the light of these conditions. The report of the Fowler Committee as it was called marked the second stage in Indian currency policy.

II THE NEW STANDARD.

The Fowler Committee rejected the proposal to re-open the Mints to the free coinage of silver. They proposed that the exchange value of the rupee should be fixed at one shilling and four pence or fifteen rupees to the sovereign. They further suggested that the British sovereign should be made a legal tender and a current coin in India. That the Indian mints should be thrown open to the unrestricted coinage of gold, so that the rupee and the sovereign should freely circulate side by side in India. The goal which the Committee had in view was a gold standard supported by a gold currency. Now under the condition which compelled the Government of India to give either rupees or rupee notes for gold tendered in India at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign it was impossible for the rate of exchange to rise above one shilling and four pence, save by the fraction which covered the cost of shipping gold to India. But if the balance of trade turned against India it was still possible for the rate of exchange to fall. To meet this the Fowler Committee recommended that the profits on coining rupees should not be absorbed in the general revenues, but should be set aside in a special reserve, to be called the Gold Standard Reserve. Inasmuch as the cost of coining rupees was approximately eleven pence halfpenny, and they were sold to the public at

one and fourpence, the profits were considerable. They were to have been kept in gold so as to be freely available when required for the support of exchange.

A 16 Pence Rupee.—The Government of India professed to accept all the recommendations of the Fowler Committee actually only a portion of them was put in practice. The official rate of exchange was fixed at one and four pence. The sovereign and the half sovereign were declared unlimited legal tender in India. But after a first attempt, when sovereigns soon came back to the treasuries, no effort was made to support the gold standard by an active gold currency. The gold mint was not set up. The Gold Standard Reserve was established, but instead of holding the Reserve in gold, it was invested in British securities. These practices gave rise to conditions which were never contemplated by the Fowler Committee. Reference has been made to the Home Charges of the Government of India which at the time amounted to about seventeen millions sterling a year. These are met by the sale of what are called Council Bills. That is to say the Secretary of State, acting on behalf of the Government of India, sold Bills against gold deposited in the Bank of England in London. These Bills when presented

in India were cashed at the Government Treasuries. Now if the Secretary of State sold Council Bills only to meet his actual requirements, it follows that the balance of trade in favour of India over and above this figure would be liquidated, as it is in other countries, by the importation of bullion or by the creation of credits. It is a fact that owing to the failure of the policy of encouraging an active gold circulation to support the gold standard, gold tended to accumulate in India in embarrassing quantities. In 1904 therefore the Secretary of State declared his intention of selling Council Bills on India without limit at the price of one shilling fourpence one-eighth—that is to say gold import point. The effect of this policy was to limit the import of gold to India, for it was generally more convenient to deposit the gold in London and to obtain Council Bills against it than to ship the gold to India. Nevertheless as the Egyptian cotton crop was very largely financed in sovereigns it was sometimes cheaper and more convenient to ship sovereigns from Egypt or even from Australia than to buy Council Bills. Considerable quantities of sovereigns found their way into India and circulated freely particularly in the Bombay Presidency, the Punjab and parts of the Central Provinces.

Sterling Remittance—This system worked until 1907-08. A partial failure of the rains in India in 1907 and the general financial stringency all over the world which followed the American financial crisis in the autumn caused the Indian exchange to become weak in November. This was one of the occasions contemplated in a different form by the Fowler Committee when it proposed the formation of the Gold Standard Reserve. There had been very heavy coinings of rupees in India and the amount in the Reserve was ample. But the Reserve was in securities not in gold, and was therefore not in a

liquid form, nor was the time an opportune one for the realisation of securities. Moreover the authorities did not realise that a reserve for use in times of emergency. It had been assumed that in times of weakness it would be sufficient for the Secretary of State to stop selling Council Bills, and it would then up, meantime he would finance himself by drawing on the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. But it was apparent that the stoppage of the sales of Councils was not enough, there was an insistent demand for the export of gold, or the equivalent of gold. The Government of India refused and exchange fell to one and threepence twenty three thirty seconds. Ultimately the authorities had to give way. It was decided to sell in India a certain quantity of sterling bills on London at one and threepence twenty nine thirty seconds, representing gold export point and the equivalent of the export of gold. These were met in London from the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. Bills to the extent of between eight and nine millions sterling were sold, which regularised the position and the Indian export trade recovered. Thus were gradually evolved the main principles of the Indian currency system. It consisted of silver rupees and rupee notes in India, with the sovereign and half sovereign unlimited legal tender at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign or one and fourpence. The rate of exchange was prevented from rising above gold import point by the unlimited sale of Council Bills at gold point in London. It was prevented from falling below gold point by the sale of Sterling Bills (commonly called Reverse Councils) at gold export point in India. But it was not the system proposed by the Fowler Committee, for there was no gold mint and only a limited gold circulation, some people invented for it the novel term of the gold exchange standard, a term unknown to the law of India. It was described by one of the most active workers in it as a limping standard.

III THE CHAMBERLAIN COMMITTEE

This brings us to the year 1913. There were many critics of the system. Some hankered for a return to the open mint, others objected to the practice of unlimited sales of Council Bills as forcing rupees into circulation in excess of the requirements of the country. But the general advantages of a fixed exchange were so great as to smother the voices of the critics and the trade and commerce of the country adjusted itself to the one and fourpenny rupee. But there gradually grew up a formidable body of criticism directed against the administrative measures taken by the India Office. These criticisms were chiefly directed at the investment of the Gold Standard Reserve in securities instead of keeping it in gold in India, at a raid on that reserve in order temporarily to relieve the Government of the difficulty of financing its railway expenditure, at the transfer of a solid block of the Paper Currency Reserve from India to London, at the holding of a portion of the Gold Standard Reserve in silver in order to facilitate the coinage of rupees, and at the unlimited sale of Council Bills at rates which prevented the free flow of gold to India, thus forcing token rupees into circulation in quantities in excess of the require-

ments of the country. The cumulative effect of this policy was to transfer from India to London an immense block of India's resources, aggregating over seventy millions, where they were lent out at low rates of interest to the London bankers, whilst India was starved of money until at one point money was not available for loans even against Government securities and the bank rate was artificially high. All these things were done. It was contended, on the other side of a small Finance Committee of the India Office, from which all Indian influence was excluded, and on which London banking influence was supreme. The India Office for long ignored this criticism, until it was summarised in a series of articles in *The Times* and public opinion was focussed on the discussion through the action of the India Office in purchasing a big block of silver for coining purposes from Messrs. Montagu & Co. instead of through their recognised and accredited agents, the Bank of England. The Government could no longer afford to stand aloof and yet another Currency Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. Austen Chamberlain. This is known as the Chamberlain Committee.

New Measures—The conclusions of this Commission were that it was unnecessary to support the Gold Standard by a gold currency, that it was not to the advantage of India to encourage the internal use of gold as currency, that the internal currency should be supported by a thoroughly adequate reserve of gold and sterling, that no limit should be fixed to the amount of the Gold Standard Reserve one half of which should be held in gold that the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve should be abolished, that Reserve Councils should be sold on demand, that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic, and that there should be two Indian representatives out of three on the Finance Committee of the India Office. The Com-

mittee dealt inconclusively with the accumulation of excessive balances in London, the general tenor of their recommendations being not gaily but do not do it again. They gave a passing commendation to the idea of a State Bank. Sir James Beggie the only Indian banker on the Committee, appended a vigorous minute of dissent in which he urged that the true line of advance was to discourage the extension of the token currency by providing further facilities for the distribution of gold when in excess to the currency became necessary, including the issue of an Indian gold coin of a more convenient denomination than the sovereign or the half sovereign.

IV CURRENCY AND THE WAR

The report was in the hands of the Government of India shortly before the outbreak of the war. Some immediate steps were taken like the abolition of the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, but before the Government could deal entirely with the temporary recommendations of the Commission the war broke out. The early effects of the war were precisely those anticipated. There was a demand for sterling remittance which was met by the sale of Reserve Councils, £8 707 000 being sold up to the end of January 1915. There were withdrawals from the Post Office Savings Bank, and a net sum of Rs 8 crores was taken away. There was some lack of confidence in the Note issue and a demand for gold. Notes to the extent of Rs 10 crores were presented for encashment and the Government were obliged to suspend the issue of gold. But these were transient features and did not demand a moratorium, confidence was soon revived and Exchange and the Note issue continued strong. The difficulties which afterwards arose were from causes completely unanticipated by all students of the Indian currency. They arose from an immense balance of trade in favour of India, caused by the demand for Indian produce for the United Kingdom and the Allies and the decline in the export trade from these countries, a heavy expenditure in India on behalf of the British Government, and a phenomenal rise in the price of silver. If we take the three years 1914-17 to 1918-19 the balance of trade in favour of India was \$6 millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennium. The disbursements in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were by December 1919 £240,000,000. This balance of trade and expenditure for Imperial purposes could not be financed either by the import of the precious metals owing to the universal embargo on the movement of gold and silver nor by credits in India. It could be financed only by the expansion of the Note issue, against sterling securities in the United Kingdom chiefly Treasury Bills, and the issue of coined

rupees. But simultaneously there was a reduction in the output of the silver mines of the world coinciding with an increased demand for the metal. The price of silver in 1911 was 27½ pence per standard ounce. In May 1919 it was 38 pence on the 17th December of that year it was 78 pence. The main difficulties in India were not therefore the provision of the rupee from falling below the ratio of 1 to one but to keep it within any limits and to provide a sufficiency to meet the demand.

Rise in Exchange—The measures adopted by the Government of India in these emergencies were to bring exchange under rigid control confining remittance to the finance of articles of national importance. The next step was to raise the rate for the sale of Council Bills so that silver might be purchased at a price which would allow rupees to be coined without loss. The following table shows how rates were raised from one shilling fourpence to two shillings fourpence.—

Date of Introduction	Minimum Rate for Immediate Telegraphic Transfer
3rd January 1917	1 4½
28th August 1917	1 5
12th April 1918	1 6
13th May 1919	1 8
12th August 1919	1 10
15th September 1919	2 0
22nd November 1919	2 2
12th December 1919	2 4

V. THE 1919 COMMITTEE.

The effect of these measures however was to fetter the currency policy pursued from 1893 to 1915, the main object of which was to stabilize the rupee at one and fourpence. The war having over a Committee was appointed to advise in regard to the future of Indian exchange and

currency. It sat in 1919 and reported towards the end of the year. Its main recommendations are summarized below—

(1) It is desirable to restore stability to the rupee and to re-establish the automatic working of the Indian currency system.

(14) The reduction of the fineness or weight of the rupee, the issue of 2 or 3 rupee coins of lower proportional silver content than the present rupee, or the issue of a nickel rupee are expedients that cannot be recommended.

(15) The maintenance of the convertibility of the note issue is essential, and proposals that do not adequately protect the Indian paper currency from the risk of becoming inconvertible cannot be entertained.

(16) The rise in exchange, in so far as it has checked and mitigated the rise in Indian prices, has been to the advantage of the country as a whole, and it is desirable to secure the continuance of this benefit.

(17) Indian trade is not likely to suffer any permanent injury from the fixing of exchange at a high level.

If, contrary to expectation, a great and rapid fall in world prices were to take place, and if the costs of production in India fail to adjust themselves with equal rapidity to the lower level of prices, then it might be necessary to consider the problem afresh.

(18) The development of Indian industry would not be seriously hampered by a high rate of exchange.

(19) The gain to India of a high rate of exchange for meeting the Home charges is an incidental advantage that must be taken into consideration.

(20) To postpone fixing a stable rate of exchange would be open to serious criticism and entail prolongation of Government control.

(21) The balance of advantage is decidedly on the side of fixing the exchange value of the rupee in terms of gold rather than in terms of sterling.

(22) The stable relation to be established between the rupee and gold should be at the rate of Rs 10 to one sovereign, or, in other words at the rate of one rupee for 11 30 016 grains of fine gold, both for foreign exchange and for internal circulation.

(23) If silver rises for more than a brief period above the parity of Rs (gold), the situation should be met by all other available means rather than by impairing the convertibility of the note issue. Such measures might be (a) reduction of sale of Council Bills, (b) abstention from purchase of silver, (c) use of gold to meet demands for metallic currency. If it should be absolutely necessary to purchase silver, the Government should be prepared to purchase even at a price such that rupees would be coined at a loss.

(24) Council Drafts are primarily sold not for the convenience of trade but to provide for the Home charges in the wider sense of the term. There is no obligation to sell drafts to meet all trade demands, but, if without inconvenience or with advantage the Secretary of State is in a position to sell drafts in excess of his immediate needs, when a trade demand for them exists, there is no objection to his doing so, subject to due regard being paid to the principles governing the location of the reserves.

Council Drafts should be sold as now by open tender at competitive rates, a minimum rate being fixed from time to time on the basis of the sterling cost of shipping gold to India. At present this rate will vary but when sterling is again equivalent to gold, it will remain uniform.

The Government of India should be authorized to announce, without previous reference to the Secretary of State on each occasion, their readiness to sell weekly a stated amount of Reserve Councils (including telegraphic transfers) during periods of exchange weakness at a price based on the cost of shipping gold from India to the United Kingdom.

(25) The import and export of gold to and from India should be free from Government control.

(26) The statutory minimum for the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve should be 40 per cent of the gross circulation.

As regards the fiduciary portion of the reserve the holding of securities issued by the Government of India should be limited to 20 crores. The balance should be held in securities of other Governments comprised within the British Empire, and of the amount so held not more than 10 crores should have more than one year's maturity and all should be redeemable at a fixed date. The balance of the invested portion above these 30 crores should be held in short-dated securities with not more than one year's maturity issued by Government within the British Empire.

The sterling investments and gold in the Paper Currency Reserve should be revalued at Rs to the rupee. The depreciation which will result from this revaluation, cannot be made good at once, but any savings resulting from the rise in exchange will afford a suitable means of discharging this liability in a limited number of years.

(27) With a view to meeting the seasonal demand for additional currency, provision should be made for the issue of notes up to five crores over and above the normal fiduciary issue as loans to the Presidency Banks on the security of export bills of exchange.

Minority Report.—The main object of the Committee it will be seen, was to secure a stable rate of exchange without impairing the convertibility of the Note issue and without debasing the standard silver rupee in India or substituting another coin of inferior metallic content, which would be debasement in another form. In order to attain these ends it was imperative to fix a ratio for the rupee in relation to gold which would ensure that the Government was able to purchase silver for coinage purposes without more than temporary loss. For reasons given in the report they fixed this point at two shillings gold, all other recommendations are subsidiary thereto. But in this they were not unanimous: an important member of the Committee, Mr. Dadiba Dalal, of Bombay, appended a minority report in which he urged the adoption of the following course:—

(a) The money standard in India should remain unaltered, that is, the standard of the sovereign and gold mohur with rupees related thereto at the ratio of 15 to 1.

(b) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of gold bullion and gold coins.

(c) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of silver bullion and silver coins.

(d) The existing silver rupees of 165 grains of fine silver at present in circulation to continue full legal tender.

(e) As long as the price of silver in New York is over 92 cents, Government should not manufacture silver rupees containing 165 grains fine silver

(f) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender

(g) Government to sell Council Bills by competitive tenders for the amount defined in the Budget as required to be remitted to the Secretary of State

The Budget estimate to show under separate headings the amount of Council Bills drawn for Home Charges, for Capital Outlay and Discharge of Debt. Council Bills to be sold for Government requirements only and not for trade purposes, except for the purpose mentioned in the next succeeding recommendation

(A) Reverse drafts on London to be sold only at 1s 32d-32d. The proceeds of Reverse drafts to be kept apart from all other Government funds and not to be utilised for any purpose except to meet drafts drawn by the Secretary of State at a rate not below 1s 4d 32d per rupee

VL. THE TWO SHILLING RUPEE

The fundamental recommendation of the Committee was that the rupee should be linked to gold and not to sterling, in view of the decline in the value of sterling, that it should be linked at the rate of two shillings instead of the standard value, one and fourpence. All other recommendations were ancillary to this. But it is very important to bear in mind the twofold problem which confronted the Committee. It would be quite easy to fix any low ratio provided the paper currency were made inconvertible, or the rupee debased to such a point that the Government in providing rupee currency were independent of the price of silver. But if the convertibility of the rupee were to be maintained, and if the rupee were not to be debased, it was essential that the new ratio should be one at which the Government could reasonably rely on purchasing without loss the silver necessary to meet the heavy demands for rupees in India. For reasons set out in the Report, the Committee came to the conclusion that the Government could reckon on purchasing silver for coining at a little under two shillings gold, and that powerfully influenced them in fixing the new ratio at two shillings gold.

The Report Adopted.—The Currency Committee's Report was signed in December 1919, but it was not until February 1920 that action was taken thereon. In the first week of that month a Notification was issued in India accepting the principal recommendations in the Report and notifying that the necessary official action would be taken thereon. This action covered a wide field, but for the sake of clarity in this narrative we shall concentrate on the main issue the changing of the official monetary standard from fifteen rupees to the sovereign to ten rupees to the sovereign and its effect on Indian currency and trade. That may be summarised in a sentence. A policy which was avowedly adopted to secure fixity of exchange produced the greatest fluctuations in the exchanges of any solvent country and widespread disturbance of trade, heavy losses to Government, and brought hundreds of big traders to the verge of bankruptcy.

Financial Confusion.—This result was produced by many causes. It has been explained above that the essential features of the Indian currency system are the two sales of Council Bills at gold export point in London to prevent exchange from rising above the official standard and the sale of Reverse Councils in India at gold export point to prevent exchange from falling below the official standard. Now when the

Currency Report was signed the Indian exchange was practically at two shillings gold. But between the signing of the Report and the taking of official action, there was a sensational fall in the sterling exchange, as measured in dollars, the dollar-sterling rate inasmuch as America was the only free gold market being the dominating factor in the situation. Consequently the Indian exchange was considerably below the two shillings gold rate when the Notification accepting the Currency Committee's Report was issued. The Indian exchange was two shillings and fourpence, and weak at that, the gold rate was about two shillings ninepence. There was an immediate and prodigious demand for Reverse Councils to take advantage of this high rate of exchange; the market rate jumped up to two shillings eightpence.

Effect of the Rise.—The effect of a rise in exchange has been well described in the words of the Currency Committee's Report, it is that a rising exchange stimulates imports and impedes exports, the effect of a falling exchange is the reverse.

Now when the official notification of the two shilling rupee was made the Indian export trade was weak. The great consuming markets of Great Britain and America were glutted with Indian produce. The continent of Europe, which was starved of Indian produce and in urgent need of it, had not the wherewithal to pay for it nor the means of commanding credit. The only Indian staples which were in demand were foodstuffs, and as the rains of 1920 failed over a wide area, the Government were not able to lift the embargo on the export for foodstuffs, save to a limited extent in the case of wheat. On the other hand, the import trade was strong. Orders had been placed for machinery and other manufactured goods during the war and after the Armistice for delivery at the discretion of manufacturers. These began to come forward.

Difficulties Accentuated.—In accordance with the principles laid down by the Currency Committee these difficulties were accentuated by the action of Government in raising exchange by an administrative act. The weak export trade was almost killed. At the same time the temptation of a high exchange gave powerful stimulus to the import trade and orders were placed for immense quantities of manufactured goods, in which textiles filled a prominent place. Afterwards other forces intervened which accentuated the difficulties of the situation. There was a severe commercial crisis in Japan and this

checked the export of Indian cotton. Japan is the largest buyer of Indian cotton and when her merchants not only stopped buying but began to re-sell in the Indian markets, the trade was severely shaken and stocks accumulated at a great rate. Even before the 1920 crop came into the market the stocks in Bombay were double those in the corresponding period of the previous year. The expectations of a revival in the buying power of the Continent which were held in many quarters were disappointed and throughout the year there was a heavy balance of trade against India, which made the stabilisation of exchange at the high ratio attempted a hopeless proposition.

Confession of Failure.—Government stringed long against these conditions in the desperate hope that a revival of the export trade would come to their assistance, but they were further handicapped by the variations of the sterling dollar exchange which at one time took the rate for Reverse Councils to two shillings tenpence half penny. They sold two millions of Reverse Councils a week then five millions then dropped down to a steady million. But their policy only aggravated the situation. In addition to arresting the export trade and stimulating the import trade at a time when the precise converse was demanded, their action created an artificial movement for the transfer of capital from India to England. Large war profits accumulated in India since 1914 were hurriedly liquidated and transferred to England. Then the difference between the Reverse Council rate and the market rate which on some occasions was several pence induced gigantic speculations. The Exchange Banks set aside all their available resources for the purpose of bidding for Bills, and at once sold their allotments at substantial profits. Considerable groups of speculators pooled their resources and followed the same course. In this way the weekly biddings for the million of Reverse Councils varied from a hundred and 20 millions to a hundred and thirty millions and the money market was completely disorganised. The biddings assumed such proportions that it was necessary to put up fifty lakhs of rupees to obtain the smallest allotment made, five thousand pounds, and Reverse Councils and the large profits thereon came under the entire control of the Banks and the wealthy speculators. Various expedients were tried to remedy the situation but without the slightest effect.

Sterling for Gold.—The first definite break from the recommendations of the Currency Committee came at the end of June, when the Government announced that instead of trying to stabilise the rupee at two shillings gold they would aim at stabilising it at two shillings sterling, leaving the gap between sterling and gold to be closed when the dollar-sterling rate became par. The effect of this was to alter the rate at which Reverse Councils were sold from the fluctuating rate involved in the fluctuations of dollar-sterling exchange to a fixed sterling rate, namely, one shilling elevenpence nineteen-thirty seconds. But this had little practical effect. The biddings for Reverse Councils continued on a very big scale, and the market rate for exchange was always two pence or three pence below the Reverse Council rate. This practice continued until the end of September, when it was officially declared

that Reverse Councils would be stopped altogether. Exchange immediately slumped to between one and sixpence and one and sevenpence, and it continued to range between these narrow points until the end of the year. The market made its own rate, it made a more stable rate than the efforts of Government to attain an administrative stability.

Other Measures.—Apart from the effort to stabilise exchange, which had such unfortunate results, the policy of Government had certain other effects. During the year all restrictions on the movement of the precious metals were removed, in accordance with the recommendations of the Currency Committee. This included the abandonment of the import duty on silver, always a sore point with Indian bullionists. Legislative action was taken to alter the official ratio of the sovereign from fifteen to one to ten to one, due notice of this intention was given to holders of sovereigns and of the gold mohurs which were coined as an emergency measure in 1919, and they were given the option of tendering them at fifteen rupees. As the gold value of these coins was above fifteen rupees only a limited number was tendered although there was extensive smuggling of sovereigns into India to take advantage of the premium. Then measures were adopted to give greater elasticity to the Note issue. Under the old law the invested proportion of the Note issue was fixed by statute and it could be altered only by altering the law or by Ordinance. An Act was passed fixing the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve at fifty per cent of the Note issue, the invested portion being limited to Rs. 20 crores in Indian securities and the balance in British securities of not more than twelve months currency. The invested portion of the Paper Currency Reserve was revalued at the new rate of exchange, and an undertaking was given that the profits on the Note issue would be devoted to writing off the depreciation, as also would be the interest on the Gold Standard Reserve when the total had reached £40 millions. Further, in order to give greater elasticity to the Note issue power was taken to issue Rs. 5 crores of emergency currency in the busy season against commercial bills. These measures, save the alteration of the ratio, were generally approved by the commercial public.

Results.—It remains to sum up the results of these measures. In a pregnant sentence in their report the Currency Committee say that whilst a fixed rate of exchange exercises little influence on the course of trade a rising exchange impedes exports and stimulates imports, a falling exchange exercises a reverse influence. Here we have the key to the failure of the currency policy attempted. At the moment when it was sought suddenly and violently to raise the rate of exchange by the introduction of the new ratio of two shillings gold, the export trade was weak and the import trade in obedience to the delivery of long deferred orders was strong. The very principle enunciated by the Currency Committee wrecked the policy which they recommended. The rising rate of exchange scotched the weak export trade and gave a great stimulus to imports. Unexpected forces, such as the financial crisis in Japan, the lack of buying power on the Continent, and the movement for the transfer of capital from India to England at the

artificially high rate of exchange stimulated these forces, but they had their origin in the attempt by administrative action artificially and violently to raise the rate of exchange. If left alone, the natural fall in exchange would have tended to correct the adverse balance of trade, the official policy exaggerated and intensified it. The efforts on Indian business were severe. Exporters found themselves loaded with produce for which there was no foreign demand. Importers found themselves loaded up with imported goods, bought in the expectation of the continuance of a high rate of exchange, delivered when it had fallen one and fourpence from the highest point reached. Immense losses were incurred by all importers. The Government sold £55 millions of Reserve Councils before abandoning

their effort to stabilise exchange at the new ratio the loss on these—that is the difference between the cost of putting the funds down in London and in bringing them back to India—was Rs. 35 crores of rupees. Government sold £55 millions of gold without breaking or seriously affecting the premium on gold. The Secretary of State in the absence of any demand for Council Bills, was able to finance his expenditure in England only through the lucky chance of heavy expenditure on behalf of the Imperial Government for the forces in Mesopotamia—this expenditure being made in India and not off by payments in London. The only advantages were a considerable contraction of the Note issue and the silver token currency.

VII COMMISSION OF 1925-26

These unfortunate experiments induced a period of great caution in dealing with Indian currency. The currency quickly having had their way, and proved their ignorance, went out of the field, and the wholesome policy of leaving Exchange alone to find its natural level followed. Left alone Exchange established itself round about the old ratio of fifteen to one that is one shilling and fourpence to the rupee. Meantime great improvements were made in the organisation of Indian credit. The three Presidency Banks were merged in the Imperial Bank of India a State Bank in all but name and the Bank entered into a contract with Government to open a hundred new branches in the first five years of its existence. The Bank mobilised and strengthened and widened Indian credit. The metallic backing of the Paper Currency was strengthened and the fiduciary portion of the Reserve brought within negligible proportions. Greater elasticity was established in the currency by the power to issue emergency currency up to Rs. 12 crores against commercial paper endorsed by the Imperial Bank when there is a tightness of money and the practice of also issuing emergency currency against sterling in England. The Government of India now purchases sterling in India to meet its Home Charges when the conditions are favourable. Instead of relying entirely on the sales of Council Bills in London. A notable feature in Exchange history was the rise of Exchange, of its own strength above the one and fourpenny figure. Towards the close of 1924 it gradually rose to one shilling and sixpence and stayed there.

At this figure Exchange was maintained by Government, though the state of trade might have led to a higher figure. But as the wholly artificial ratio of the two shilling rupee remained on the statute book the demand for an authoritative inquiry to fix the ratio of the rupee to gold or sterling was insistent, and a Committee was appointed in the autumn of 1925. Of this Commander Hilton Young was chairman with Sir Henry Saksosch as the chief gold expert. The personnel of the Committee was strongly criticised in India on the ground that the Indian membership was inadequate, and that the individuals selected were not authoritative, a resolution was passed in the

Assembly hostile to the whole body. Nevertheless the Committee arrived in India in November 1925 and took evidence in Delhi Bombay and Calcutta. It sailed for England in February 1926, and resumed its hearings in London and reported on July 1st, 1926.

The main recommendations of this Commission are summarised in the actual report in the following terms and they are textually reproduced in order that they may be above question—

(i) The ordinary medium of circulation should remain the currency note and the silver rupee and the stability of the currency in terms of gold should be secured by making the currency directly convertible into gold but gold should not circulate as money.

(ii) The necessity of unity of policy in the control of currency and credit for the achievement of monetary stability involves the establishment of a Central Banking system.

(iii) The Central Banking functions should be entrusted to a new organisation referred to as the Reserve Bank.

(iv) Detailed recommendations are made as to the constitution and functions and capacities of the Bank.

(v) The outlines of a proposed charter are recommended to give effect to the recommendations which concern the Reserve Bank.

(vi) Subject to the payment of limited dividends and the building up of suitable reserve funds the balance of the profits of the Reserve Bank should be paid over to the Government.

(vii) The Bank should be given the sole right of note issue for a period of (say) 2½ years. Not later than five years from the date of the charter becoming operative Government notes should cease to be legal tender except at Government Treasuries.

(viii) The notes of the Bank should be full legal tender and should be guaranteed by Government. The form and material of the note should be subject to the approval of the Governor General in Council. A suggestion is made as to the form of the note.

(w) An obligation should be imposed by statute on the Bank to buy and sell gold without limit at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required

(x) The conditions which are to govern the sale of gold by the Bank should be so framed as to free it in normal circumstances from the task of supplying gold for non monetary purposes. The method by which this may be secured is suggested.

(xi) The legal tender quality of the sovereign and the half-sovereign should be removed

(xii) Government should offer "on tap" savings certificates redeemable in 3 or 5 years in legal tender money or gold at the option of the holder

(xiii) The paper currency should cease to be convertible by law into silver coin. It should however, be the duty of the Bank to maintain the free interchangeability of the different forms of legal tender currency and of the Government to supply coin to the Bank on demand

(xiv) One-rupee notes should be reintroduced and should be full legal tender

(xv) Notes other than the one rupee note should be legally convertible into legal tender money, i.e. into notes of smaller denomination or silver rupees at the option of the currency authority

(xvi) No change should be made in the legal tender character of the silver rupee.

(xvii) The Paper Currency and Gold Standard Reserves should be amalgamated and the proportions and composition of the combined Reserve should be fixed by statute

(xviii) The proportional reserve system should be adopted. Gold and gold securities should form not less than 40 per cent of the Reserve subject to a possible temporary reduction with the consent of Government on payment of a tax. The currency authority should strive to work to a reserve ratio of 50 to 60 per cent. The gold holding should be raised to 20 per cent of the Reserve as soon as possible and to 25 per cent within ten years. During this period no favourable opportunity of fortifying the gold holding in the Reserve should be allowed to escape. Of the gold holding at least one half should be held in India.

(xix) The silver holding in the Reserve should be very substantially reduced during a transitional period of ten years

(xx) The balance of the Reserve should be held in self liquidating trade bills and Government of India securities. The "created" securities should be replaced by marketable securities within ten years.

(xxi) A figure of Rs. 50 crores has been fixed as the liability in respect of the contractibility of the rupee circulation. Recommendations are made to secure that an amount equal to one-fifth of the face value of any increase or decrease in the number of silver rupees in

issue shall be added to or subtracted from this liability and the balance of profit or loss shall accrue to or be borne by the Government revenues

(xxii) The Issue Department of the Reserve Bank should be kept wholly distinct from its Banking Department

(xxiii) The Reserve Bank should be entrusted with all the remittance operations of the Government. The Secretary of State should furnish in advance periodical information as to his requirements. The Bank should be left free, at its discretion, to employ such method or methods of remittance as it may find conducive to smooth working

(xxiv) During the transition period the Government should publish a weekly return of remittances made. A trial should be made of the system of purchase by public tender in India.

(xxv) The cash balances of the Government (including any balances of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State outside India) as well as the banking reserves in India of all banks operating in India should be centralised in the hands of the Reserve Bank. Section 23 of the Government of India Act should be amended accordingly

(xxvi) The transfer of Reserve assets should take place not later than 1st January 1929 and the Bank's obligation to buy and sell gold should come into operation not later than 1st January 1931

(xxvii) During the transition period the currency authority (i.e., the Government until the transfer of Reserve assets and the Bank thereafter) should be under an obligation to buy gold and to sell gold or gold exchange at its option at the gold points of the exchange. This obligation should be embodied in statutory form of which the outline is suggested

(xxviii) Stabilisation of the rupee should be effected forthwith at a rate corresponding to an exchange rate of 1s. 8d.

(xxix) The stamp duty on bills of exchange and cheques should be abolished. Bill forms in the English language and the vernacular in parallel, should be on sale at post offices

(xxx) Measures should be taken to promote the development of banking in India

(xxxi) Every effort should be made to remedy the deficiencies in the existing body of statistical data.

A Minute of Dissent—Whilst all the members of the Commission signed the report, one of their number Sir Purshottamdas Thakurdas, did so subject to a minute of dissent. In the first part of this Minute Sir Purshottamdas subjected the long correspondence between the Government of India and the India Office on currency policy to a detailed analysis. The conclusions to which he came were that throughout the Government of India had striven for a system following the Fowler Report—a gold standard based on a gold currency and that their efforts were enunciated by successive Secretaries of State who had in view something which was often called the Gold

Exchange Standard, but which was in effect no standard at all. On the question of the Gold Standard, he stressed the importance of the free movement of gold in India, but subject to this condition accepted the Gold Bullion Standard recommended by his colleagues. As for the proposed Reserve Bank, Sir Purshotamdas, whilst recognising that the scheme proposed might be the ideal, to be attained in process of time, thought that the best immediate course was to develop the Imperial Bank into a central bank for India. The chief point of difference with his colleagues was however the ratio

Dealing with the ratio of the rupee to gold Sir Purshotamdas said that in September 1924 the rate was approximately one and fourpence gold. At that time the Government was pressed to stabilise at the then ratio and thus legally to restore the long current legal standard of money payments. This it declined to do, and by limiting the supply of currency the ratio was raised to one and sixpence gold by April 1925. He declined therefore to attach any importance to a ratio reached by such measures. Proceeding to analyse the course of prices and wages he combated the conclusion of his colleagues that prices had adjusted themselves in a preponderant degree to one shilling and sixpence. For these reasons he recommended that the rupee should be stabilised at the rate which was current for nearly twenty years namely one and fourpence. His conclusions were summarised in the following terms —

‘ I look upon the question of the ratio in this Report as being no less important than the question of the standard to be adopted for the Indian Currency System. I am convinced that if the absolute necessity of the free inflow of gold which I have emphasised, is recognised and steps taken to ensure it, the gold bullion standard proposed will be the correct one and the likelihood of its breaking down under the strain of any convulsions in the future will be as remote as it can reasonably be. But I have very grave apprehensions that if the recommendation of my colleagues to stabilise the rupee at 1s 6d is accepted and acted upon India will be faced during the next few years with a disturbance in her economic organisation, the magnitude of which is difficult to estimate but the consequences of which may not only hamper her economic development but may even prove disastrous. Such a disturbance and its consequences my colleagues do not foresee to day. But the possibility of their occurring cannot be ignored. Until adjustment is complete, agriculture threatens to become unattractive and less remunerative than it is to day, and industries will have to undergo a painful process of adjustment, unnatural, unwarranted and avoidable—an adjustment which will be ruin to their cost, and affect not only their stability and their progress but in certain cases, their very existence. And should Nature have in store for India a couple of lean years after the four good harvests that we have had during the period of forced adjustment to a rate of 1s 6d, the steps that the Currency Authority will have to take to maintain exchange at this rate may deplete

the gold resources of the country to an extent that may seriously shake the confidence of the people in the currency system recommended.’

A Survey.—The official summary of the Report, and the summary of the minutes of dissent, given above do not however convey an idea of the far-reaching proposals embodied therein. These can be appreciated only if they are examined in close relation to the currency system of India in its various phases since 1899. This was done in an article contributed to *The Bankers' Magazine* by Sir Stanley Reed which was recognised to be a fair presentation of the position. The main features thereof are reproduced below. There is here some re-treading of the path laid out in the introductory section, but this is unavoidable if the full bearing of the measures proposed by the Commission are to be appreciated. After describing the standard in force Sir Stanley Reed asked

‘ What was the standard thus established? It is generally described in London as the Gold Exchange Standard. That status was never claimed for it by its principal protagonist, the late Sir Lionel Abraham, who described it as a limping standard. The Royal Commission declares that ‘ it is truth in so far as it amounted to a definite standard at all. It was a standard of sterling exchange.’ Later they show that the automatic working of the exchange standard is thus not adequately provided for in India, and never has been. The fundamental basis of such a standard is provision for the expansion and contraction of the volume of currency. Under the Indian system contraction is not, and never has been automatic.

‘ However the standard limped along until the third year of the war. The exchange value of the rupee was stable, prices adjusted themselves to the ratio. Indian trade and industry developed. From the narrow standpoint of profit and loss the investment of the reserves instead of keeping them in gold, resulted in a considerable gain to the finances estimated in 1925 at \$17,962,486. But it had three great disadvantages. It did not inspire public confidence. It placed the Indian currency at the mercy of the silver market which was on occasion deliberately cornered against it, and it left the control of currency by the Government divorced from the control of credit by the Presidency Banks afterwards amalgamated in the Imperial Bank of India. On this the Commission make a very suggestive comment when allowance has been made for all misunderstandings and misapprehensions the fact remains that a large measure of distrust in the present system is justified by its imperfections.

There is, I think, an inadequate appreciation of the influences on the Indian currency and exchange of the war, and the action taken thereafter. The first break in the permanent ratio of one shilling and four pence did not occur until 1917, when the full effect of dependence on the silver market was revealed. Faced by the unprecedented rise in the price of silver the Government of India had either to raise the price of Council Drafts or else abandon the

convertibility of the Note Issue. Wisely, it took the former alternative, the price of Council Drafts followed the price of silver. The effect of this would have been transitory, but for the attempt in 1920, on the advice of the Barington Smith Committee to stabilise the rupee at a new ratio of two shillings gold when all gold prices were crashing. It is easy to be wise after the event but if the Government had followed silver down as it followed silver up, there is no room to doubt that the rupee would have returned to its 'permanent ratio' with no more disturbance than was inevitable under war conditions. However, this was not done. The vain effort to stabilise the new ratio was abandoned in September 1920, and the two shilling rupee has since been a legal fiction. Left free from administrative action the rupee fell below one shilling and threepence sterling and one shilling gold in 1921. Since under the influence of good harvests, it has climbed upwards and has been in the neighbourhood of one shilling and sixpence gold for the past twelve months. But it is not always realised in London that under these vicissitudes the Indian standard has legally perished. In the words of the report, 'The stability of the gold value of the rupee is thus based upon nothing more substantial than a policy of the Government, and at present that policy can be found defined in no notification or undertaking by the Government. It has to be implied from the acts of the Government in relation to the currency and those acts are subject to no statutory regulation or control.'

The responsibility reinitiated to the Commission was not therefore the mere stabilisation of the rupee but the establishment of a standard which would command reasoned confidence in India to link the rupee to that standard, and to provide for its statutory control automatically working and stability to bring the control of currency and of credit under a single authority and to free the Indian currency and exchange system from the dominance of the silver market. In short, it was to establish the rule of law in place of the practice of administrative discretion.

Scheme for Gold Currency—In the course of their inquiries in India the Commission had placed before them a scheme for the immediate establishment of a gold bullion standard, and its early conversion into the gold standard supported by the gold currency which a large body of Indian opinion has insistently demanded. The scheme was presented by the officials of the Finance Department but it is known to be the work of the Finance Member, Sir Basil Blackett whose work in India is of the greatest value.

The essential features of this Scheme were the undertaking of a statutory obligation by Government to buy and sell gold bullion in 400 oz bars, as soon as sufficient gold was available to put a gold coin in circulation after a period tentatively fixed at five years to undertake to give gold coin in exchange for notes and rupees, and after a further period, also tentatively fixed at five years, make the silver rupee legal tender only for sums up to a small fixed amount. The scheme involved the

disposal of 200 crores of silver rupees, or 867 million fine ounces in ten years, the acquisition in all of £103 millions of gold, and the establishment of credits in London or New York. The cost was estimated at one and two-thirds crores of rupees per annum during the first five years and thereafter from two-thirds of a crore to 1.12 crore.

This scheme is subjected by the Commission to a detailed examination, and rejected on grounds which are convincing. The main grounds for this decision are that the estimates of the amount and time of the gold demand are uncertain, and the absorption by India of this £103 millions of gold, in addition to the normal absorption for the arts, hoards, etc., would powerfully react on the supplies of credit, the rates of interest, and gold prices throughout the world. The reaction on the silver market from the dethronement of the rupee and realisation of this large quantity of silver bullion would be even more marked, with severely prejudicial effects on the silver hoards of the people of India and the exchanges with China, where India still does a large business. Moreover, the capacity to raise the required credits is doubtful and the cost is placed by the India Office at Rs 3 crores a year.

The evidence of the highest financial authorities in London and New York established beyond doubt that it is not in the interests of India to precipitate any currency reform that would violently disturb the gold and silver markets, however desirable that reform might be in itself. Also that whilst London working in close harmony with New York, would strain every nerve to supply India with the funds she might require for her own development, it could hardly be expected to provide credits for a scheme which would upset the gold and silver markets. But whilst on these grounds the Commission were not able to endorse Sir Basil Blackett's scheme, there is no doubt that they were profoundly influenced by it in their own recommendations. The ultimate evolution of a policy which promises a cure for India's currency ills is therefore in large measure due to the courage and resolution with which the Finance Authorities in that country faced them.

A Gold Bullion Standard—The currency system recommended by the Commission is a gold bullion standard. They propose that an obligation shall be imposed by statute on the currency authority to buy and sell gold without limit at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee, but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces, no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required. The essence of this proposal is "that the ordinary medium of circulation in India should remain as at present the currency note and the silver rupee, and that the stability of the currency in terms of gold should be secured by making the currency directly convertible into gold for all purposes, but that gold should not circulate as money. It must not circulate at first, and it need not circulate ever." In breaking adrift from any idea of a sterling exchange or gold exchange standard, the Commission were powerfully influenced by two factors—the necessity for safeguarding the

Indian system from the price of silver rising above the melting point of the rupee and the desirability of establishing confidence by giving the country not only a real, but conspicuously visible link between the currency and gold.

This reasoning is eminently sound, and the scheme in its broad outlines should command the unhesitating support not only of India but of all interested in Indian trade. India will have nothing to do with any exchange standard its experience has been too painful. Proposals to that end would be rejected by the legislature and prolong the currency controversy as it is desired to close. The gold bullion standard satisfies all the country's real needs. True, it will not give it the gold mint and the gold currency which have long been demanded. It involves the demonetisation of the sovereigns to which a sentimental influence attaches. But whilst it does not do these things it keeps the door open. No-one contends that a gold standard and a gold currency are immediately practicable. The most rapid progress thereto is embodied in Sir Basil Blackett's scheme which is full of uncertainties and risks. But when the gold reserves are strengthened to the requisite point the proposals leave India perfectly free to decide, through her legislature, whether a gold currency is worth the expense.

We must, however, face the obligation which a gold bullion standard imposes on the currency authority in India. Indeed the Commission do not attempt to Burke it. The obligation is to convert the currency not merely into foreign exchange but into metallic gold, and it is an obligation that is not as formerly conditional and circumscribed but absolute and unlimited. Nevertheless, it has been undertaken by every other country that has adopted an effective gold standard and we have satisfied ourselves that the present resources in the form of reserves at the disposal of the Government of India are adequate to enable the currency authority safely to undertake the obligation, with the measures of fortification and at the time, which we specify. It is important therefore to examine the reserves and the procedure thereon.

The reserves held for the purpose of maintaining the value of the token currency are twofold—the Paper Currency Reserve and the Gold Standard Reserve. Their constitution on April 30 1926 (the date taken by the Commission) was as follows—

Paper Currency Reserve	
	Rs Crores
Silver coin	77 0
Silver bullion	7 7
Gold coin and bullion	22 8
Rupee securities	57 1
Sterling securities	21 0
	<hr/> 185 1

(The gold coin and bullion and the sterling securities are converted at the legal fiction ratio of two shillings per rupee)

The Gold Standard Reserve amounts at present to £40,000,000 invested in British Treasury Bills and other sterling securities.

In theory the two reserves fulfil entirely different functions. The Paper Currency Reserve is the backing for the Note Issue. The Gold Standard Reserve accumulated from the profits on coining, is designed to maintain the external value of the rupee. In practice their action is closely interlocked and the first line of defence in the event of a demand for remittance from India is the gold in the paper currency reserve. This inviolable line of demarcation will disappear if the Commission's proposals are adopted. The Commission are justified in recommending that the two shall be amalgamated. Their further proposals are that the proportions and composition of the combined Reserve should be fixed by statute, that gold and gold securities should form not less than 40 per cent of the whole, with 50 to 60 per cent, as the ideal and that the holding of gold, which now stands at about 12.8 per cent, should be raised to 20 per cent, as soon as possible and to 25 per cent in ten years. Generally they are of opinion that during this period no favourable opportunity of fortifying the gold holding in the Reserve should be allowed to escape.

The proposal to bring the combined Reserve under statutory control is wise. An arguable case could be made out for the thesis that the currency difficulties of India have arisen in the main from the decision of Lord Curzon's Government not to invest the official acceptance of the Fowler Report with legislative authority. The strengthening of the gold reserves is in entire accord with Indian needs.

The Ratio.—The majority of the Commission Sir Purushotamdas Thakurdas being the only dissentient, recommend that the rupee be stabilised in relation to gold at a rate corresponding to an exchange rate of one shilling and sixpence to the rupee. Round this point controversy in India will be concentrated. It is worth while to refresh our memories of the history of the ratio. The Fowler Committee recommended that the rupee should be permanently stabilised at one shilling and fourpence. The Secretary of State for India accepted their recommendations without qualification. The rupee was substantially steady at this point until August, 1917.

One principle advanced in Sir Dadiba Deol's prophetic minority report in 1912, that the legal standard of money payments should be, and usually is regarded as less open to repeal or modification than any other legislative Act will command general acceptance. But when Sir Dadiba went on to suggest that the Government of India might have avoided this measure by larger borrowings in India and encouraging investment abroad he was on ground where no one in touch with Indian conditions can follow him. In the circumstances of the day the Government had no alternative to raising the rate of exchange save in declaring the rupee inconvertible, which during the war would have been disastrous. I must reiterate the belief that the real mischief was done not when the rate of exchange was raised to meet the rise in silver, but when it was not lowered as silver fell. The attempt to stabilise the rupee

at the two shilling rate caused the Government of India large losses, and inflicted a terrible blow on trade, after it was abandoned in September, 1920, the rupee fell below one shilling and threepence sterling and one shilling gold. Thereafter under the influence of a succession of abundant harvests it recovered. In 1922 it was one shilling and fourpence sterling, in October, 1924 one and sixpence sterling and one and four gold. With the rise in the pound to gold parity, the rupee reached one and sixpence gold in June, 1925, and has remained there.

It is not, I think, open to doubt that if the vain attempt to stabilise the rupee at two shillings had not been made in 1920 or if advantage had been taken of its return to one and four the permanent standard might have been re-established without undue disturbance. Sir Purnohandas Thakordas asserts in his minute of dissent that "the Executive had made up their minds to work up to a one shilling and sixpence ratio long before this Commission was appointed to examine the question. Indeed, they have presented to us the issue in this regard as a *fait accompli*, achieved by them, not having hesitated by manipulation to keep up the rate even while we were in session. I cannot conceive of any parallel to such a procedure in any country."

It is to my mind a great misfortune that the opportunity of restoring the permanent ratio of one and four was not seized when it offered. Not because there is any special sanctity in a ratio as such but because there is a sanctity in the legal standard of money payments. If this had been done the Commission's scheme would have received practically unanimous support in India, as it is a violent controversy will rage round this secondary issue obscuring the great merit of the Commission's basic recommendation—a true gold standard, statutory in its composition and automatic in action, with the consequences of the currency and credit authorities. However, we have to deal with facts as we find them. The majority of the commission base their recommendation on the "conviction, which has been formed and cumulatively reinforced during the progress of our inquiry that at the present exchange rate of about one shilling and sixpence prices in India have already attained a substantial measure of adjustment with those in the world at large, and, as a corollary, that any change in the rate would mean a difficult period of readjustment, involving widespread economic disturbance which it is most desirable in the interests of the people to avoid, and which would in the end be followed by no countervailing advantage." Sir Purnohandas Thakordas in a closely reasoned minute of dissent, supported by a wealth of figures, avers—and to my mind with conclusive force that the adjustments are far from complete, and cannot be completed in regard to wages without disastrous labour disputes. Both sides admit that their conclusions are weakened by the unreliability of the Indian index figures.

The truth, I suggest, lies between these two contentions. There have been very substantial adjustments to one shilling and sixpence no rate could be operative for over a year without

inducing this result. But it is clear that the adjustments especially in regard to wages in Western India, are not complete. In the matter of the indebtedness of the agricultural classes of India—seventy per cent of the whole population there has been no adjustment, not in relation to the land revenue they pay to Government. The ratio therefore cannot be determined as a question of academic principle, but is a matter of expediency.

Here it seems to me, the decisive factor is the economic consequences of a return to one shilling and fourpence. There is no half way house the rate must be either the *de facto* one of one and sixpence or the old permanent ratio of one and fourpence. The change would be immediate not a matter of weeks or months but of hours or minutes. There would be an immediate rise in prices of twelve and a half per cent with a consequent reduction of real wages by that proportion there would be convulsive disturbances of the foreign trade there would be violent speculation. I omit all calculation of the effect of the lower rate on the finances of the Government of India, because this is an influence which has been over valued in the past, it is infinitesimal in comparison with the industrial and commercial interests involved. No one who realises the sensitiveness of the Indian market, and the proneness to speculation can contemplate these violent disturbances without a feeling akin to dismay. The balance of advantage lies with stabilisation at one and six the controversy which must ensue is part of the price to be paid for the neglect to re-establish the permanent ratio when it was practicable.

The Currency Authority—A feature in the Indian currency system little appreciated in Great Britain is the predominance of the Government. The Commission lay special stress on the disabilities this entails. "India is perhaps the only country among the great trading countries of the world, in which the Government exercises direct control over currency in general and over the note issue in particular. The banking and currency reserves of the country are thus separated. The Government controls the currency. The credit situation is controlled as far as it is controlled at all, by the Imperial Bank."

A volume might be written on this subject and on the controversy the prejudice and political bias which it involved. However, there is no useful purpose to be served by raking amongst these ashes though the curious will find much food for thought in the historical retrospect, drawn entirely from official sources, which forms the first part of Sir Purnohandas Thakordas's minute of dissent. The Commission propose to establish harmony between these hitherto diverse interests—though there has been a close working arrangement between the Government and the Imperial Bank of recent years, and the Government has developed the note issue with skill and enterprise—by the establishment of a new Reserve Bank. A detailed scheme for the constitution and working of the Bank, understood to be the handiwork of Sir Henry Strakosck, is embodied in the Report. The Reserve Bank, with a capital of five crores of rupees, is to have the sole right

of the Note Issue the responsibility for maintaining the stability of the currency, the custody of the cash balances of the Government and the duty of carrying through its remittances, it is to act generally as a bank of the banks, and its principal function will be to re-discount bankable bills held by the commercial banks. Subject to the payment of limited dividends and the building up of suitable reserve funds, the balance of the profits is to be paid over to the Government. In return for making over the note issue and the reserves, the Government is to nominate the managing-governor and deputy managing-governor, and three members of the Board—five members from a Board of fourteen. In order to free the Bank from political pressure, the Commission think it desirable to provide that no person shall be appointed President or Vice-President of a Local Board or shall be nominated as a member of the Central Board, if he is a member of any of the legislatures.

The main principle underlying this recommendation is not open to question. It is of paramount importance to remove the Indian currency system from official management and to link the control of currency with the control of credit. This involves the establishment of a Central Bank. But it is not the complete essential far from it.

India is sometimes spoken of as the sink for the precious metals. So long as she chiefly absorbed silver the West looked on with benevolent approval now she is turning to gold the attitude is different. Indian capital is sometimes described as inadequate and timid. But critics do not realise that the banking organisation of the country is so hopelessly inadequate that hundreds of millions of people have no secure refuge for their store of value other than gold and silver bullion in their own possession. The Exchange Bank cling to the seaports. The indigenous banks follow their example. The Imperial Bank is the only organisation which can carry reliable credit facilities into the mofussil. The old Presidency Banks were lamentably slow in exercising this responsibility. The pace has been quickened and as the price of the free use of the Government balances the Imperial Bank was called upon to open a hundred new branches. The total number of its branches is yet only a hundred and sixty four, and it was stated by a competent banking authority in evidence before the Commission that India needed at least five thousand.

This extension of banking facilities is of transcendental importance. In an address to the University of Delhi last year Sir Basil Blackett committed himself to a remarkable statement: "To some it may sound fantastic in view of this historic habit—reliance on external capital—to talk of India's not supplying the whole of her own capital requirements but also becoming a lender of capital for the development of other countries. Yet I believe firmly that, given the necessary development of banking and credit facilities and goodwill and readiness to profit by the counsel and assistance of European businessmen, the time is not very far distant when India will be doing both these things. India would seem by nature to be destined to be a creditor country if only her people will it so."

But Indian resources will not be mobilised without the vehement development of branch banks.

As matters stand this work can only be done by the Imperial Bank, and though it is moving it is with desperate slowness. There are one or two features common to most of the hundred new branches it has opened. They attract deposits they facilitate the investment habit; but they do not pay. To many who are in close touch with Indian conditions it seems that any measure which would weaken the capacity of the Imperial Bank to prosecute this unremunerative but imperatively necessary work by the diversion of the Government balances to the Indian Reserve Bank, or the division of these balances between the two banks, would be a retrograde measure. There are other considerations. The amount of re-discounting to be done in India is not large, as the Exchange Bank, which finances the export trade, re-discounts in London, which is always likely to be the cheaper market. The number of men in India qualified to act on the directorate of banks is small. Are there enough to constitute the reliable directorates for two great banking institutions? The Commission rather glow over these difficulties. They think that the Reserve Bank will be able to spare for the Imperial Bank sufficient funds from the Government balances to enable it to prosecute the work of opening new branches; also that a bill market will rapidly develop. But their arguments wear an aspect of special pleading. However, the issue can be put in a nutshell. India must have a Central Bank. It is found impossible to develop, even as a temporary measure, the Imperial Bank into a Central Bank, then there must be a Reserve Bank on the lines sketched in the Report. But if a new Reserve Bank is established it is essential that provision shall be made for the Imperial Bank to enjoy the free use of a sufficient share of the Government balances to enable it vigorously to develop banking facilities in the mofussil and this obligation should be made compulsory.

The Note Issue.—Before the war there was a considerable and growing circulation of sovereigns. On the outbreak of hostilities these disappeared as currency the actual currency of India is a token, the silver rupee and another token, the note convertible into rupees. Ever since the breakaway from the accepted gold standard this obligation has imposed serious difficulties on the currency. It drove it into the very heavy coining which followed recovery from the famine of 1896/1900. It compelled heavy purchases of silver which invariably rose in prices as the Government came into the market, and it placed the Indian currency system as occurred during the war, at the mercy of the silver market. The maintenance of the convertibility of the note into silver rupees of the present fineness is only possible so long as silver does not rise above 48s. an ounce. The removal of this anomalous provision, the Commission say is an essential step in Indian currency reform which must be taken sooner or later. No opportunity for the termination of this obligatory convertibility is likely to be so favourable at the present when, by making the notes convertible into gold bars for all purposes, a more solid right of convertibility is attached

to them than they have ever had since silver ceased to be a reliable standard of value." Both propositions can be accepted in their entirety.

The rise in the volume of the paper currency is one of the most remarkable features in Indian financial history. It developed from no change in the status of the note itself, it was always convertible on demand, but from increased facilities for the encashment of notes, beginning with the introduction of universal notes of small denomination and steadily progressing as experience was gained. We can therefore endorse the conclusion of the Commission that the best way to foster the use of currency notes is to establish confidence in their practical convertibility, and this confidence has been secured not so much by a legal obligation to encash them at currency offices as by making rupees readily available to the public at centres where there is a demand for them. There has been another factor in popularising the note which commands less attention. The rise in prices made the rupee an unsuitable medium for large commercial transactions, from the bulk and weight of the amount of currency required.

The Commission therefore propose that whilst the legal obligation to convert into rupees all the notes in circulation shall remain, this obligation should not attach to the new notes to be issued by the Central Bank, and coincidentally the one rupee note, which had acquired great popularity before it was discontinued on the ground of economy shall be re-issued. The legal obligation on the Central Bank will be to give legal tender money either notes of smaller denominations or silver rupees at its option, but it will be the duty of the Bank to supply rupees freely in such quantities as may be required for circulation and of the Government to furnish the Bank with such coin. The currency position is such that the change in the legal status of the note will be unfeelt. India is suffering from a surfeit of rupees the total volume of which is estimated at approximately Rs. 400 crores. There are Rs. 85 crores of silver coin and bullion in reserve. The whole tendency will be in the direction of a return of rupees to the reserve rather than to an appetite therefor. Not only will there exist the fullest capacity to supply rupees on demand, but there will be a positive inducement to the currency authority to encourage a demand for rupees in order to get rid of its redundant stock. It is clear that the present opportunity of freeing the currency authority from the dependence on the silver market which has hampered India for so many years is exceptionally favourable, and should be seized without hesitation.

The reception of the Report followed very closely the lines indicated as probable in the article in *The Bankers' Magazine* which we have quoted extensively above. There was a considerable protest strongest in Western India but shared in other parts of the country, against the proposal to stabilise the rupee at one shilling and sixpence and a demand for a reversion to one and fourpence. There was, particularly in Bombay a reluctance to agree to the establishment of the Reserve Bank, coupled with the desire that the Imperial Bank of India should be re-moulded in order to make it the Central

Bank with the functions proposed to be remitted to the Reserve Bank. These voices were so loud that they overbore the consideration of the basic recommendations of the Report, a true gold standard, and the establishment of an organisation which would link currency with credit. In Bombay there was started a Currency League with branches in other parts of India, whose main efforts were directed to the ratio, and to the idea that the legal ratio should be one and four, not one and six.

In August 1925 the Government published the text of a Bill designed to fix the ratio at one and six, and to support it by the sale of bullion on the lines laid down in the Report. At the request of a large body of opinion in the Legislative Assembly, which urged that there had not been time to study the Report and that the papers were not available, the discussion of this measure was postponed until the 1927 session. On November 18th the Government of India issued a notification to the following effect—

'After considering the report of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance the Secretary of State for India in Council in agreement with the Government of India, is prepared to accept as a whole the recommendations of the Commission subject to such further consideration of details as may prove to be necessary. The necessary legislation to give effect to these recommendations will be introduced in the Indian Legislature during the forthcoming session.'

The new Ratio.—So far from closing the discussion, this notification intensified it. Feeling ran high on the subject of the ratio considerable interests in the country being convinced that one shilling and sixpence was a higher rate than the manufacturing and agricultural industries could bear without prolonged and disastrous readjustment. These found strong expression when the Bill to give effect to the new rate was brought before the Legislative Assembly in February March 1927. The Indian Currency Bill was however accepted by the Assembly by a small majority and adopted by the Council of State. It established the ratio of one shilling and sixpence by enacting that the Government would purchase gold at a price of twenty-one rupees three annas ten ples per tola of fine gold in the form of bars containing not less than forty tolas and would sell gold or at the option of Government, sterling for immediate delivery in London at the same price after allowing for the normal cost of transport from Bombay to London. A rate of one shilling fivepence forty-nine sixty-fourths was notified as Government's selling rate for sterling to meet these obligations.

Exchange has since remained stable at the one and sixpenny rate, but the proposal to establish a Reserve Bank for the control of Currency has not matured owing to differences between the Government and the Legislature as to the exact form of the Bank. Meantime the gold resources of the Government of India have been strengthened, as will be seen when we come to consider the Reserve.

The character of the Reserves which are the backbone of the Indian currency system are shown below—

(Composition of the Currency Reserves held against the note circulation at the end of each month (in lakhs of rupees))

MONTH	COIN AND BULLION RESERVE						SECURITIES				
	Gross circulation of notes	Silver coin in India	Gold bullion in India	Silver bullion in India	Gold bullion in England	Silver bullion in England	Gold bullion in His Majesty's Dominions	Silver bullion in transit between India and England and His Majesty's Dominions	sterling securities in England	Rupee securities in India	Internal balance of Rupee in change
1929											
March	1,83 03	94,94	32,23	4,95					10 69	43 23	2 00
April	1,83,86	94,90	32 22	4 18					8 53	43,23	
May	1,84,16	95 40	32,22	4,17					9 14	43,23	
June	1,87,71	97,77	32,23	4 88					9 62	43,22	
July	1 85 72	1,03,82	32,23	4,62					1 37	43 19	
August	1 83,20	1,07,93	32,22	4 58					2 04	40,13	
September	1 86 80	1,08 05	32,22	4,05					2 41	39 17	
October	1 84 83	1,08,93	32,23	4,65					2,71	36 32	
November	1 80 77	1 07 19	32 23	3 97					1,07	36,32	
December	1 79 41	1 07,77	32 22	4 28					1 81	37 33	
1930											
January	1,80,21	1,04 20	32,27	2,38					2 47	35 85	
February	1,81 60	1,04,69	32,27	1 82					2,94	35,85	
March	1,77,28	1,06 11	32,27	2,85					15	33,85	

Details of the balance of the Gold Standard Reserves on the 31st March 1930

In England—

Estimated value on the 31st March 1929 of the sterling securities of the	£
nominal value of £3,361,000 (as per details below)	£7,843,918
Gold	2,152,334
Cash at the Bank of England	3,745
	<hr/>
TOTAL	40,000,000

Details of investments —

	Face value £
British Treasury Bills	9,105,000
Treasury 5½ per cent Bonds May 1930	1,500,000
Treasury 4½ per cent Bonds 1930-32	5,065,000
Treasury 4 per cent Bonds 1931-33	6,924,000
Treasury 4½ per cent Bonds, 1932-34	8,400,000
Treasury 5 per cent Bonds, 1933-35	4,870,000
War loans 5 per cent 1929-47 stock	2,000,000
	<hr/>
TOTAL	37,384,000

THE RESERVE BANK

An essential part of the scheme formulated by Currency Commission was the formation of a Reserve Bank to take over the Note Issue custody of the Government remittances, and act as a true banker's bank. The Commission pointed out that India was one of the few great countries where the control of currency was divorced from the control of credit, and where Government carried out immense financial transactions through its own agency, and proposed the Reserve Bank as the apex of the new financial system.

The Government accepted these recommendations and in January 1927 introduced a Bill to give effect to the Commission's advice. They proposed a shareholders' bank, with a commercial directorate tempered by Government nominees and a new agreement with the Imperial Bank freeing it from some of the restrictions imposed. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee which a marked divergence of opinion was manifested. A majority of the Committee carried recommendations for the transference of a shareholders' bank into a State Bank with a strong element of directors selected by the legislature. This changed Bill was before the legislature in September, and was withdrawn by the Government for further consideration, it being understood that the Secretary of State for India objected to the drastic changes made in the original scheme.

These objections to the original scheme have been summarized under the following heads. That a Reserve Bank in charge of the credit and currency should be responsible to the legislature that only a State Bank would carry the confidence of the people that a Reserve Bank does not require much capital, and therefore

there was no need to create a body of shareholders and that if a bank with share capital was created there was the risk of it falling under the domination of foreign capitalists, or of Indian capitalists in the big cities.

The real ground of objection was the first the legislature sought to make the Bank responsible to the legislature that opened the great question whether the Reserve Bank should be commercial or political.

The New Bill—After conferring with the authorities in London the Finance Member published in January 1928 the draft of an entirely new Bill. On the main point it was uncompromising. It provided for a shareholders' bank, with a capital of five crores of rupees and it entirely excluded political interest in the management by stipulating that members of the legislature were precluded from becoming directors. On all other points it sought to meet the objections to the original scheme. The provisions in this respect governed the directorate and the qualifications for shareholders. As these are important they are set out here—

The Shareholders—(1) The original share capital of the Bank shall be five crores of rupees divided into shares of one hundred rupees each, which shall be fully paid up.

(2) No amount in excess of twenty thousand rupees shall be issued to any one person or to any two or more persons jointly, and no person shall be allowed to acquire an interest in the share capital of the Bank, whether held in his own right, or held jointly with others, or held partly in his own right and partly jointly with others to a value in excess of twenty thousand rupees.

(3) Separate registers of shareholders shall be maintained at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Bangoon and Delhi, and a separate issue of shares shall be made in each of the areas served by those registers as hereinafter defined, and shares shall not be transferable from one register to another save in accordance with conditions to be prescribed by the Governor-General in Council.

(4) A shareholder shall be qualified to be registered as such in any area in which he is ordinarily resident or has his principal place of business in India, but no person shall be registered as a shareholder in more than one register or as a holder of an interest in the share capital of a total nominal value exceeding twenty thousand rupees and no person who is not—

- (a) domiciled in India, or
- (b) a British subject ordinarily resident in India, or

(c) a company registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1913 or a society registered under the Co-operative Societies Act 1912, or a scheduled bank, or a corporation or company incorporated by or under an Act of Parliament or any law for the time being in force in any of His Majesty's dominions and having a branch in British India, shall be registered as a shareholder or be entitled to payment of any dividend on any share

Management.—The essential clauses of the Bill relating to the management of the Bank are —

The general superintendence of the affairs and business of the Bank shall be entrusted to a Board of Directors which may exercise all powers and do all such acts and things as may be exercised or done by the Bank and are not by this Act expressly directed or required to be done by the Bank in general meeting

Save as expressly provided in this Act —(a) no person may be a Director who is not or has not at some time been—(i) actively engaged in agriculture, commerce, finance or industry, or (ii) a director of any company as defined in clause (2) of section 2 of the Indian Companies Act, 1913, or of a corporation or company incorporated by or under any law for the time being in force in any place outside British India, and (b) no person may be a Director who is—(i) a government official or (ii) an officer or employee of any bank or (iii) a director of any bank other than a registered society as defined in clause (c) of section 2 of the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912.

The election or appointment as Director of any person who is a member of the Indian Legislature or of a local Legislature shall be void unless within one month of the date of his election or appointment he ceases to be such member and if any Director is elected or nominated as member of any such Legislature he shall cease

to be a Director as from the date of such election or nomination, as the case may be.

The Board shall consist of the following Directors, namely —(a) a Governor and two Deputy Governors to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council after consideration of any recommendation made by the Board in that behalf, (b) four Directors to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council (c) two Directors to be elected by the Associated Chambers of Commerce (d) two Directors to be elected by the Federation of the Indian Chambers of Commerce (e) one Director representing the interest of agriculture to be elected by provincial co-operative banks holding shares to the nominal value of not less than five thousand rupees, (f) eleven Directors to be elected on behalf of the shareholders on the various registers (g) one government official to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

The shareholders registered on the various registers shall elect delegates for the purpose of electing Directors to represent them on the Board and the numbers of delegates shall be as follows, namely —(a) for the Bombay register—twenty-four members (b) for the Calcutta register—twenty-four members (c) for the Madras register—ten members, (d) for the Bangoon register—ten members (e) for the Delhi register—twenty four members

The election of delegates for the shareholders on a register shall be held once in every five years, at a convenient time before the expiry of the term of office of the retiring Directors for the election of whose successors the delegates are to be elected

(5) Delegates shall hold office for a period of five years.

Reception of the Bill.—When the Bill was published many of those who were opposed to the original scheme seemed to be chary of committing themselves to an opinion. But the general attitude may be fairly indicated in these terms. By those who accepted the idea of a shareholders bank, the Bill was regarded as a considerable improvement, inasmuch as it safeguarded the country against either alien or capitalist control, and gave every part of the country, and every important interest, representation on the directorate. Those who wanted a State, or in other terms a political bank, stood fast in their opposition and objected the scheme root and branch. There was further criticism that the original Bill having passed through Select Committee and been discussed in the legislature it was unconstitutional to withdraw it and substitute a fresh measure, the correct procedure they maintained, was for the original Bill as amended by the Select Committee and the legislature to be proceeded with. The Bill failed to secure the support of the Legislature and was withdrawn

Trade.

India is pre-eminently an agricultural country, and that fact dominates the course of its trade. The great export staples are the produce of the soil—wheat, seeds, cotton and jute. If we look back on the course of Indian trade over a long period of years we shall note a striking development towards stability. In the days that are past, the outturn of the soil was subjected to periodic shocks from famines arising from the failure of the rains, when the export trade in these staples dwindled to small proportions. But the spread of irrigation has produced a great change and though no doubt in future heavy losses may be incurred from the weakness of the monsoons, they are never likely to be as catastrophic as in such years as 1899-07 and 1899-1900. Well over thirty per cent. of the cultivable area of the Punjab is under irrigation, and huge new works are in progress to utilise the waters of the Sutlej, and of the Indus in Sind. Whilst these great works have been carried out or are in progress to spill on the land the floods of the snowed rivers of the North other works of a less imposing character have safeguarded the arid tracts of the South. A chain of storage lakes arrests the rains of the Western Ghats and through canals spreads them over the parched lands of the Deccan. The rivers of the South like the Cauvery are being harnessed to preserve their flood waters for Madras. All over India irrigation works, large and small, are being restlessly pressed forward, and their effect is to give a far greater stability to Indian agriculture.

The destination of these surplus crops is another factor of importance. The great customer for Indian cotton is Japan, and to a lesser extent the Continent of Europe. Continental Europe is also a large buyer of her oils and another produce and of her hides and skins. Whilst the United Kingdom is the great market for tea and wheat foreign countries are very important facts in the Indian export trade, therefore India had a vital interest in the economic recovery of Europe. When the post-war boom collapsed it hit India hard and

for a year or two the export trade reeled under the shock. The progress of the Dawes Plan and the measures taken under the League of Nations to assist Austria and Hungary back to industrial health had a special bearing on the prosperity of India; they have been elements of importance in inducing her recovery of prosperity.

But whilst India is pre-eminently an agricultural country, she ranks at the International Labour Office at Geneva as one of the great industrial countries of the world. Her manufacturing industries are few in number and are concentrated in a few areas, but they are of great importance. The largest is the cotton textile industry which has its home in the town and Island of Bombay with important subsidiary centres at Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Nagpur. Next in importance is the jute industry. Raw jute is a virtual monopoly of Bengal and the jute mills are concentrated in and near Calcutta. The metallurgical industry is of more recent growth. The principal centre is Jamshedpur the seat of the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company where subsidiary industries have sprung up to utilise the products of the blast furnaces and mills. A very large proportion of the jute manufactures is exported. The cotton textile industry has lost a considerable part of its export trade to Japan, the Far East and East Africa; the mills find their principal outlet in India itself and even there they are subject to severe competition from Japan and China. The iron and steel industry is for the most part a home industry through large quantities of Indian pig iron are shipped to the Far East, and in some years to the western ports of North and South America. Therefore whilst India is still in the main an agricultural country three-quarters of her population drawing their sustenance from the soil, her manufacturing industries are of large and growing importance and their prosperity every year affects in an increasing degree the general prosperity of the people.

I—GENERAL

India, in common with other countries of the world, felt the full effects during 1929-30 of the trade slump which followed the Wall Street collapse in October 1929. The total value of the imports of merchandise into British India amounted to Rs 240.8 crores, a decline of Rs 12.5 crores, or five per cent. compared with the figures for the previous year. Exports declined by Rs 20.1 crores or six per cent. to Rs 317.9 crores. The monsoon was adequate and

generally well distributed although heavy rains in other places resulted in floods, causing damage to crops, particularly in Assam, the Punjab and Sind. The season on the whole was fairly good for the agricultural standpoint. Labour conditions were still unsettled in 1929, the two major incidents of the year being a general strike in the Bombay textile industry and a strike in the jute mills of Bengal.

Volume of Trade.—The following figures have been compiled to show the value of imports and exports of merchandise on the basis of the declared values in 1913-14. These statistics are necessarily approximate but they are sufficiently accurate to afford a fairly reliable measure of the course of trade —

(In crores of rupees)

	1913-14	1922-23	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Imports	183	135	120	137	143	156	141	190	189
Exports	244	214	240	240	246	228	248	260	263
TOTAL Trade in merchandise excluding re-exports	427	349	360	377	389	384	429	450	452

The total trade in merchandise (excluding re-exports) as exhibited in this table exceeded even the record figure of the previous year by Rs 2 crores and showed an improvement of Rs 25 crores on the basis of 1913-14. This improvement over 1928-29 was due entirely to an expansion of the export trade imports having, as a matter of fact, receded by Rs 1 crore.

Prices in India.—Prices in India followed the general collapse elsewhere. The Calcutta Index Number stood at 143 in September 1929. It fell to 123 by March 1930 a fall of 18 points or about 13 per cent. Since then there has been a further fall of 16 points the index number for July 1930 standing at 115. From September 1929 to July 1930 therefore, there has been a fall of nearly 20 per cent. Such a fall in the course of less than ten months is almost unprecedented in the history of prices in India. This shows that the year was a disastrous one as far as the price level was concerned. The trouble was aggravated by the fact that the fall in prices was far more pronounced in the case of agricultural commodities and raw materials than in the case of manufactured articles. This again was a factor common in all the countries and the world is in the throes of a severe agricultural depression.

The greatest decline was in the case of raw cotton and jute manufactures, both of which fell by 27 per cent. by March 1930 as compared with September 1929. Jute raw and cereals each showed a decline of 20 per cent and oilseeds of 19 per cent. As against this the fall in the case of cotton manufactures was only one of 7 per cent in the case of metals 10 per cent, and of sugar 6 per cent. This shows that the prices of India's exports have fallen far more than the prices of her imports. If the percentage decline of prices in July 1930 below those in September 1929 is taken, the position is shown to be much worse especially in the cases of raw cotton, raw jute, oilseeds and hides and skins. The decline in raw cotton up to July 1930 as compared with September 1929 amounts to over 40 per cent and that in the case of jute to 35 per cent. The fall in oilseeds increased between March and July, 1930 from 19 per cent to 31 per cent and that in the case of hides and skins, which only showed a

decline of 8 per cent in March 1930 amounted to nearly 28 per cent. In July, in the other export groups also there were further declines, though not of the same magnitude and jute manufactures actually showed an increase as compared with the March figure an increase of nearly 2 points. The index numbers of minerals and sugar were almost on the same level as in March 1930 whereas cotton manufactures have declined since mainly owing to the political agitation since that date.

Imports and Exports.—On the import side the outstanding feature of the year's transactions was a decline of Rs 3.76 lakhs under cotton manufactures. Cotton piecegoods by themselves accounted for a reduction of Rs 3.55 lakhs or responding to a decline of 17.3 million yards in quantity the actual receipts of the year having amounted to 1,919.5 million yards with a total declared value of Rs 50.25 lakhs. This decline is all the more significant because it occurred in spite of an improvement under grey goods from 83.6 to 92.5 million yards in quantity and from Rs 20.19 lakhs to Rs 20.93 lakhs in value. Consignments of white goods declined from 554.1 million yards valued at Rs 15.33 lakhs to 473.6 millions yards valued at Rs 13.27 lakhs and those of coloured goods from 508.9 million yards valued at Rs 17.35 lakhs to 483.5 million yards valued at Rs 15.15 lakhs. The striking feature in the piecegoods trade was the rapid penetration into the Indian market of Japan imports from which source showed an increase of 152 million yards (63 per cent) under greys of 8.6 million yards (164 per cent) under whites and of 44.5 million yards (40 per cent) under coloured. Twist and yarn exhibited a nominal advance on the quantity side from 43.8 million lbs to 43.9 million lbs., although the value recorded declined from Rs 6.29 lakhs to Rs 6.00 lakhs. Among other items included in the textile group, artificial silk (including yarn and goods of artificial silk mixed with other materials) declined from Rs 4.77 lakhs to Rs 4.32 lakhs, silk raw and manufactured from Rs 5.01 lakhs to Rs 4.58 lakhs wool and woollens from Rs 5.02 lakhs to Rs 4.23 lakhs. There were interesting movements under sugar imports of which declined

in value from Rs 16,09 lakhs to Rs 15,78 lakhs, despite an increase on the quantity side from 937,000 tons to 1,011,000 tons. An unusual feature was a remarkable expansion in receipts of beet sugar from 8,400 tons to 131,000 tons simultaneously with a curtailment of the requirements of cane sugar from 860,000 tons to 807,000 tons. The dullness, which had come upon the iron and steel import trade in 1928-29 persisted during the year under review, the total imports having declined from 1,170,000 tons to 972,700 tons in quantity and from Rs 20 24 lakhs to Rs 17,51 lakhs in value. In machinery and millwork, the developments, noticed in the preceding year, could not be maintained and although appreciable advances were made under such items as electrical machinery and prime-movers, the total values recorded for the whole group (including belting) fell off by Rs 8 lakhs to Rs 10 35 lakhs chiefly as a result of the weakening of demand in the mining, tea and sugar industries. One of the palpably retrograde movements of the year was registered under motor vehicles the total value of which declined contrary to all expectations, from Rs 7,72 lakhs to Rs 7 52 lakhs. This was due almost wholly to a falling-off in the number of motor cars imported from 19,600 to 17,400 the decline being almost entirely confined to consignments from Canada and the United States of America. But the upward trend in imports of rubber manufactures was well sustained the value of the imports having advanced by 15 per cent from Rs 2 86 lakhs to Rs 3,30 lakhs mainly as a result of the increased consumption of pneumatic motor covers. Imports of hardware (excluding cutlery and electroplated ware) declined from Rs 5,23 lakhs to Rs 5 07 lakhs, owing principally to reductions under implements and tools, enamelled ironware and metalised lamps. The total decline under metals and manufactures thereof, including in this group for purposes of comparison such items as machinery and millwork hardware, cutlery implements and instruments and vehicles, was Rs 84 crores on a total of Rs 67 crores registered in 1928-29. There was a very remarkable improvement under mineral oils, imports of which advanced from 241.9 million gallons valued at Rs 10 70 lakhs to 252.7 million gallons valued at Rs 11 04 lakhs. The steady increase in receipts of kerosene oils, which was noticeable since 1927-28 was more than maintained and the total quantity consigned during the year moved upwards from 104.7 million gallons to 108.4 million gallons concurrently with an advance of about 32 million gallons in the coastwise imports into India proper from Burma. Fuel oil supplemented this increase by advancing from 103.7 million gallons in 1928-29 to the record figure of 110.2 million gallons the recovery being due to the resumption of work in the Bombay cotton mills. Imports of provisions were valued at Rs 5,64 lakhs, a decline of Rs 57 lakhs, which is to be ascribed to the falling-off in the consignments of vegetable products as well as to a reduction in the prices. Imports of liquors advanced from 6.8 million gallons to 7.8 million gallons in quantity and from Rs 5.57 lakhs to Rs 5.77 lakhs. Imports of raw cotton, which had fallen from 64,100 tons in 1927-28 to 28,900 tons in 1928-29,

declined still further in 1929-30 by 4,900 tons, a decrease of 10,000 tons in the share of the United States of America having been set off to some extent by an increase of 4,000 tons in that of Kenya Colony. Imports of paper and pasteboards increased from Rs 3,30 lakhs to Rs 3,71 lakhs, the gain on the quantity side having been 423,000 cwts on a total of 2,212,000 cwts recorded in 1928-29. Imports of wheat which had advanced from 60,300 tons valued at Rs 1,09 lakhs in 1927-28 to 561,900 tons valued at Rs 8,17 lakhs in 1928-29, came down during the year under review to 357,000 tons with a total declared value of Rs 4,96 lakhs, owing largely to the disappearance of the exceptional circumstances ruling in the preceding year.

Exports.—On the export side, the principal phenomenon has been the serious depression in the world demand for jute. The total weight of raw and manufactured jute exported fell by 44,000 tons to 1,765,000 tons, but the value advanced more heavily from Rs 89 crores to Rs 79 crores. Fifty per cent of the total decline recorded on the value side is attributable to raw jute, exports of which fell from 5,028,000 bales to 4,519,000 bales in quantity and from Rs 32 crores to Rs 27 crores in value. Shipments of gunny bags advanced from 498 millions to 522 millions in number, but the gain was discounted by a fall in prices, which sent down the declared value from Rs 25 crores to Rs 22 crores. A similar movement was recorded under gunny cloth, the total declared value for which sagged from Rs 31½ crores to Rs 29½ crores in spite of an increase in yardage from 1,563 millions to 1,651 millions. Under cotton the combined values of the year's shipments of the raw product and of the manufactured declined from Rs 74.49 lakhs to Rs 72.79 lakhs. Under the stimulus of a favourable price parity shipments of raw cotton expanded from 3,712,000 bales to 4,070,000 bales, but the value actually recorded a loss of Rs 1 crore on a total value of Rs 60 crores recorded in 1928-29, the advantage of increased shipments having thus been more than neutralised by a serious decline in prices, which can be explained by reference to the pressure of the huge carry-over from the previous year's crop as well as to the low grade of the Broach and Omras crops of the year. Export shipments of cotton manufactures (including twist and yarn) were valued at Rs 7.19 lakhs, which meant a reduction of Rs 61 lakhs on the basis of 1928-29 and of Rs 1.48 lakhs on that of 1927-28. The total decline under cotton piece-goods amounted to 16 million yards in quantity and Rs 70 lakhs in value. The principal feature of this downward movement is the progressive decline in exports of greys which is explained in part by the parlous state of the Bombay mill industry and by the severity of Japanese competition in many of the special markets of the Bombay mills. Under food grains the total shipments advanced from 2,900,000 tons valued at Rs 33.69 lakhs to 2,510,500 tons valued at Rs 34.79 lakhs, but this improvement far from being general was confined almost wholly to rice, shipments of which recovered from 1,817,400 tons to 2,226,000 tons in quantity and from Rs 26.47 lakhs to Rs 31.51 lakhs in value as a result

of the premature exhaustion of the surpluses of the other exporting countries. Exports of wheat, which amounted to 13,000 tons valued at Rs 21 lakhs, were shorter than the exports of 1928-29 by 102,000 tons in quantity and Rs 1.48 lakhs in value, the decline on the basis of 1927-28 being 287,000 tons on the quantity side and Rs 4.20 lakhs on the value side. Taking other kinds of foodgrains together for purposes of comparison, the total decline for the year amounted to 193,000 tons in quantity and Rs 2.37 lakhs in value, out of which as much as 132,000 tons on the quantity side and Rs 1.68 lakhs on the value side represented a reduction in the export shipments of barley. In tea the principal feature of the year was the intensification of the preceding year's depression, as a result of which the value of shipments declined from Rs 26.10 lakhs to Rs 24.01 lakhs notwithstanding an increase in the quantity shipped from 3,06 million lbs to 3,783 million lbs. Exports of oilseeds amounted to 1,195,000 tons valued at Rs 27.48 lakhs which meant a decline of 10 per cent. in quantity and of 11 per cent. in value in comparison with the figures for 1928-29 but an increase of 9 per cent. over the average value of the shipments during the previous period. The decline as exhibited in the year's transactions is accounted for by a falling off in the shipments of groundnuts from 738,000 tons valued at Rs 19.57 lakhs to 714,000 tons valued at Rs 16.30 lakhs a good part of this decline however, being set off by an increase in the exports of which rose from 156,700 tons to 248,200 tons in quantity and from Rs 3.31 lakhs to Rs 5.72 lakhs in value as a result mainly of the low outturn of the world's linseed crops. Despatches of hides and skins declined from 89,500 tons valued at Rs 18.87 lakhs to 74,100 tons valued at Rs 16.03 lakhs. Shipments of lac also fell off by 10 per cent. in quantity and 19 per cent. in value from 743,000 cwts. valued at Rs 4.04 lakhs to 659,000 cwts. valued at Rs 2.97 lakhs. Exports of oilcakes which had shown an abnormal development in 1928-29 fell off by Rs 72 lakhs to Rs 3.12 lakhs thus showing a decline of Rs 2 lakhs on the basis of 1927-28.

Coming to re-exports the total value recorded under this head amounted to Rs 7.13 lakhs in 1929-30. This meant a decline of Rs 10 lakhs in comparison with the value recorded in 1928-29 and of Rs 2.41 lakhs on the basis of 1927-28. The bulk of India's re-exports usually pass through Bombay and the effect of this retrogression was as in the preceding year confined mainly to that province the value of her trade having fallen off from Rs 5.02 lakhs to Rs 4.52 lakhs and the corresponding percentage share from 64 to 58. The most noticeable movement of the year, so far as Bombay was concerned was a decline in the shipments of raw skins from 323 tons valued at Rs 1.58 lakhs to 211 tons valued at Rs 1.05 lakhs. Re-exports of raw cotton from Bombay which had fallen off from 2,790 tons valued at Rs 44 lakhs in 1927-28 to 551 tons valued at Rs 9 lakhs in 1928-29 recovered to 1,425 tons valued at Rs 19 lakhs in 1929-30. Shipments of sugar contracted from 10,000 tons to 7,000 tons in quantity and from Rs 23 lakhs to Rs 17 lakhs in value. Re-exports of cotton manufactures (mostly piece-goods) fell from Rs 89 lakhs to Rs 78 lakhs.

Re-export of raw wool decreased from 12 million lbs. valued at Rs 94 lakhs to 8 million lbs. valued at Rs. 65 lakhs.

Balance of Trade.—The visible balance of trade in merchandise and treasure for the year 1929-30 was in favour of India to the extent of Rs 58 crores compared with Rs 52 crores in the preceding year. Rs 50 crores in 1927-28 and the record figure of Rs 109 crores in 1925-26. The net imports of treasure on private account fell from Rs 34 crores to Rs 25 crores of which net imports of gold were valued at Rs 14 crores and of silver at Rs 12 crores. Net imports of currency notes amounted to Rs 9 lakhs.

Tariff changes.—The changes in the tariff made under the Indian Finance Act, 1929, and the Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act, 1929, were dealt with in the preceding year's Review. Since then four Acts have been passed introducing important changes in the tariff.

The Indian Finance Act, 1930, which was passed on the 28th March, imposed an import duty of 4 annas an ounce on silver bullion and coins and rolled sheets and plates not further manufactured. It raised the import duty on cotton piece goods from 11 per cent. to 16 per cent. *ad valorem*, raised the import duty on all kinds of sugar and sugar candy (excluding molasses) by Rs 1.8 per cwt. and reduced the import duty on kerosene from 2½ annas to 2½ annas a gallon and the export duty on rice from 3 annas to 2½ annas a maund. It also raised the import duty on silver manufacturers (plate, thread, wire, leaf, etc.) from 30 to 38 per cent. *ad valorem* consequent upon the imposition of duty on the metal. The reduction of import duty on kerosene was coupled with an increase in the corresponding excise duty from 1 anna to 1½ annas a gallon, while the imposition of customs duty on silver necessitated the imposition of an equivalent excise duty on the local production and this was done under the Silver (Excise Duty) Act, 1930.

The Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Act, 1930, which was passed on the 4th April provided for the protection of the Cotton Textile Industry and imposed a protective duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* on all classes of cotton piece-goods of other than British manufacture with a minimum specific duty of 2½ annas a pound on plain grey goods. For piece-goods of British manufacture the corresponding rate was 15 per cent. *ad valorem* with the same minimum of 2½ annas a pound in the case of plain grey goods. The Act also provided for the continuance of the protection granted to the industry in 1927 in respect of the manufacture of cotton yarn and retained the minimum specific duty of 1½ annas a pound on the imported article. Both these provisions will have effect up to 31st March 1933.

The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act, 1930, which came into force on the 29th March, removed the import duty on tanning bark, ammonium phosphates, living plants, certain agricultural implements and dairy appliances, poultry farming appliances and incubators, pans for boiling sugar cane juice, sugar centrifuges and sugar pum mills and certain printing and lithographic materials. It also effected certain minor changes such as the imposition of saccharine duty on substances of a like nature or use, equalisation of duty on all domestic refrigerators at 15 per cent. *ad valorem* except-

tion of pilot cores of insulated copper cables from the condition as regards size for assessment purposes and the equalisation of duty on all kinds of bangles, beads and false pearls at 30 per cent *ad valorem*.

The Steel Industry (Protection) Act, 1930, which came into force on the 28th March, lowered the limit of the size of the protected

qualities of round and square steel bars and rods from $\frac{1}{4}$ to over 7 inch in order to make the protection more effective. It also imposed the protective duty on tiebars for cast iron sleepers making all spikes and tie bars liable to the same protective duty as bars thus giving full effect to the intention underlying the Act of 1927.

II—IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

The following table shows the comparative importance of the principal articles imported into British India —

IMPORTS

(In thousands of Rupees)

	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	Percentage on total imports of merchandise in 1929-30
Cotton and cotton goods	69,31.26	70,08.18	71,90.16	67,10.16	62,90.89	26.13
Metals and ores	25,40.48	23,86.12	28,41.68	26,93.84	25,61.91	9.81
Machinery and millwork	14,88.69	13,63.14	15,93.75	18,36.04	16,21.86	7.07
Sugar	15,58.41	18,89.06	14,90.56	16,08.95	15,77.66	6.56
Oils	10,60.16	9,18.78	11,08.68	11,53.23	11,68.66	4.86
Vehicles	5,74.89	6,39.93	7,69.37	11,00.60	10,84.73	4.50
Provisions and oilman's stores	4,89.59	5,77.64	6,40.60	6,21.24	5,68.61	2.34
Grain, pulse and flour	65.77	91.69	2,30.70	10,72.81	5,42.05	2.25
Instruments, apparatus and appliances	3,53.83	4,01.19	4,46.52	4,91.71	6,88.20	2.24
Hardware	5,19.37	5,06.62	5,24.42	5,23.28	5,06.65	2.10
Silk raw and manufactures	8,74.70	4,59.71	5,05.78	5,00.67	4,58.43	1.90
Wool raw and manufactures	4,66.96	4,46.36	5,36.82	5,01.87	4,28.55	1.78
Railway plant and rolling stock*	4,96.31	3,25.19	4,76.87	—	—	—
Liquors	3,88.75	3,52.64	3,66.99	3,57.16	3,76.63	1.56
Paper and pasteboard	2,61.05	3,08.20	3,00.62	3,29.95	3,72.81	1.56
Rubber	2,17.72	2,10.66	2,71.67	2,66.18	3,32.67	1.38
Spices	3,38.45	3,29.15	2,67.63	2,94.03	3,25.75	1.35
Chemicals	2,02.64	2,44.80	2,64.95	2,47.84	2,78.74	1.16
Tobacco	2,13.35	2,56.11	2,91.32	2,74.60	2,69.71	1.12
Glass and glassware	2,56.46	2,52.88	2,43.40	2,37.49	2,51.93	1.05
Dyes	1,82.17	2,13.23	2,64.53	2,83.21	2,43.31	1.01
Drugs and medicines	1,78.11	1,90.02	1,98.28	2,02.13	2,26.25	.94
Fruits and vegetables	1,57.00	1,61.76	2,01.94	1,66.39	1,82.87	.76
Apparel	1,65.61	1,77.67	1,64.45	1,82.99	1,71.24	.71
Soap	1,46.11	1,62.41	1,61.37	1,58.10	1,64.88	.69
Paints and painter's materials	1,29.77	1,44.23	1,54.79	1,44.20	1,46.55	.61
Building and engineering materials	1,19.08	1,23.91	1,28.80	1,21.96	1,34.44	.56
Salt	1,04.20	1,26.20	1,74.84	1,46.82	1,30.39	.54
Precious stones and pearls, unset	1,24.03	1,06.99	1,34.45	1,16.83	1,09.65	.46
Stationery	88.91	81.96	91.67	1,01.69	1,05.06	.44
Haberdashery and millinery	1,09.99	1,13.50	1,26.55	1,34.07	1,04.28	.43
Wood and timber	65.85	78.99	81.47	88.46	1,03.54	.43

* Discontinued from April 1928

Imports—(continued)

(In thousands of Rupees)

	1925 26	1926 27	1927 28	1928 29	1929 30	Percentage on total imports of merchandise in 1928-30
Manures	32,53	76 40	47 03	73 57	98 65	41
Balting for machinery	82,22	81 29	87 30	83 11	90 21	37
Boots and shoes	40 40	57 13	66 99	88 12	87 81	36
Ten chests	84 93	62,85	71 80	67 47	80 24	38
Toilet requisites	49 36	57 02	62 11	64 61	72 68	30
Earthenware and porcelain	78 45	82 82	80 71	73 09	72 34	30
Books printed etc	56,58	56 60	61 08	66 28	71 82	30
Arms ammunition and military stores	89 70	68,87	70 65	76,64	65 44	27
Toys and requisites for games	54 27	62 11	63 82	66 09	64 84	27
Tea	66 30	66 72	69 00	74 22	67 90	27
Coal and coke	97 65	35 69	62 49	39 10	45 05	19
Paper making materials	25,85	34 99	40,28	41 51	44 95	19
Umbrellas and fittings	51 10	52 57	62 38	57,19	43 66	18
Gums and resins	25 34	30 53	39,33	38 95	41 96	17
Cutlery	87 08	41 38	54 50	36,37	41 41	17
Bobbins	38 51	34,76	38 90	35 96	39 88	17
Furniture and cabinet ware	22 00	20 68	30 62	36 98	37 06	16
Flax raw and manufactures	12 78	31 49	37 09	35 45	33 78	14
Animals, living	34 58	41 85	38 43	35 71	32,42	13
Tallow and stearine	29 40	31,64	26 25	24 67	31 02	13
Fish (excluding canned fish)	37 72	38 66	56 98	25 76	26,31	11
Jewellery also plate of gold and silver	19 61	38,52	17 24	15 82	24 23	11
Jute and jute goods	51 04	40,37	24 11	28 58	24,20	10
Clocks and watches and parts	25 15	25 66	27,22	27 61	23 47	10
Matches	93 45	65 60	39 37	17 42	10 89	05
All other articles	10 30 85	12 83 75	15 01 66	15 26 61	14,33 69	5 95
TOTAL VALUE OF IMPORTS	2 26,17,78	2 31 22 08	2 40 83 64	2 53,30 60	2,40,79,69	100

Cotton Manufacture (Rs. 59.46 Lakhs).— The total value of the imports of cotton manufactures decreased during the year by nearly Rs 3½ crores the decline due to piecegoods being Rs 3½ crores and to yarn about Rs ½ crore. In quantity also there was a slight fall of 17 million yards in piecegoods. But the total amount of yarn imported was almost equal in quantity to that in 1928-29. The cessation of the millstrikes and the normal working of most of the mills have led one to expect a greater import of yarn than in 1928-29 but it will be seen that the Indian mills have been producing yarn to a greater extent than before and the figure for mill-production in 1929-30 was a record one of 834 million lbs. This was far in excess

of the 1928-29 figure and exceeded by 25 million lbs the previous highest figure of 1927-28. The Indian mills have been greatly increasing their production of yarn of 31 to 40 counts and over 40 counts. In 1927-28 the last normal year, the production of yarn of 31-40 counts was 34 million lbs. In the year under review it was 46 million lbs. The production of yarn above 40 counts was 11 million lbs in 1927-28. In the year under review it was 15 million lbs. Thus it will be seen that the Indian mills are producing yarn of higher counts in ever increasing quantities and automatically, therefore must be a reduction or, at least an absence of increase in imports under these heads.

The value of the different classes of imported cotton manufactures during the past five years and the pre war year 1913-14 is set forth below—

Imports of cotton Manufactures	1913-14 pre war	1920-21	1925-26	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)
Twist and yarn	4.10	7.77	6.62	6.79	6.29	6.00
Piecegoods—						
Grey (unbleached)	25.45	21.89	19.62	21.25	20.19	20.93
White (bleached)	14.29	10.99	17.63	15.42	15.33	13.27
Coloured printed or dyed	17.86	15.92	17.22	17.62	17.35	16.15
Fents of all descriptions	04	70	85	94	94	90
TOTAL PIECEGOODS	58.14	54.50	55.02	55.13	53.81	50.20
Hosiery	1.20	1.40	1.47	1.33	1.45	1.44
Handkerchiefs and shawls	39	22	19	17	16	17
Thread	39	84	74	77	71	81
Other sorts	1.52	91	1.02	92	82	82
GRAND TOTAL	66.30	65.67	65.05	65.16	63.24	59.49

Cotton Twist and yarn (Rs. 6.00 Lakhs).—The imports of twist and yarn amounted to 43.9 million lbs in quantity and Rs. 6.00 lakhs in value as compared with 43.8 million lbs and Rs. 6.29 lakhs in 1928-29. Thus the quantity of yarn imported was almost the same as in the previous year, though there was a decline of Rs. 29 lakhs in value. Of the total imports 20.1 million lbs came from the United Kingdom 10.9 million lbs from Japan and 10.6 million lbs from China. The share of the United Kingdom in the total trade in cotton twist and yarn declined from 53 per cent in 1928-29 to 46 per cent in 1929-30. Japan's share on the other hand increased from 17 per cent in 1928-29 to 25 per cent in 1929-30. It appears that Japan is slowly making up the ground she had lost.

Cotton Piecegoods (Rs. 54.25 Lakhs).—The imports of cotton piecegoods, including fents, decreased by the relatively small amount of 17 million yards as compared with 1928-29. The decrease in value, however, was very considerable being Rs. 3.56 lakhs. Compared with the pre-war year 1913-14, the imports of 1929-30 were less by over 1,278 million yards. The figures for the three important classes of cotton piece-

goods from 1913-14 onwards are set forth in the table below—

Year	Grey (unbleached)	White (bleached)	Coloured printed or dyed
	Million yards	Million yards	Million yards
1913-14	1,594.2	793.3	831.8
1914-15	1,320.2	604.2	494.8
1915-16	1,148.2	611.4	268.7
1916-17	847.0	589.8	454.9
1917-18	625.5	502.3	395.6
1918-19	583.4	286.6	227.3
1919-20	583.3	322.0	206.3
1920-21	580.2	421.8	489.8
1921-22	625.6	306.2	183.3
1922-23	981.0	402.5	243.8
1923-24	704.0	415.3	247.0
1924-25	846.5	548.9	407.0
1925-26	709.1	466.1	386.8
1926-27	743.4	571.0	447.4
1927-28	876.5	556.5	504.8
1928-29	838.6	564.1	506.9
1929-30	925.5	473.6	483.5

The imports of coloured, printed and dyed goods from 1922-23 are set forth below —

	1922-23		1923-24		1924-25		1925-26		1926-27		1927-28		1928-29		1929-30	
	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)	Mln yds	Rs (lks.)
Total printed goods	182 5	8,14	189 0	8 12	166 9	6,55	176 8	6,13	235 5	7,53	244 4	7,41	199 9	5 77		
Total dyed goods	110 1	6,12	142 2	7,54	106 8	4,88	157 0	6,17	168 3	5,61	155 6	5 62	151 0	4 92		
Total woven coloured goods	54 9	3,43	75 8	4,86	92 1	4,49	113 8	4,92	111 2	4,88	106 9	4,32	132 5	4,47		

In contrast to the two preceding years, the imports of printed goods fell considerably in the year under review both in quantity and value. The imports under this head amounted to 235 million yards in 1927-28 and Rs 24 million yards in 1928-29 but declined to 201 million yards in 1929-30. The decline in value was from Rs 7,53 lakhs in 1927-28 and Rs 7,41 lakhs in 1928-29 to Rs 5,77 lakhs in 1929-30.

Imports of dyed goods very slightly declined from 156 million yards to 151 million yards in 1929-30, but the imports under total woven coloured goods increased from 107 million yards to 132 5 million yards in 1929-30. This is the highest figure attained since 1922-23. Detailed figures relating to the imported Piece-goods are given below in millions of yards —

Grey (un bleached)	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1923-29	1929-30	White (bleached)	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1923-29	1929-30	Coloured printed or dyed	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1923-29	1929-30
D h u t i s saris and scarves	806 1	486 7	501 1	D h u t i s saris and scarves	104 3	71 7	45 6	D h u t i s saris and scarves	115 2	36 3	33 0
Jaconets, Madapollams mulis, etc.	150 4	78 9	63 0	Jaconets, Madapollams mulis, etc.	307 9	256 0	219 7	Jaconets, Madapollams mulis, etc.	113 6	49 7	43 5
Longcloth & shirtings	545 4	252 0	340 1	Longcloth & shirtings	115 3	123 0	104 1	Shirtings	152 6	93 0	105 8
Sheetings	2 6	5 14	7 14	Sheetings	204 7	76 6	63 1	Prints and chintz	209 7	75 0	61 3
Drills and jeans	21 3	11 8	13 4	Drills and jeans	5 7	5 7	6 6	Drills and jeans	30 0	57 9	86 6
				O h e c k s spots and stripes	16 1	12 7	12 0	O h e c k s spots and stripes	19 7	22 4	26 2
				Twills	8 3	17 7	16 8	Twills	31 4	47 9	36 6
Other sorts	10 8	2 3	3 2	Other sorts	31 0	17 2	15 8	Other sorts	159 6	123 7	90 7
TOTAL	1 534 2	836 6	925 5	TOTAL	793 5	554 0	473 6	TOTAL	831 6	606 9	483 5

The United Kingdom's share in the imports of grey goods decreased from 683 million yards to 521 million yards, a decrease of 61 million yards or 10 per cent. The Japanese share, on the other hand increased from 242 million yards to 394 million yards, an increase of 152 million yards or 63 per cent. It will be seen that the total increase under grey piecegoods is 87 million yards this increase being chiefly due to greater imports from Japan. The increase in the total imports shows that Japan was competing effectively with home production, while the decrease in imports from the United Kingdom shows that Japan is ousting the

United Kingdom from this class of imports. Thus Japan emerged in this year as a very serious competitor both to the Indian mills and to the United Kingdom. Imports from China declined by about 34 million yards and from the United States of America by about half a million yards. As regards white goods, they were, as usual, mainly imported from the United Kingdom but there was a considerable decline in the total import under this head which was mainly due to a reduction in imports from the United Kingdom by 89 million yards. It is interesting to note that even in white goods Japan increased her share from 5 5 million yards

in 1928-29 to 13.9 million yards in 1929-30 in the imports of coloured, printed or dyed piecegoods the share of the United Kingdom fell by 57 million yards. Imports from Italy also declined from 36 million yards to 23 million yards in the year under review, a decline of 13 million yards. On the other hand Japan increased her share from 110 million yards to 154 million yards in 1929-30 an increase of 44 million yards. The share of the Netherlands also went up from 11 million to 14 million

yards. Thus this was a year of Japan's advance in the Indian market. The trade which the United Kingdom and Italy lost in the year under review was almost wholly absorbed by Japan. The percentage shares in 1913-14 and in the past five years, of the United Kingdom and Japan the two principal competitors in the Indian piecegoods import trade, in each of the three important classes of piecegoods, are set forth below —

Percentage shares of the United Kingdom and Japan in the imports of cotton piecegoods.

	1913-14		1925-26		1926-27		1927-28		1928-29		1929-30	
	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan
Cotton piecegoods—												
Grey	98.8	—	79.2	20.1	78.7	20.7	74.4	24.5	69.4	28.6	56.2	42.5
White	96.5	—	96.0	1.0	96.4	5.6	94.7	1.0	94.8	1.0	92.1	2.9
Coloured	92.6	2	73.1	19.0	71.1	19.2	69.8	20.3	66.2	21.7	67.6	31.9

Artificial silk (Rs. 4.32 lakhs).—The trade under this head slightly increased in quantity though not in value. The increase was in the imports of piecegoods of cotton and artificial silk and not in artificial silk yarn. The imports of artificial silk yarn in the year under review were 7.4 million lbs as compared with 7.7 million lbs in 1928-29 thus showing a slight decrease of 3 million lbs. In value there was a much greater decline from Rs. 1.35 lakhs in 1928-29 to Rs. 90 lakhs in 1929-30 a fall of Rs. 36 lakhs. The share of the United Kingdom fell from 1.7 million lbs valued at Rs. 30½ lakhs in 1928-29 to 1.4 million lbs valued at Rs. 19½ lakhs in the year under review.

As regards imports of piecegoods of cotton and artificial silk the outstanding feature of the year was the enormous growth of imports under this head from Japan. The total imports of these piecegoods in the year under review were 56.6 million yards valued at Rs. 315 lakhs as compared with 49.8 million yards valued at Rs. 3,30 lakhs in 1928-29. Thus there was an increase of 6.8 million yards in quantity but a decline of Rs. 15 lakhs in value. The largest single supplier of piecegoods of artificial silk and cotton was Japan imports from which country amounted to the enormous figure of 25 million yards valued at Rs. 140 lakhs in 1929-30 as compared with 8.8 million yards valued at Rs. 30½ lakhs in 1928-29. Thus there was an increase of 21.2 million yards in quantity and of Rs. 1,09 lakhs in value in Japan's share in the year under review. The rise of Japan in this particular trade is even more sensational than her rise in grey and coloured cotton piecegoods in the year under review.

Wool Raw and manufactured (Rs. 4.23 lakhs).—Imports of raw wool increased from 5 million lbs to 6.7 million lbs the increase in value was from Rs. 49.5 lakhs to Rs. 51.7 lakhs. Imports from the United Kingdom slightly decreased from 1,249,000 lbs valued at Rs. 19½ lakhs to 1,219,000 lbs valued at Rs. 16½ lakhs.

Imports from Persia went up from 2,362,000 lbs valued at Rs. 8½ lakhs to 2,379,000 lbs valued at Rs. 9 lakhs. The share of Australia went up from 1,841,000 lbs valued at Rs. 17½ lakhs to 2,430,000 lbs valued at nearly Rs. 22 lakhs. The increase in the supplies from Australia has been continuous during the last four years. Imports of woollen piecegoods declined in the year under review as compared with 1928-29 by 21 per cent. Imports from the United Kingdom decreased from 5.5 million yards valued Rs. 1.22 lakhs in 1928-29 to 3.7 million yards valued at Rs. 91 lakhs in 1929-30.

Silk Raw and manufactured (Rs. 4.58 lakhs).—The imports of raw silk increased from 2.1 million lbs to 2.2 million lbs the increase mainly occurring in the imports from China. The value of the imports in 1929-30 was almost the same as in 1928-29. The predominant supplier of raw silk was, as usual, China (including Hongkong) which supplied 2.1 million lbs out of the total imports of 2.2 million lbs in the year under review as compared with 1.0 million lbs out of 2.1 million lbs in 1928-29.

Metals and manufactures thereof (Rs. 23.59 lakhs).—The imports of metals and manufactures thereof declined by 204,000 tons or 17 per cent. in quantity from 1,232,000 tons to 1,028,000 tons and by Rs. 84 crores or 13 per cent. in value from Rs. 27 crores to Rs. 23½ crores. Iron and steel represented Rs. 17 crores of this total as compared with Rs. 20 crores in 1928-29 and receded to the third place among India's imports the first two being cotton manufactures (Rs. 69½ crores) and machinery and mill work (Rs. 19½ crores). If such items as machinery and millwork, hardware cutlery, implements and instruments, and vehicles were included in one head with metals and manufactures thereof the total value would aggregate Rs. 68½ crores while the value of the most important group among imports, viz., yarn and textile fabrics amounted

to Rs 72½ crores in the year under review. In the preceding year the metals group accounted for Rs 67 crores, while the textile had totalled Rs 78 crores.

Iron and Steel (Rs. 17.21 lakhs).—India, despite her increasing production is largely dependent on foreign supplies. The United Kingdom is still the premier supplier of iron and steel to India, but the British proportion in the import trade is on the decline.

Other Metals (Rs. 8.38 lakhs).—Imports of metals other than iron and steel recorded a decrease of nearly 7,000 tons in quantity and of Rs 36 lakhs in value from 62,400 tons valued at Rs 6.74 lakhs in 1928-29 to 55,500 tons valued at Rs 6.38 lakhs in the year under review.

Machinery and Millwork (Rs. 19.35 lakhs).—The imports of machinery and millwork (including belting for machinery and printing presses) in 1929-30 declined to Rs 19.35 lakhs from Rs 19.48 lakhs in the preceding year.

The most noticeable increase was recorded under primemovers (other than electrical) imports of which rose from Rs 3.04 lakhs to Rs 4.11 lakhs. The improvement under this head was due almost entirely to larger importations of railway locomotive engines and tenders and parts which were valued at Rs 1.97 lakhs as compared with Rs 98 lakhs in 1928-29. Besides there were other items which showed appreciable increases during the year, notably jute mill machinery and electrical machinery, paper mill machinery, mining machinery, tea and sugar machinery, recorded considerable decreases.

Motor Vehicles (Rs. 7.52 lakhs).—In the beginning of the year it was anticipated that the imports of motor cars in 1929-30 would nearly equal if not surpass the record figures of the preceding year and it looked as though

this anticipation was going to be realised, for during the first half of the year the number of motor cars imported was 8,899 as against 7,744 in the corresponding period of 1928-29. During the latter half however, owing to the financial crisis in the United States of America the supplies from America were considerably reduced with the result that imports began to decline and in the final month of the year fell to the unusually low figure of 816 cars the lowest for any one month in the past three years. The number of cars imported in the whole year was 17,399 valued at Rs 3.76 lakhs a decrease of 11 per cent both in quantity and value as compared with 19,507 valued at Rs 4.21 lakhs in 1928-29. Over 84 per cent of the cars imported into India came from the United States of America and Canada and 21 per cent from the United Kingdom as compared with 74 and 19 per cent respectively in the preceding year. The average declared value of cars imported from the United Kingdom dropped from Rs 2.476 in 1928-29 to Rs 2.589 in 1929-30 and that of cars imported from the United States declined from Rs 2.150 to Rs 2.130 (Canadian cars however showing a higher average value of Rs 1.800 compared with Rs 1.640 in the preceding year). These figures seem to suggest that the medium powered car is giving place on the one hand to more powerful vehicles, generally of American origin and on the other hand to light cars several makes of which have been put on the market by British manufacturers. Average prices of British cars have no doubt shown a welcome decline but power for power they still compare unfavourably with those of American makes.

The following table shows the number of all classes of motor vehicles registered in the different provinces of British India up to the end of March 1930—

Number of motor vehicles registered in British India up to 31st March 1930				
Provinces	Motor cars including taxicabs	Motor cycles including scooters and auto wheels	Heavy motor vehicles (lorries, buses etc.)	Total
Bengal including Calcutta	Number 30,808	Number 4,052	Number 3,695	Number 38,555
Bombay City	(a) 12,640	(a) 880	(a) 980	(a) 14,500
Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay City and Sind)	(a) 9,430	(a) 1,020	(a) 125	(a) 10,575
Madras City	11,344	2,876	1,711	15,931
Madras Presidency (excluding Madras City)	7,061	1,777	6,392	15,230
United Provinces	11,087	3,275	5,043	19,405
Punjab	10,567	3,945	5,766	20,278
Burma	(b) 10,208	(b) 1,248	(b) 6,381	(b) 17,837
Bihar and Orissa	7,820	1,123	1,781	10,724
Central Provinces	4,590	1,035	2,165	7,790
Sind	3,580	1,035	154	4,769
Delhi	5,090	1,021	887	7,000
North West Frontier Province	2,737	1,557	1,264	5,558
Ajmer Merwara	458	182	152	792
Assam	(c) 2,073	(c) 302	(c) 1,453	(c) 3,828
Total	1,28,868	25,877	37,950	1,92,695

(a) Represent number of vehicles re-registered during the year ending 31st March 1930

(b) Represent number actually running at the end of June 1930

(c) Relate to the year ended 31st December 1929

Sugar (Rs.11.75 lakhs).—Imports of sugar of all sorts, excluding molasses, increased from 869,000 tons in 1928-29 to 940,000 tons in 1929-30. There was, however, a decline in value owing to lower prices. The total value in 1928-29 amounted to Rs.15.85 lakhs. It declined to Rs.15.51 lakhs in 1929-30. The increase in the imports of sugar was due entirely to the enormous imports of beet sugar from Europe which increased from 8,000 tons in 1928-29 to 131,800 tons in 1929-30 an increase of 123,800 tons. Imports of sugar 16 D 5 and above declined from 860,000 tons in 1928-29 to 807,000 tons in 1929-30, a decline of 53,000 tons. The main decrease was in the imports from Java (including consignments from the Straits Settlements) which declined from 851,600 tons valued at Rs.15.49 lakhs in 1928-29 to 780,100 tons valued at Rs.12.71 lakhs in 1929-30. Thus there was a decline of 71,500 tons in quantity and Rs.2.78 lakhs in value. Imports from the United Kingdom of sugar 16 D 5 and above went up from 1,400 tons to 14,200 tons in 1929-30, the increase in value being Rs.23 lakhs from Rs.3 lakhs to Rs.25 lakhs. Imports from Ceylon declined by about 400 tons only as compared with the preceding year, whereas imports from China (including Hongkong) increased by about 600 tons. The total amount of beet sugar imported during the year was 131,000 tons as compared with 8,400 tons in the preceding year. Imports from most of the European countries went up. The United Kingdom sent 45,000 tons valued at Rs.78 lakhs in 1929-30 as compared with 3,000 tons valued at nearly Rs.7 lakhs in 1928-29. Imports from Hungary went up from 2,000 tons valued at Rs.4 lakhs in 1928-29 to 35,000 tons valued at Rs.60 lakhs in 1929-30. Imports from Germany also went up from 273 tons in 1928-29 to 14,000 tons valued at Rs.24 lakhs in 1929-30. The share of Czechoslovakia increased from 421 tons in 1928-29 to 9,500 tons valued at Rs.18 lakhs in 1929-30. Imports from other countries went up from 2,000 tons valued at Rs.4 lakhs in 1928-29 to 28,000 tons valued at Rs.46 lakhs in 1929-30. The bulk of the imports of beet sugar during the year was received in Sind and Bombay.

Mineral oils (Rs.11.64 lakhs).—The total imports of all kinds of mineral oils into British India rose by 4.5 per cent in quantity from 242 million gallons in 1928-29 to 253 million gallons in 1929-30 and by 3 per cent in value from Rs.10.70 lakhs to Rs.11.04 lakhs. Of the total quantity of mineral oils imported kerosene oil represented 42 per cent fuel oils 44 per cent and lubricating oil 10½ per cent. Since 1927-28 the imports of kerosene oil into India have gone steadily ahead, constituting a new record each year. The 1929-30 imports shattered all previous records and amounted to 107½ million gallons as compared with 104½ million gallons in 1928-29 and 94 million gallons in 1927-28. It should be remembered that conditions in India where about 80 per cent of the population live in scattered villages are particularly favourable for the use of kerosene for lamp oil. In fact, India ranks third after the United Kingdom and China as a world importer of kerosene. India's requirements are also met from the oil fields in Burma. Coastwise imports from Burma into India proper amounted to 125 million gallons as compared with 93½ million gallons in 1928-29 and 190

million gallons in 1927-28. Of the foreign supplies, the United States increased her contribution from 14 to 23 million gallons, while the receipts from Russia, including Georgia and Azerbaijan (which for the first time sent 7½ million gallons in 1929-30), fell from 43 to 37 million gallons.

Hardware (Rs.5.07 lakhs).—There was a decline of 16 lakhs in the imports of hardware (excluding cutlery and electroplated ware) which were valued at Rs.5.07 lakhs as compared with Rs.5.23 lakhs in 1928-29 and Rs.5.34 lakhs in 1927-28. The chief items which accounted for this decline were implements and tools, other than agricultural, enamelled ironware and metal lamps.

Provisions (Rs.4.54 lakhs).—The value of the total imports of provisions fell from Rs.5.21 lakhs in 1928-29 to Rs.4.54 lakhs in 1929-30. The decline was mainly due to smaller importations of vegetable product as a result of the growing prejudice against the commodity which in some places has led to the enactment of local regulations prohibiting its importation within their boundaries.

Liquors (Rs.3.77 lakhs).—The total quantity of liquors imported rose by 12 per cent from 6,790,000 gallons in 1928-29 to 7,579,000 gallons in 1929-30 the corresponding increase in value being only of 6 per cent from Rs.3.57 lakhs to Rs.3.77 lakhs. The increase was reflected in the takings of all provinces with the exception of Burma. Bombay took the largest quantity, viz. 2,290,000 gallons compared with 1,906,000 gallons in 1928-29 and was followed by Bengal with 2,218,000 gallons as compared with 1,961,000 gallons in the preceding year. The position is however reverse if the values of the imports are taken into consideration. Imports into Bengal were valued at Rs.1,12½ lakhs or nearly Rs.2 lakhs more than those into Bombay.

Paper and pasteboard (Rs.3.73 lakhs).—The quantity of paper and pasteboard imported rose by 19 per cent from 115,600 tons in 1928-29 to 137,000 tons in 1929-30 and by 13 per cent in value from Rs.3.80 lakhs to Rs.3.73 lakhs. Printing paper was imported to the extent of 40,300 tons valued at Rs.1.23 lakhs as compared with 34,600 tons valued at Rs.1.06 lakhs in the preceding year. The increase was solely in newsprinting paper the imports of which amounted to 24,300 tons valued at Rs.68 lakhs as against 17,000 tons valued at Rs.42½ lakhs in 1928-29, while other kinds of printing paper recorded a decrease of 9 per cent in quantity from 17,600 tons to 16,000 tons and of 6 per cent in value from about Rs.4 lakhs to Rs.3.80 lakhs. Norway with her abundant resources of wood pulp maintained the lead in the printing paper trade and supplied 12,900 tons valued at Rs.34 lakhs as compared with 9,900 tons valued at Rs.23 lakhs in 1928-29.

Chemicals (Rs.2.79 lakhs).—The total imports of chemicals (excluding chemical manures and medicines) increased by Rs.81 lakhs from Rs.5.48 lakhs in 1928-29 to Rs.2.79 lakhs in 1929-30 of which soda compounds accounted for Rs.1.21 lakhs or 43 per cent as compared with Rs.1.18 lakhs or 46 per cent in the preceding year. The United Kingdom supplied, as usual, the bulk of sodium carbonate.

Salt (Rs. 1.30 lakhs).—The course of prices of salt in India was almost consistently downward during the year 1928-29. Prices of imported salt have been reduced to a level at which it threatens to compete with the Indian product. The imports of foreign salt by sea into British India increased by 5 per cent in quantity from 615,000 tons in 1928-29 to 644,000 tons in 1929-30 but, owing to lower prices, declined in value from Rs. 1.47 lakhs to Rs. 1.30 lakhs.

Tobacco (Rs. 2.78 lakhs).—The recovery made in 1928-29 in the imports of unmanufactured tobacco proved to be short-lived and the imports fell from 6½ million lbs in 1928-29 to 4½ million lbs. There is little doubt that the high duties imposed in March 1927 serve as a handicap to the continued expansion of this trade. The imports were largely from the United States of America, which supplied 4.4 million lbs or 97 per cent of the total quantity imported as compared with 6½ million lbs or 98 per cent in the preceding year. On the other hand the imports of cigarettes advanced from nearly 5 million lbs to 5.3 million lbs in quantity and from Rs. 2.01 lakhs to Rs. 2.13 lakhs in value. As usual the United Kingdom controlled over 99 per cent of the trade, her supplies being valued at Rs. 2.12 lakhs as against Rs. 2.00 lakhs in 1928-29, the remainder came chiefly from the United States of America, Egypt and Aden. There were larger receipts of cigars

and pipe tobacco amounting to 40,000 lbs and 228,000 lbs as compared with 34,000 lbs and 218,000 lbs respectively in 1928-29.

Glass and glassware (Rs. 2.82 lakhs).—The imports of glass and glassware registered a considerable improvement, the value having risen from Rs. 2,57½ lakhs to Rs. 2,52 lakhs. A remarkable recovery was made by Czechoslovakia which bids fair to challenge Japan's supremacy in this trade.

Cement (Rs. 64 lakhs).—The imports of cement were on a lower level than in the preceding year, the quantity fell from 127,800 tons to 121,800 tons and the value from Rs. 68 to Rs. 64 lakhs.

Coal (Rs. 41½ lakhs).—Imports of foreign coal rose by 81 per cent in quantity from 171,000 tons in 1928-29 to 324,000 tons in 1929-30 and by 29 per cent in value from Rs. 33 lakhs to Rs. 41½ lakhs. To meet the industrial demands of Bombay coal was imported from the Union of South Africa to the extent of 197,000 tons compared with 105,000 tons in 1928-29 and 155,000 tons in 1927-28. It should be remembered that at the beginning of 1928, South African railways made a reduction in their rates for transportation of bunker and cargo coal from certain mines to Durban which was followed by a further reduction effective from January 1929, for more distant collieries.

The following table shows the sources of the imports of foreign coal during the past five years —

	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
United Kingdom	97,000	13,000	52,000	39,000	19,000
Natal	114,000	80,000	155,000	105,000	197,000
Japan	14,000	1,000	6,000	1,000	1,000
Portuguese East Africa	126,000	26,000	35,000	21,000	
Australia	12,000	13,000	9,000	1,000	2,000

Matches (Rs. 11 lakhs).—India is no longer dependent on foreign countries for her supply of matches, as the local industry which has grown up behind the protection of the tariff is in a position practically to meet all her requirements. Since the imposition of the high duties in 1922 which were declared protective in 1925 in accordance with the recommendations

of the Tariff Board imports of matches have progressively declined and in 1929-30 amounted to only 1 million gross of boxes valued at Rs. 11 lakhs as compared with 1½ million gross valued at Rs. 17 lakhs in 1928-29 and 1½ million gross valued at Rs. 2.04 lakhs in 1921-22, when lower rates of duty prevailed.

III.—EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE

The following table shows the comparative importance of the principal articles exported from British India —

EXPORTS

(In thousands of Rupees)

	1925 26	1926 27	1927 28	1928 29	1929 30	Percentage on total exports of merchandise in 1929 30
Jute raw	37 94.57	26 78.04	30 66.28	36 34.92	27 17.38	8.74
Jute manufactures	58 83.96	33 18.09	53 56.43	56 90.49	51 92.63	16.71
Cotton raw and waste	95.91 42	59 14.19	48.19.53	66 69.10	65.60.34	21.11
Cotton manufactures	9.64 85	10 74.85	8 67.23	7 79.55	7 18.67	2.31
Grain pulse and flour	49 03.89	39 24.90	42.92.03	33.69.42	34 79.16	11.19
Seeds	29.43.68	19.04.77	28.59.30	29.22.52	28.46.76	8.62
Tea	27 12.17	29.03.77	32.48.40	26.60.44	25.00.64	8.37
Metals and ores	7 28.82	7 20.66	8 97.08	8 91.63	10 88.96	3.83
Leather	7 10.21	7 37.69	9 07.27	9 30.74	8 18.24	2.63
Hides and skins raw	7 28.38	7 17.97	8 80.94	9 55.28	7 98.27	2.57
Lac	6 90.10	5 47.24	6 98.86	8 64.28	6 96.72	2.24
Wool raw and manufactures	4 59.46	4 68.28	5 33.83	5 90.71	5 33.54	1.72
Paraffin wax	1 09.45	1 84.60	2 42.46	2 45.54	3 17.99	1.02
Oilcakes	2 10.62	2 52.76	3 14.19	3 54.18	3 11.92	1.00
Spices	1 76.28	1 55.97	2 39.96	1 58.90	1 96.39	.63
Wood and timber	1 95.74	1 62.04	1 65.73	1 76.86	1 80.07	.58
Rubber, raw	2 84.10	2 60.14	2 57.09	1 99.85	1 78.88	.57
Coffee	1 65.28	1 32.63	2 31.92	1 69.25	1 45.40	.47
Opium	1 93.37	2 11.85	1 99.09	1 57.42	1 42.00	.46
Manures	1 17.49	1 25.40	1 28.01	1 22.16	1 24.95	.40
Fodder bran and pollards	1 28.08	1 06.25	1 36.74	1 44.93	1 18.63	.38
Dyeing and tanning substances	1 33.11	1 17.72	1 60.70	1 18.06	1 11.57	.36
Tobacco	1 11.40	1 04.15	1 06.13	1 29.47	1 08.42	.34
Cotir	1 08.27	99.86	1 13.75	1 06.27	1 04.68	.34
Misc	1 04.17	1 08.41	92.84	90.47	1 08.08	.33
Fruits and vegetables	83.46	89.88	1 05.42	95.15	90.62	.29
Fish (excluding canned fish)	75.44	75.58	87.13	78.24	78.81	.24
Oils	1 79.27	95.71	70.98	66.65	72.53	.23
Coal and coke	34.80	81.53	76.48	71.83	72.05	.23
Hemp raw	1 09.17	82.76	60.83	87.52	65.33	.22
Provisions and oil	64.94	60.95	61.21	64.48	60.40	.19
Drugs and medicines	35.77	37.10	34.53	41.61	49.45	.16
Animals living	34.62	33.82	44.87	39.95	36.86	.12
Silk raw and manufactures	38.76	35.08	42.96	32.17	32.31	.10
Fibre for brushes and brooms	22.20	25.84	29.63	25.92	23.15	.09
Apparel	23.90	22.80	23.82	17.62	24.62	.08
Bristles	19.33	13.66	16.18	15.04	14.26	.05
Cordage and rope	16.92	18.44	18.52	16.02	14.10	.05
Candles	15.86	8.61	12.55	9.33	10.91	.04
Saltpetre	20.28	12.12	12.18	9.90	8.87	.03
Horns tips etc	9.35	7.91	9.18	7.95	7.53	.02
Tallow stearine and wax	10.89	14.00	11.15	7.97	4.04	.01
Sugar	7.06	5.78	7.81	5.48	5.68	.01
All other articles	4 91.60	4 82.90	5 42.88	4 96.55	4 78.35	1.62
TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS	8 74 83.21	8 07 43.56	8 19 15.35	8 30 12.79	8 10 80.55	100

Jute and jute manufactures (Rs. 78.18 lakhs).—The total area under jute in 1929 was 3 317 000 acres and the total out turn was 9.8 million bales. The out-turn of jute in 1928 was 10 million bales whereas in 1927 it was 10.2 million bales. Thus there was a slight decline in the out turn of jute in the year under review. The decline was due almost entirely to a net reduction in the yield of Assam by 311,000 bales owing to heavy rains and floods. The out-turn of jute in Bengal actually showed an increase of about 141 000 bales.

The total weight of raw manufactured jute exported during the year amounted to 1 765 000 tons or 44 000 tons less than in the preceding year. The total value declined from Rs. 89 crores in 1928-29 to Rs. 79 crores in 1929-30, a drop of Rs. 10 crores. Raw jute accounted for 34 per cent of this value and jute manufactures for 66 per cent as compared with 36 per cent and 64 per cent respectively in the preceding year. The following statement compares the quantities exported during 1928-29 and each of the past three years—

	1913-14	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Jute (in thou sand tons)	768	892	888	807
Bags (in millions)	869	463	494	522
Cloth (in million yards)	1 061	1 513	1 568	1 651

Cotton (Rs. 65.88 lakhs).—The home demand for the cotton crop of 1928-29 was very moderate owing to the severe slump in the cotton mill industry. This depressed the price of Indian cotton and the parity throughout the year was turning more and more in favour of Indian cotton as against American cotton.

This naturally led to an increase in the exports of raw cotton in the year under review as compared with the preceding two years. Exports in 1929-30 amounted to 4 670 000 bales as compared with 3 712 000 bales in 1928-29 and 3 686 000 bales in 1927-28, an increase of 358 000 bales over 1928-29 and of 1 384 000 bales over 1927-28. Owing to the decline in the price of Indian cotton however the increased exports of 1930-31 were valued only at Rs. 65 crores as compared with Rs. 66 crores in 1928-29. Another interesting fact to be noted as regards raw cotton exports of this year is that the increase in exports was shared by most of India's customers and was not confined to any particular country. Japan as usual was India's biggest customer and took 1 640 000 bales valued at Rs. 27 crores in 1928-29 as compared with 1 610 000 bales valued at Rs. 29 crores in 1928-29. China the next biggest customer increased her share from 408 000 bales valued at Rs. 7.3 crores in 1928-29 to 468 000 bales valued at Rs. 9.3 crores in 1929-30. Italy increased her takings from 384 000 bales valued at Rs. 6.6 crores to 393 000 bales valued at Rs. 5.8 crores. Exports to Germany increased from 324 000 bales in 1928-29 to 344 000 bales in 1929-30, the value however declining from Rs. 5.7 crores to Rs. 4.9 crores. Exports to Belgium declined very slightly from 347 000 bales valued at Rs. 6.2 crores in 1928-29 to 341 000 bales valued at Rs. 5.6 crores in 1929-30. The United Kingdom took 270 000 bales as compared with 241 000 bales in 1928-29. There was, however, a decline in value from Rs. 4.4 crores to Rs. 4.3 crores in 1929-30. France increased her takings from 204 000 bales valued at Rs. 3.6 crores to 253 000 bales valued at Rs. 3.9 crores. The United States of America took 81 000 bales valued at Rs. 1.2 crores in 1929-30 as compared with 47 000 bales valued at Rs. 77 lakhs in 1928-29.

The Netherlands and Spain also increased their takings. The following statement gives the monthly exports of Indian cotton during the last five years together with the pre-war average—

Exports of Indian cotton in bales of 400 lbs

	Pre war average 1908-14	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
April	303 800	430 100	385 400	226 100	321 800	386 300
May	248 800	405 900	395 200	200 600	372 400	404 900
June	218 900	452 400	280 100	240 300	304 900	382 200
July	190 100	308 400	237 800	180 400	255 200	316 700
August	110 300	205 400	206 200	201 600	210 000	231 300
September	75 300	126 000	104 700	152 500	191 200	211 400
October	66 800	87 400	99 300	88 800	254 000	176 100
November	101 400	120 200	62 000	93 500	175 700	207 200
December	1 18 200	306 100	153 900	193 700	273 300	297 600
January	319 800	540 300	446 100	400 600	400 200	453 700
February	318 800	622 500	398 600	323 500	356 300	493 500
March	295 800	545 700	176 700	384 800	559 500	506 600
Total	2 407 300	4 173 400	3,188 000	2 686 200	3 711 700	4 670 500

Cotton manufactures (Rs. 7.19 lakhs).—The cotton industry in 1929-30 did not attain normal conditions and the situation in Bombay was particularly disturbed on account of continual labour troubles. The production of yarn in mills in India in 1929-30 showed an enormous increase of 186 million lbs over the low figure of 1928-29 and of 25 million lbs over the record figure of 1927-28. The total production in India in 1929-30 amounted to 834 million

lbs as compared with 648 million lbs in 1928-29 and 808 million lbs. in 1927-28. The production of piecegoods in Indian mills in 1929-30 increased by 28 per cent as compared with the preceding year. The proportion of the exports of piecegoods to the total production was 8 per cent as compared with 8 per cent in 1928-29 and 7 per cent in 1927-28. The actual quantity exported declined by 16 million yards or 10.7 per cent as compared with that of the preceding year.

Detailed figures of export for the past three years and for 1913-14 are given below —

	1913-14 (pre war year)	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	Million yards	Million yards	Million yards	Million yards
Grey and bleached piecegoods—				
Shirtings	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.5
Chaddars and dhuties	7.6	3.8	3.9	4.0
T. cloth and domestics	21.6	1.4	3.0	2.0
Drills and jeans	6	4	3	3
Other sorts	12.2	11.6	8.4	7.4
TOTAL	44.2	19.3	17.8	16.2
Coloured piecegoods	45.0	149.3	131.4	117.2
TOTAL PIECEGOODS	89.2	168.6	149.3	133.4

Foodgrains and flour (Rs. 34.79 lakhs).—Exports under this head went up considerably in the year under review as compared with the preceding year. It must be noted, however, that this increase was due entirely to the larger exports of rice. Exports of other kinds of foodgrains showed considerable decreases. The total quantity of foodgrains and flour exported amounted to 2,510,000 tons as against 2,300,000 tons in the preceding year an increase of 210,000 tons. The increase in value was from Rs. 33.69 lakhs in 1928-29 to Rs. 34.79 lakhs in 1929-30 an increase of Rs. 1.10 lakhs. Shipments of rice increased from 1,816,000 tons in 1928-29 to 2,328,000 tons in 1929-30, an increase of 512,000 tons. Exports of wheat almost reached the vanishing point and were only 13,000 tons in 1929-30 as compared with 115,000 tons in 1928-29 and 1,308,000 tons the pre-war average. Exports of wheat flour also declined by 3,000 tons to 51,000 tons. Shipments of barley sank to the very low figure of 6,000 tons as compared with 138,000 tons in the preceding year. Exports of pulses declined from 114,000 tons in 1928-29 to 97,000 tons in 1929-30 and those of jowar and bajra from 42,000 tons to 10,000 tons.

Oilseeds (Rs. 26.48 lakhs).—As in the preceding year oilseeds occupied the fourth place among India's exports, the first three being jute and cotton raw and manufactured and food grain. The total exports of oilseed amounted to 1,195,000 tons valued at Rs. 26.48

lakhs and showed a decrease of 10 per cent in quantity and 11 per cent in value below the preceding year's figures. Compared with the pre-war average there was a decline of 18 per cent in quantity but an increase of 9 per cent in value. The table below shows the quantities of the principal kinds of oilseeds exported during the last three years and in the pre-war quinquennium. Owing to a shortage of world supplies Indian linseed was in better demand but exports of all other varieties of oilseed showed a decided drop. During the first-half of the year prices remained at a reasonable level. Later an acute depression set in as a result of the financial crisis in the United States of America which has its repercussions in Europe, and prices began to decline.

	Pre-war average	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	(Thousands of Tons)			
Linseed	379	222	157	248
Rape seed	273	66	77	44
Groundnuts	212	618	788	714
Castor	114	122	127	106
Cotton	240	153	131	58
Sesamum	119	11	30	11
Copra	31			
Others	85	22	24	14
TOTAL	1,453	1,209	1,328	1,195

Tea (Rs. 34.81 lakhs).—The tea industry was in the throes of a severe depression. The outstanding feature of the tea trade in the year under review was a serious drop in prices which at certain stages of the season were definitely below the cost of production. The total production of tea in India in 1929 was estimated at 433 million lbs as compared with 404 million lbs in 1928 and 391 million lbs in 1927. As usual Assam contributed the largest share, viz 250 million lbs or 50 per cent. of the total output while Northern India, excluding Assam, contributed 116 million lbs or 27 per cent and Southern India 58 million lbs or 13 per cent. The production in Assam increased by 13 million lbs whereas the production in the rest of Northern India increased by 15 million lbs. The total area under tea in 1929 was 788,000 acres as against 776,000 acres in 1928.

Export of tea by sea to foreign countries

	1905-06	1915-16	1924-25	1925-26	1296-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
	lbs. (1,000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs (1 000)	lbs. (1 000)	lbs. (1 000)	lbs (1 000)
From Northern India (Calcutta and Chittagong)	199 737	301,408	299 747	280 024	301 607	310 109	300 845	326 363
From Southern India (Madras ports)	12 680	35 840	37 717	43 133	42 933	40 744	49,321	49 671
From Bombay, Sind and Burma	1 807	11 227	2 643	2 576	1 372	761	436	600
Total	214 224	338 470	340 107	325 733	345 264	351 614	350 602	376 634

Hides and skins (Rs. 16.03 lakhs).—The trade experienced a severe depression in 1929-30 the total value registered having declined from Rs. 18.87 lakhs to Rs. 16.03 lakhs. This rather heavy set-back was due mainly to reduced consumption in the principal import countries viz., the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States of America. The average declared value for the exports showed a slight decline from Rs. 1 12 4 to Rs. 1 11 5 per lb in the case of tanned hides and skins although in the case of the raw stuff there was a nominal improvement from Rs. 0.10-4 to Rs. 0.10-9 per lb. Shipments of raw hides and skins during the year amounted to 63 100 tons valued at Rs. 7.98 lakhs as compared with 68 100 tons valued at Rs. 9.56 lakhs in the preceding year.

Oils (Rs. 72 lakhs).—Compared with the preceding year the total value of the exports of oils of all sorts in 1929-30 recorded a decline of Rs. 14 lakhs or 17 per cent and amounted to Rs. 72 lakhs. India's exports of mineral oils are usually very small, being valued at a little over a lakh of rupees a year. Exports of pig iron amounted to 369 000 tons valued at Rs. 2.59 lakhs as compared with 449,000 tons valued at Rs. 2 11 1/2 lakhs in the preceding year, 398 000 tons valued at Rs. 1 78 1/2 lakhs in 1927-28. Japan is the best customer for Indian pig iron although in recent times the demand from that country has shown signs of weakening. The following figures show the production of pig iron and steel in India during the past three years —

In thousand tons

Lac (Rs. 6.97 lakhs).—The exports of lac declined by 10 per cent in quantity from 743 000 cwts. in 1928-29 to 669,000 cwts. in 1929-30 and by 19 per cent in value from Rs. 8.64 lakhs to Rs. 6.97 lakhs.

Raw Wool (Rs. 4.42 lakhs).—The export trade in raw wool, which had expanded from 50 million lbs. valued at Rs. 4.36 lakhs in 1927-28 to 56 million lbs. valued at Rs. 4.89 lakhs in 1928-29, dropped again to 50 million lbs. valued at Rs. 4.42 lakhs in 1929-30. Of the total quantity shipped the United Kingdom took 40 million lbs. and the United States of America 9 million lbs. as against 46 million lbs. and 8 million lbs. in the preceding year.

	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30
Production of pig iron	1,162	1 050	1,376
steel (ingots)	600	396	501
finished steel	29	276	412

Air Routes : London-Alexandria-Karachi.

TIME TABLE OF THE JOURNEY

Just as this page was going to press a cable from London announced radical changes in the Air Mail service between England and India with effect from May 18 1931. Unfortunately very few details were available but the following table gives an approximate idea of the new timings —

Eastbound.		Cmt *	Day
London (Hemse)	(Airways dep	07 30	Sat
Croydon	dep	08 15	
Paris (Le Bourget)	arr	10 45	
Basle	arr	14 30	
Genoa	dep	06 00	Sun
Athens	arr	p m	
Alexandria	arr	14 30	Mon
Gaza	arr	p m	
Ruthbah	arr	a m	Tues
Baghdad	arr	noon	
Basra	dep	a m	Wed
Bushire	arr	a m	
Lingeh	arr	a m	
Jaak	dep	a m	Thu
Gwadar	arr	a m	
Karachi	arr	10 05	
Delhi	arr	p m	Fri

* Gmt is Greenwich Mean Time which is kept by the clocks on the aeroplanes, and allowance must be made for local Standard Time. For example the time of arrival at Karachi (1005) Gmt is equivalent to 15 35 hours (3 35 p m) Indian Standard Time.

Westbound

With effect from May 18 1931 the westbound air mails will leave Delhi on Monday morning and Karachi on Tuesday morning and flying the foregoing route reversed will reach London on the following Sunday afternoon. No details of timings are available.

It should be noted that the section between Basle and Genoa is covered by rail over the Swiss Federal and Italian State Railways.

The fares from Karachi are as follows — to Baghdad £40 to Alexandria, £72 to London, £121. The through fare from Karachi to London allows for a weight of 100 kilos (221 pounds) per passenger and a passenger is entitled to free conveyance of luggage to the extent of the difference between his own weight and the 221 pounds mentioned above. The rate for excess luggage is just over twelve shillings per kilo. Children in arms are weighed with and carried under the same tickets as their mothers or nurses, and other children are charged full fare.

On the Indian State Air Service between Karachi and Delhi via Jodhpur the fare is Rs 160 and the same rule regarding baggage applies but the charge for excess baggage is naturally less.

Africa and the Far East

Since the last issue of this Year Book, several new air services which are of considerable importance to India have been inaugurated and of these the most notable is the England-Africa service which connects with the England-India service at Alexandria and provides an entirely new route between Delhi and Central Africa. It will be extended in the course of the present year to Cape Town.

Other important air lines recently established are the French service between Paris and Saigon and the Dutch service between Amsterdam and Batavia both of which pass through Baghdad and Karachi.

Baghdad in particular is developing rapidly in importance and it is said without reason, that it will soon become the Clapham Junction of the air. This will certainly be the case if the projected services from Persia and Russia materialise.

The proposed extension of the England-India air mail to Australia is still under discussion—a state of affairs which conceivably may be hastened by the establishment of the French and Dutch services to the Far East.

The Indian Stores Department

Current Rules of Working—(1) On 1st April 1930 under pressure from the Public Accounts Committee of the Legislative Assembly issued orders that the purchase of all classes of stores handled by the Department which may be obtainable in India in conformity with the rules for the supply of articles for the public service by the undermentioned department and officers should in future invariably be entrusted to the Stores Department—

Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department

Director Geological Survey of India

Chief Inspector of Mines in India

Chief Inspector of Explosives with the Government of India

Controller of Printing and Stationery India (except Printing and Stationery stores)

Controller of Patents and Designs

Director General of Observatories

Principal, Indian School of Mines

Director of Civil Aviation in India

P W D, Delhi Provinces (except special articles of furniture and fittings)

Superintending Engineer P W D, Simla and

Department of Industries and Labour Secretariat

Revised Rules to regulate the purchase of stores (other than printing and stationery stores) by all departments and officers of the Central Government and of the Provinces other than Governor's Provinces came into effect on 1 January 1931 with the object of effecting the policy of Government of making purchases of stores for the public services in such manner as to encourage the development of industries in India to the utmost possible extent consistently with economy and efficiency. They prescribe that preference in making purchases shall be given in the following order—

First to articles which are produced in India in the form of raw materials or are manufactured in India from raw materials produced in India provided that the quality is sufficiently good for the purpose

Second to articles wholly or partially manufactured in India from imported materials provided that the quality is sufficiently good for the purpose

Third, to articles of foreign manufacture held in stock in India, provided that they are of suitable type and quality requisite

Fourth to articles manufactured abroad which need to be specially imported

The new rules are expected materially to widen the scope of operations of the department. The value of the contracts entered into by the department for the supply of stores during 1929-30 the latest period for which figures are available was Rs 4,26,25,000. This was an increase of 19 per cent on the record in the preceding year despite the constant downward trend of market prices and economies effected by the extension of measures of standardisation and bulk buying of materials. The fullest possible advantage was taken of the resources of India and as a result a large quantity of new business was placed with Indian manufacturers. Textile stores bought were almost entirely of Indian origin or of Indian manufacture and there was a considerable increase in the value and proportion of engineering hardware and miscellaneous stores wholly or partly made in India. There was continued large reduction in the number and value of tenders on the London Stores Department.

The increase in the value of purchases recorded in 1929-30 was contributed principally by the following indenting authorities—

Civil departments of Central Government increase 77 per cent

Railway administrations increase 45 per cent

Indian States, increase 6.3 per cent

Quasi public bodies increase 12 per cent

Possibilities of Indian sources of supply continued to be explored and as a result 170 firms were added to the list of approved contractors. Efforts to assist manufacturers in India to improve the quality of their products by means of technical advice and suggestions were continued.

Financial Loss.—The department's accounts for 1928-29 as presented in the report for that year disclosed a deficit of Rs 4,98,733. The final accounts subsequently compiled showed the deficit to be Rs 6,92,161. The actual deficit has since been shown to have been Rs 10,61,782. The figure is larger than that for any preceding year. The percentage of working expenses was 44.5 per cent higher than in any preceding year. The department ascribes the deterioration of its position to industrial unrest.

The question of definitely declaring the department to be a commercial or service undertaking has long been under consideration of Government and they decided in January 1930 that it could not for the present be declared a commercial undertaking as some of its activities were admittedly not of a commercial character, and that it should therefore be treated as a public service department.

Bombay Stamp Duties.

	Rs. a		Rs. a.
<i>Acknowledgment of Debt</i> ex. Rs. 20	0 1	Exe. Rs. 10, but not exe. Rs. 50	0 4
<i>Affidavit or Declaration</i>	2 0	Exe. Rs. 50, but not exe. Rs. 100	0 8
<i>Agreement or Memo. of Agreement—</i>		Exe. Rs. 100 & does not exe. Rs. 200	1 0
(a) If relating to the sale of a bill of exchange	0 4	Exe. Rs. 200 & does not exe. Rs. 300	2 4
(b) If relating to sale of a Government security, or share in an incorporated company or other body corporate—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, a. 2 for every Rs. 10,000 or part.		Up to Rs. 1,000, every Rs. 100 or part	0 12
(c) If not otherwise provided for	1 0	For every Rs. 500 or part, beyond Rs. 1,000	3 12
<i>Appointment in execution of a power—</i>		<i>Bond, Administration, Outcasts, Security or Mortgage Deed—</i> For amount not exceeding Rs. 1,000, same duty as a Bond	
(a) Of trustees	15 0	In any other case	10 0
(b) Of property, moveable or immovable	30 0	<i>Cancellation</i>	5 0
<i>Articles of Association of Company—</i>		<i>Certificates or other Document relating to Shares</i>	0 2
(a) Where the company has no share capital or the nominal share capital does not exceed Rs. 2,500	25 0	<i>Charter Party</i>	2 0
(b) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 2,500 but does not exceed Rs. 1,00,000	50 0	<i>Cheque and demand drafts are exempt from stamp duty with effect from 1st July 1927</i>	
(c) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 1,00,000	100 0	<i>Composition—Deed</i>	20 0
<i>Articles of Clerkship</i>	250 0	<i>Conveyance, not being a Transfer—</i>	
<i>Award, any decision in writing by an Arbitrator, other than by an Order of the Court. The same duty as a Bond for the amount or value of the property to which the award relates as set forth in such award subject to a maximum</i>	20 0	Not exceeding Rs. 50	0 8
<i>Bill of Exchange payable on demand</i>	0 1	Exceeding Rs. 50 not exceeding Rs. 100	1 0
Where payable otherwise than on demand but not more than one year after date or sight (if drawn singly)—Not exe. Rs. 200, a. 3 ex. Rs. 200, not exe. Rs. 400, a. 6, ex. Rs. 400, not exe. Rs. 600, a. 9, ex. Rs. 600, not exe. Rs. 800, a. 12, ex. Rs. 800, not exe. Rs. 1,000, a. 15, ex. Rs. 1,000, not exe. Rs. 1,200, R. 1 a. 2, ex. Rs. 1,200, not exe. Rs. 1,600, R. 1 a. 8 ex. Rs. 1,600, not exe. Rs. 2,000, R. 2 a. 4, ex. Rs. 2,000, not exe. Rs. 5,000, R. 4 a. 8, ex. Rs. 5,000, not exe. Rs. 7,500, R. 6 a. 12, ex. Rs. 7,500, not exe. Rs. 10,000, R. 9, ex. Rs. 10,000, not exe. Rs. 15,000, R. 13 a. 8, ex. Rs. 15,000, not exe. Rs. 20,000, R. 16, ex. Rs. 20,000, not exe. Rs. 25,000, R. 22 a. 8, ex. Rs. 25,000, not exe. Rs. 30,000, R. 27, and for every add Rs. 10,000 or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 30,000 Rs. 9		Exceeding Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 200	2 0
Where payable at more than one year after date or sight, same duty as a Bond	Rs. a	Exceeding Rs. 200 but does not exceed Rs. 300	3 8
<i>Bill of Lading</i>	0 8	Where it exceeds Rs. 300 but does not exceed Rs. 400	12 0
<i>Bond (not otherwise provided for)—</i>		Where it exceeds Rs. 400 but does not exceed Rs. 500	15 8
Not exceeding Rs. 10	0 2		

Rs. a	Rs. a
Where it exceeds Rs 500 but does not exceed Rs 600	19 0
Where it exceeds Rs 600 but does not exceed Rs 700	22 8
Where it exceeds Rs 700 but does not exceed Rs 800	26 0
Where it exceeds Rs 800 but does not exceed Rs 900	29 8
Where it exceeds Rs 900 but does not exceed Rs 1,000	38 0
And for every Rs 500 or part thereof in excess of Rs 1,000	17 8
<i>Copy or Extract</i> —If the original was not chargeable with duty, or if duty with which it was chargeable does not exceed 1 Rupee	1 0
In any other case	2 0
<i>Counterpart or Duplicate</i> —If the duty with which the original instrument is chargeable does not exceed one rupee—The same duty as is payable on the original in any other case	2 0
<i>Delivery Order</i>	0 1
<i>Entry in any High Court of an Advocate or Vakil</i>	500 0
In the case of an Attorney	500 0
<i>Instrument</i> —Apprenticeship	10 0
Divorce	2 0
Other than Will, recording an adoption or conferring or purporting to confer Authority to adopt	20 0
<i>Lease</i> —Where rent is fixed and no premium is paid for less than 1 year, same duty as Bond for whole amount, not more than 3 years, same as Bond for average annual rent reserved, over 3 years, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to amount or value of the average annual rent reserved, for indefinite term, same as Conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount or value of the average annual rent which would be paid or delivered for the first ten years if the lease continued as long, in perpetuity, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to one fifth of rents paid in respect of first 50 years Where there is premium and no rent, same as Conveyance for amount of premium premium with rent, same as Conveyance or amount of premium in addition to the duty which would have been payable on the lease if no fine or premium or advances had been paid or delivered.	
<i>Letter</i> —Allotment of Shares	0 2
Credit License	0 2
<i>Memo of Association of Company</i> —If accompanied by Articles of Association	10 0
If not so accompanied	80 0
<i>Notarial Act</i>	2 0
<i>Note or Memo intimating the purchase or sale—</i>	
(a) Of any Goods exceeding in value Rs. 20	0 4
(b) Of any Stock or marketable Security exceeding in value Rs. 30—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, a 2 for every Rs 10 000 or part.	
<i>Note of Protest by a Ship's Master</i>	1 0
<i>Partnership</i> —Where the capital does not exceed Rs. 500	5 0
In any other case	20 0
Dissolution of	10 0
<i>Policy of Insurance—</i>	
(1) <i>Sea</i> —Where premium does not exceed rate of 2%, or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of amount insured	0 2
In any other case for Rs 1,000 or part thereof	0 1
(2) <i>For time</i> —For every Rs 1 000 or part insured not exc. 6 months	0 2
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 12 months	0 4
If drawn in duplicate for each part—Half the above rates, for Sea and Time	
(3) <i>Fire</i> —When the sum insured does not exceed Rs 5 000	0 8
In any other case	1 0
In respect of each receipt for any payment of a premium on any renewal of an original policy—One half of the duty payable in respect of the original policy in addition to the amount if any chargeable under Art 53 (Receipt)	
(4) <i>Accident and Sickness</i> —Against Railway accident, valid for a single journey only	0 1
In any other case—for the maximum amount which may become payable in the case of any single accident or sickness where such amount does not exceed Rs 1,000, and also where amount exc. Rs. 1,000 for every Rs 1 000 or part	0 2
(5) <i>Life or other Insurance not specifically provided for—</i>	
For every sum insured not exceeding Rs. 1 000 and also for every Rs 1,000 or part	0 6
If drawn in duplicate, for each part	0 3
Insurance by way of indemnity against liability to pay damages on account of accidents to workmen employed by or under the insurer or against liability to pay compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 For every Rs 100 or part payable as premium	0 1

	Rs & a		Rs & a
In case of a re-insurance by one Company with another— $\frac{1}{2}$ of duty payable in respect of the original insurance, but not less than 1 anna or more than 1 Re		upon another person or against any specified property—	
Policies of all classes of Insurance not included in Article 47 of Schedule 1 of Stamp Act of 1899 covering goods, merchandise, personal effects, crops and other property against loss or damage, are liable to the same duty as Policies of Fire Insurance		(a) If the amount or value of the claim does not exceed Rs. 1,000—The same duty as a Bond for such amount or value as set forth in the Release	
Power of Attorney—		(b) In any other case	10 0
For the sole purpose of procuring the registration of one or more documents in relation to a single transaction or for admitting execution of one or more such documents	1 0	Respondentia Bond —The same duty as a Bond for the amount of the loan secured.	
When required in suits or proceedings under the Presidency Small Causes Courts Act 1882	1 0	Security Bond —(a) When the amount secured does not exceed Rs. 1,000—The same duty as a Bond for the amount secured	
Authorising 1 person or more to act in a single transaction other than that mentioned above	2 0	(b) In any other case	10 0
Authorising not more than 5 persons to act jointly and severally in more than 1 transaction, or generally	10 0	Settlement —The same duty as a Bond for the sum equal to the amount or value of the property—settled as set forth in such settlement.	
Authorising more than 5 but not more than 10 persons to act	20 0	Revocation of Settlement —The same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned as set forth in the instrument of revocation but not exceeding ten rupees	
When given for consideration and authorising the Attorney to sell any immovable property—The same duty as a conveyance for the amount of the consideration		Share-warrant to bearer issued under the Indian Companies Act.—One and a half times the duty payable on a conveyance for a consideration equal to the nominal amount of the shares specified in the warrant.	
In any other case, for each person authorised	2 0	Shipping Order	0 1
Interimutory Notes—		Surrender of Lease —When duty with which lease is chargeable does not exceed Rs 5—The duty with which such Lease is chargeable	
(a) When payable on demand—		In any other case	5 0
(i) When the amount or value does not exceed Rs 250	0 1	Transfers of Shares —One half of the duty payable on a Conveyance for a consideration equal to the value of the share	
(ii) When the amount or value exceeds Rs. 250 but does not exceed Rs. 1,000	0 2	Transfer of any Interest secured by a Bond, Mortgage-deed, or Policy of Insurance —If duty on such does not exceed Rs 5—The duty with which such Bond, &c., is chargeable.	
(iii) In any other case	0 4	In any other case	10 0
(b) When payable otherwise than on demand—The same duty as a Bill of exchange for the same amount payable otherwise than on demand		—of any property under the Administrator General's Act 1874 Section 31	10 0
Protest of Bill or Note	2 0	—of any trust property without consideration from one trustee to another trustee or from a trustee to a beneficiary—Five rupees or such smaller amount as may be chargeable for transfer of shares.	
Protest by the Master of a Ship	2 0	Transfer of Leases by way of assignment and not by way of under-lease—The same duty as a conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount of the consideration for the transfer	
Proxy	0 2	Trust, Declaration of —Same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned but not exceeding	15 0
Receipt for value exc. Rs 20	0 1	Revocation of —Ditto, but not exceeding	10 0
Reconveyance of mortgaged property—		ing	0 8
(a) If the consideration for which the property was mortgaged does not exceed Rs. 1,000—the same duty as a bond for the amount of such consideration as set forth in the Reconveyance.		Warrant for Goods	
(b) In any other case	10 0		
Release —that is to say, any instrument whereby a person renounces a claim			

The Indian National Congress.

For a complete history of the movement represented by the Indian National Congress the reader is referred to earlier editions of the Indian Year Book. The Congress was founded in 1885 by Mr. Allan Octavian Hume a retired member of the Indian Civil Service and it held its first session in Bombay at Christmas of that year, the fundamental principles of the Congress were laid down to be —

Firstly, the fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements that constitute the population of India,

Secondly the gradual regeneration along all lines mental, moral, social and political of the nation thus evolved and

Thirdly the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or injurious to the latter country

With these objects in view the Congress pursued an uneventful career until 1907. It undoubtedly exercised a great influence in inducing a spirit of national unity amongst the diverse peoples of India, in focussing the chief political grievances and in providing a training ground for Indian politicians. But in 1907 the Extremists, chiefly of the Deccan and the Central Provinces who had for some time chafed under the control of the older generation succeeded in wrecking the Surat session of the Congress and produced a split which had long been seen to be imminent. The senior members of the Congress therefore re-crystallised its creed in definite terms. They laid down that—

"The objects of the Indian National Congress are the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self governing Members of the British Empire and a participation by them in the rights and responsibilities of the Empire on equal terms with those members. These objects are to be achieved by constitutional means by bringing about a steady reform of the existing system of administration and by promoting national unity, fostering public spirit and developing and organising the intellectual, moral, economic and industrial resources of the country

For some years following 1907 efforts were made to heal the split and these were without avail until 1916 when a re-united Congress met at

Lahore under the presidency of Babu Ambika Charan Mookundar of Faridpur in Bengal. But the union then effected was purely superficial. The differences between the Moderates and the Extremists was fundamental, the Extremists captured the machinery of the Congress and during the period of the special session held at Calcutta in September 1920 the Congress passed entirely under the domination of Mr. Gandhi and his lieutenants. In 1927 the Congress actually adopted independence as the goal of India. In the following two years the Congress made what the extreme leftists described as a climb down while the Liberals moved towards the left with the result that for a time there appeared to be a commonness of purpose between the Liberals and Congressmen. Both boycotted the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms and both collaborated in drawing up a scheme of the Dominion Status for India. Liberator of unbroken alliance continued for some months. At its 1928 Session the Congress while adhering to Indian independence agreed to accept Dominion Status demanded before the end of 1929. China was trending towards a satisfactory settlement when in the latter half of 1929 the Congress insisted on the immediate grant of Dominion Status or an assurance that Dominion Status would be the basis of discussion at the Round Table Conference to be convened in England between representatives of England and the two Indies. If it was the purport of the way the Liberals went their way and the Congress its own. In fulfilment of the ultimatum issued at its previous Session the Congress at its 1929 Session declared for complete independence or *Purna Swaraj*. Throughout the year 1930 the Congress was engaged in a struggle on the law of the land which it was hoped would help India attain complete independence. The extremist methods commanded a large measure of support in the country. Notwithstanding the proceedings of the Round Table Conference, a struggle went on in India between the Congress persistent in illegal activities and the Government endeavouring to put down lawlessness. At the time of writing these lines (early in the year 1931) negotiations are in progress between the Viceroy and Mr. Gandhi for a settlement of the political deadlock with a view to dispensation of consideration of the scheme drawn up by the Round Table Conference and the evolution of a constitutional machinery for the future Government of India.

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT

It was in 1920 that Mr. Gandhi who had only in the previous year unsuccessfully started his Passive Resistance struggle as a protest against the Rowlatt Act conceived his idea of non-co-operation. Originally intended to be a protest against the British policy towards Turkey the fighting of two other grievances was later on added to its first object, namely, the punishment of officials in the Punjab Martial Law regime and the securing of *Swaraj* for India. Mr. Gandhi and Mr. Shaukat Ali were able in 1920 to get the Calcutta Special Congress to endorse their programme of progressive non-violent non-co-operation which was

reiterated by the annual session at Nagpur which on Mr. Gandhi's motion changed its old creed into the attainment by India of *Swaraj* by all legitimate and peaceful means. The stern measures adopted by local Governments led to the imprisonment of a large number of active Congressmen with the result that the Ahmedabad Congress in 1921 made a grim resolve to challenge the repression movement by appointing Mr. Gandhi as dictator and by resolving to start a No Tax campaign at Bardoli. The riots in Chauri Chaura in 1922 preceded by the Bombay riots in 1921 during the Prince of Wales visit (see

1923 and 1924 editions of this book) opened Mr Gandhi's eyes to the impossibility of maintaining a non-violent atmosphere under existing conditions. He suspended his proposed civil disobedience campaign, and replaced it by what is known as the Bardoli Programme which eschewed all the aggressive items of non-co-operation in favour of the promotion of inter-communal unity and khaddar. Soon after Mr Gandhi was arrested for sedition, tried and sentenced to undergo imprisonment for six years (See 1923 and 1924 editions).

This turn of events threw cold water on the enthusiasm of non-co-operators who got discouraged. In order, therefore to sound the country's readiness for aggressive action once more, the All India Congress Committee appointed a Committee, known as the Civil Disobedience Committee, in June 1922. The Committee toured the country and in October, 1922, produced two reports, one favouring Council entry to offer obstruction to Government and the other recommending the adoption of the Bardoli Programme. A battle royal ensued between the two parties for two or three years the Swarajists—or the Co-operators, as they were derisively called by the non-co-operators—carrying the day throughout. Every little triumph of the Swarajists meant a diminution of the prestige and influence of the No-Changers. This went on for some time until the Belgaum session of the Congress, presided over by Mr Gandhi himself, suspended the non-co-operation programme. Thereby the movement was practically killed and strange to say it received its death blow at the hands of the very author of its being. But the fond parent did not lose heart and bided his time. His chance came in 1928 when the Congress was split into two warring camps. One was ready to accept Dominion Status for India while the other would have nothing short of independence. At the psychological moment Mr Gandhi staged a re-entry into the political arena—he had been but a silent spectator during the five preceding years—and professing to effect a compromise within the Congress, provided a loophole for the revival of non-co-operation. Although Dominion Status was actually declared in 1929 to be the goal of Indian political progress Mr Gandhi insisted on having it on the spot and when that was naturally refused he returned to his old love non-co-operation and boycott. He had been biding his time, and the astute politician that he is he reintroduced in December 1929 his formula that had been dead five years. Now it was not full boycott, the ban being placed only on the legislatures "sadder and wiser—but unfortunately, not sufficiently sad and wise—he exempted law courts, schools, etc., from his scheme. Complete independence was declared and non-co-operation was revived. Indeed the Congress Executive was authorised to give the signal also for a campaign of non-payment of taxes and civil disobedience. Early in 1930 the Congress executive appointed Mr Gandhi as 'Dictator for all India and gave him power to launch civil disobedience as and when he thought fit. This Mr Gandhi did in March and practically the whole country was set ablaze. There was open defiance of the law all over the land

notwithstanding the efforts of the Government to put down illegal activities (For details see 'Congress in 1930').

Congress in 1925-28.

The career of the Congress between the Belgaum session when the N (C) O movement was suspended and the years 1929-30 when civil disobedience was revived, was comparatively dull. During the first half of 1925 the Congress policy was one of aimless drift. The death of Mr C. R. Das demoralised the Swarajists. Mr Gandhi promptly went to their rescue and at the end of the year the Swarajists' political programme was formally adopted by the Lawnpore Congress. The 41st session of the Congress which met in Assam during Christmas week in 1926 set its face against the acceptance of ministries or other offices in the gift of the Government—in other words discontinued Responsive Co-operation, a new creed which had sprung up within the Swarajist ranks—and approved of the policy of rejection of budget and refusal of supplies until a response to the national demand was forthcoming.

All this talk and quarrel about the internal affairs of the Congress were set at rest by the non-inclusion of Indians on the personnel of the Royal Commission on Indian Reforms. Most of the leaders fancied that it would be an insult to India if Indians were not appointed members of the Commission. Even moderates, reputed for their sobriety and reasonableness, affected extremism. The Viceroy endeavoured—but in vain—to explain the position to Indian leaders (See Year Book of 1928).

Congressmen of course, met during Christmas 1927 and resolved to boycott the Simon Commission declared independence as the goal of India and offered some solutions for the Hindu-Muslim problem. In the following year the Congress in its plenary session at Calcutta declared specifically though conditionally that Dominion status would be acceptable to India. Thus it will be recalled marks a return to 1908 when soon after the Surat split it was stated that the objects of the Congress were among other things 'the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self-governing members of the British Empire. This, however, proved to be a mere smoke-screen raised by Congress tacticians not excluding Mr Gandhi to conceal from the world their real intention which was disclosed in December 1929. More about this presently.

The boycott of the Commission was a miserable failure and this reminded the Congressmen of the next duty which the 1927 session had imposed on them namely, the drafting of a Swaraj constitution for India. This they set out to do about the middle of 1928 when representatives of almost all political organisations met in Bombay at the invitation of the Congress Executive and appointed a Committee presided over by Pandit Motilal Nehru, to undertake the task.

The Committee consulted various leaders in the country and after two or three months hard labour produced a document, which however instead of being an all parties report, evoked more controversy than any other proposal.

in recent years regarding the future of India. An All Parties Convention met at Calcutta for the purpose of receiving and considering the All Parties Committee's report. The Convention adopted the Committee's proposal that India should have the same constitutional status in the community of nations known as the British Empire as the other Dominions with a Parliament having powers to make laws for peace order and government of India and an executive responsible to that Parliament. The Convention however failed to find a solution acceptable to all for the communal question (See Year Book of 1929).

The Congress which met in Calcutta during Christmas in 1928 under the presidency of Pandit Motilal Nehru was divided into three camps, the advocates of complete independence, those who wanted Dominion status and nothing beyond that, and Pandit Motilal sandwiched between the two with one foot in either camp. This was just the opportunity for which Mr. Gandhi had apparently been waiting and he staged a come back at the psychological moment. He threw in his weight with Pandit Motilal and sponsored a compromise formula. This satisfied neither wing but eventually a resolution was adopted which approved of the Nehru Report as a great step in political advance and, whilst adhering to the Madras resolution on independence, the Congress was prepared subject to the exigencies of the political situation, to adopt the Nehru constitution, if it was accepted by the British Parliament before the expiry of 1929 and if that did not happen the Congress would resolve non-violent non-cooperation. Congressmen could in the meanwhile carry on propaganda for independence.

Everyone knew that the Congress ultimatum meant nothing. Many thought that it was only the extremist's way of demanding recognition of India's right to Dominion Status. Pandit Motilal Nehru explaining in the Assembly the meaning of the Congress resolution said that it was an invitation to the Government to make up their minds within a year to fulfil the oft-repeated promise to put India on her legs. The Congress waited for an answer and there was a lull in the political atmosphere.

A few months later Mr. Gandhi submitted to the All India Congress Committee a scheme for organising nationwide civil resistance and wholesale non-co-operation by enrolling a quarter of the entire population of the country in the Congress so as to build an irresistible structure the decisions of which will be felt by the Viceroy. In the words of Pandit Motilal Nehru, the Congress was preparing itself to offer non-violent non-co-operation if its demand were not conceded before the expiry of the year. He prepared for the next signal on January 1, 1930. He announced:

The political outlook was gloomy indeed and there was a clear call for a generous gesture from Britain. Lord Irwin the sympathetic Viceroy saw this and strove his utmost to placate legitimate Indian feeling. He undertook a trip to England on four months' leave and had long conversations with the India Office Chief and the newly formed Labour Cabinet of Britain. He returned in the last week of October and within a few days of his

arrival issued from Delhi a statement which has since become famous as the Viceroy's Declaration of October 31, 1929. I am authorised, he said on behalf of His Majesty's Government, to state clearly that, in their judgment, it is implicit in the Declaration of 1917 that the natural issue of India's constitutional progress as there contemplated is the attainment of Dominion Status. His Excellency announced the British Government's intention to summon a conference of representatives of British India and Indian States to discuss British Indian and All Indian problems for seeking the greatest possible measure of agreement for the final proposals to be placed before Parliament.

This statement met with mixed reception in Britain. In India it was welcomed by one and all except the extreme leftists. They sought to impose conditions on the fulfilment of which Indians would consent to participate in the proposed Round Table Conference. They issued a manifesto—this was endorsed by the Liberals as well—which besides making a few demands took it for granted that the conference is to meet not to discuss when Dominion Status is to be established but to frame a scheme of Dominion constitution for India. As far as the Liberals were concerned this was a case of hitting above the mark to hit the mark. The Congressmen, however, utilised the occasion to make impossible demands which they were sure would not be met and which, they hoped would justify them in the eyes of the world to launch a campaign of civil disobedience. Mr. Gandhi and Pandit Motilal Nehru however affected hope of securing their demands.

Thus it was that these two leaders accompanied by Sir R. J. Meade and Sir J. P. S. on behalf of the Liberals, and Mr. M. A. Jinnah in the name of Muslims waited on the Viceroy on the eve of the Congress to ascertain the Government's intentions. The Viceroy made it plain that the Conference was designed to elicit the greatest possible measure of agreement for the final proposals which it would be the duty of His Majesty's Government to submit to Parliament and that it was impossible for him or for His Majesty's Government in any way to prejudge the action of the Conference or to restrict the liberty of Parliament.

The leaders dispersed, the Congressmen went to Lahore to declare independence and the Liberals to Madras to concert measures to work the proposed scheme. The main feature of the Congress session was the reascendancy to power of Mr. Gandhi. But it was obvious that he did not have an easy time of it. The prevalence within the Congress itself of a growing element of violence was an eye-opener to him. The principal resolution however went through successfully and in fulfilment of the Calcutta Congress ultimatum. Independence was declared when the New Year was rung in and the Independence flag was hoisted.

The resolution as adopted, laid down that nothing can be gained in the existing circumstances by the Congress being represented at the proposed Round Table Conference, and in pursuance of the resolution passed at the Calcutta Congress last year, this

Congress now declares that Swaraj in the Congress creed shall now mean complete independence. Therefore, the Congress declares the Nehru scheme of Dominion Status to have lapsed and hopes that all parties in the Congress will devote their exclusive attention to the attainment of complete independence. The Congress declares a complete boycott of the central and provincial legislatures. The Congress authorises the All India Congress Committee, whenever it deems fit to launch upon a programme of civil disobedience including non payment of taxes whether in selected areas or otherwise and under such safeguards as it may consider necessary. Here were laid the foundations of a campaign of lawlessness that threw the country into chaos in the following year.

CONGRESS IN 1930

Events moved very fast in India in 1930 which has been epochal in the country's political history. On the one hand the British Government took practical measures to devise a constitutional machinery that would place India on the highroad to responsible self-government (see Round Table Conference section) on the other the Congress the premier political organisation of the country made a bold bid for complete independence or Purna Swaraj a term which has been variously interpreted since the Lahore Congress. Resolutions demanding complete independence have no doubt been adopted in previous years but they have remained mere paper resolves. It was not until 1930 that attempts were made to enforce the demand. Under the guidance of Mr Gandhi the Congress organised a series of lawless activities which the promoters and adherents of the civil disobedience movement thought would paralyse the Government and compel it to yield to the Congress terms. That of course did not happen but the movement succeeded in setting the country ablaze and infusing into the masses a new sense of national awakening and a burning desire for self-government. The author of Satyagraha took care to avoid the mistakes of 1920 and ignoring the fire sold or even the triple boycott concentrated on more spectacular items. This had great public value. The Government presumably anticipated that the movement would die a natural death as it did ten years ago and for a time left the agitators severely alone. But when the Congress methods began widely to be practised securing an ever increasing number of followers and when the defiance of the law led to clashes the Government had to take notice and put down with a firm hand the attempts to subvert law and order. This had a two-fold effect while it doubtless suppressed the movement to a large extent it had also paradoxically enough, the opposite effect. Thus when the Congress appeared to be nearly at the end of its tether, the Viceroy promulgated Ordinances proclaiming some of the Congress activities illegal and these very Ordinances became the object of defiance, the movement thereby got additional material to thrive upon. Repression also drove the agitation underground.

Several factors strengthened the Congress movement in 1930. The worldwide trade

crisis, of which India did not escape her share was responsible for a general feeling of depression and discontent all over the land and the people as usual blamed the Government for their sufferings. The Simon Commission's report (see Simon Commission chapter) which was not acceptable to the majority of Indians added to the prevalent want of faith in the Government's intentions. The Congress exploited this circumstance and chalked out a programme which had a wider appeal than in 1920. The N. C. O. movement ten years ago was confined to the few civil disobedience movements of 1930 appealed to the many. That was intellectual this popular. At least one of the planks of the present agitation namely non payment of land revenue coincided with the voters' inability to pay owing to falling commodity prices. The breach of the Salt Act (boycott of all foreign cloth and of British goods and the anti-campaign against her to practice them) the boycott of law courts and schools. On the present occasion the Congress campaign arranged its field efficiently. Mr Gandhi who was appointed Dictator in chief of the Congress nominated provincial dictators who fearlessly went to be succeeded by their respective nominees. Small committees of action, known as War Councils were set up throughout the land ready to launch the campaign. The leader gave the signal in April by himself breaking the salt law and people followed his example in several places. When this went on for some time the police had forcibly to disperse the people engaged in illicit salt manufacture which led to numerous casualties. And as these demonstrations were staged in public places they produced great excitement in the popular mind. Thousands of arrests were made and jails all over the country were flooded over 14,000 were convicted in the year for offences connected with civil disobedience. People lost their fear for the Indian word did they hesitate to go to jail. Youths women and children threw themselves into the movement thereby lending colour to it and attracting international attention. Prabhat Phule or religious and political processions were taken out through public streets singing Congress songs and broadcasting revolutionary doctrines. Demonstrations leading to breaches of the peace were suppressed by the police which led to further demonstrations and clashes. Some of these as in Sholapur, Jawahar and Chauri took a very serious turn. Great shattered confidence and credit and trade and commerce were paralysed. Import and export figures and railway returns recorded a steady downward trend. Towards the end of the year a virile tide of defiance in which people went on breaking laws and the Government continued to suppress their activities while the British Government was striving hard with the help of right-thinking and sober minded Indian leaders to evolve a formula on which to base the future constitution of India.

Mr Gandhi occupied the greater part of the stage in 1930. India was good movie in Europe and much so in America where journalists splashed Gandhi. This was his final struggle he declared and he would not return to his Ashram at Sabarmati if he failed to win Swaraj for India in his own words he had burnt

his boats and set out on the famous march on foot from Ahmedabad to Dandi where he inaugurated his pet movement. He had the satisfaction of seeing a large number of people following his lead but after his arrest at Mumbai on March 12 the movement ceased to be non-violent.

Civil Disobedience Movement

In pursuance of the resolution of the Lahore Congress it was decided by the Congress leaders early in the year to test the strength and willingness of the country to undertake and carry on a programme involving loss, suffering and sacrifice and with this end in view they organised what has since been called the Independence Day demonstration. On January 26, 1931 at a given time all Congress organisations in the land were asked to hold meetings and to read out a specially worded resolution for adoption by the public. The resolution declared that economically, politically, culturally and spiritually the present Government had been a curse to India. The most effective way of gaining freedom was not through violence. The people were therefore asked to prepare themselves by withdrawing so far as they could all voluntary association from the British Government to prepare themselves for civil disobedience including non-payment of taxes and to carry out the instructions to be issued by the Congress from time to time for the purpose of withdrawing them. Several responses to this appeal according to the Congress leaders exceeded anticipations. Having thus defied the new revolutionary policy of the Lahore Congress and satisfied themselves that their methods would obtain general support in the country the Working Committee appointed at Lahore met at Ahmedabad and decided to inaugurate mass civil disobedience. It appointed Mr. Gandhi as the Dictator of the Congress and gave him full powers to launch conduct and carry out the movement.

Before taking what he described as his final plunge in politics Mr. Gandhi wrote in the first week of March his famous letter to the Viceroy. Addressing His Excellency as 'My dear friend' Mr. Gandhi announced in that letter his determination to inaugurate on March 11 his campaign of civil disobedience. He declared that he regarded the British rule in India as a curse and considered that the country had been ruined and the people reduced to a condition of helpless political servitude by continuous exploitation and an expensive civil and military administration. Dominion status, he feared, would never be granted to India by the British since it would adversely affect British commerce with India and British interests in India. It was no longer a question of argument; it was one of matching of forces. India by non-violence must evolve a force sufficient to wrest her independence from the unwilling hands of Britain. To this letter Mr. Gandhi got a reply from Lord Irwin's private secretary communicating His Excellency's regret that Mr. Gandhi contemplated a course of action which was clearly bound to involve violation of the law and danger to the public peace.

The demands made by Mr. Gandhi were such that they could not be conceded. They

were the famous eleven Points of Mr. Gandhi—total prohibition, reduction of the rupee ratio to 14:42, reduction of the land revenue to at least 50 per cent and making it subject to legislative control, abolition of the salt tax, reduction of the military expenditure to at least 50 per cent to begin with, reduction of the salaries of the higher grade service men to one half or less so as to suit the reduced revenue, protective tariff on foreign cloth, the passage of the Coastal Trade Reservation Bill, discharge of all political prisoners, withdrawal of all political prosecutions, abrogation of section 124-A of the Regulation of 1818 and the like and permission to all Indians to return the abolition of the C. I. D. or its popular control and the issue of licenses to use fire-arms for self-defence, subject to popular control.

When his impossible demands were turned down Mr. Gandhi outlined a programme of civil disobedience consisting of various items calculated to subvert the Government by breaking certain laws raising its income from excise and customs duties, inducing Government servants to resign, picketing liquor shops and shops dealing in foreign, particularly British, goods, mainly British cloth and urging the masses not to pay land revenue, chowkidari tax and forest grazing fees. The salt Act was the first target.

After organising his forces in various centres in the country, Mr. Gandhi inaugurated his civil disobedience movement by setting out on a march on foot from his Ashram at Sabarmati with the object of breaking the salt law and defying the Government. It was accompanied by a band of 80 trusted inmates of his Ashram who had taken a vow to obey his orders and to share with him the consequences of breaking the law. Many hundreds more offered to join his party but he wished to take only a select crew in whose discipline, training and steadfastness he had confidence. Similar parties were formed in other parts of the country and were waiting for the word from Mr. Gandhi. The Dictator set out on the morning of March 12 and marched through Gujarat making halts en route. This part of the country where most men, women and children regarded him as an avenger (Incarnation of Dety) thanks to the propaganda of Mr. Vallabhbhai Patel, was only too ready to accept his advice. At each one of the halting places a number of Government servants announced their resignations. The people were urged to look out for his signal and carry on the fight even if he was arrested. At the end of three weeks he reached Dandi, a village on the coast near Surat and on April 6 the fateful day on which the movement was really initiated he picked up salt on the sea shore without paying duty. The police did not interfere. His followers started manufacturing salt by harvesting sea water and the salt so manufactured was sold in small packets all over the country. This was the signal for Congressmen to break the law all over the country simultaneously.

On the first few occasions the Government merely looked on but the law-breaking fever spread fast and wide. Eventually the authorities took measures to prevent the manufacture

and sale of illicit salt. They were resisted by Congress volunteers who formed a cordon round the spot where salt was made and defied the police to arrest them. The police arrested them at first, but they could not obviously arrest hundreds of spectators who, though not actually engaged in salt making, were encouraging the law breakers, joining at the police and indulging in hostile demonstrations. When these crowds began to indulge in violence against the police, the latter had recourse to disperse them by means of the regulation staff known as lathi. This went on for a while without bringing Purna Swaraj any nearer. Mr Gandhi found a way out of the rut by declaring that he proposed to raid the salt works at Dharasana near Surat. Similar raids were planned on the salt depot at Wadala, in Bombay. Shortly after this, however, Mr Gandhi was arrested under the provisions of a century-old Regulation and confined during the pleasure of the Government as a state prisoner whose activities were a danger to the Government established by law.

His arrest and incarceration in Yeravdi to some extent intensified the movement. His place was taken by Mr Abbas Tyabji and later by Mrs. Barojia. Raids who became Gandhi No. 2 and Gandhi No. 3 respectively. The projected raids on the salt works at Dharasana and Wadala were carried out repeatedly and hundreds were injured when the police repelled the raid and dispersed the raiders and sympathisers. The advent of the monsoon put an end to salt making and salt depot raids. But other illegal activities were taken up.

The anniversary of a dead leader, Gandhi Day, Independence Day or some such pretext was utilised to organise anti-Government demonstrations. The arrest of persons who were courting arrest was also the occasion for a display of hostility against the Government. Such disturbances occurred in several places, and the police had to impose a ban on meetings, processions, demonstrations and the like which invariably disturbed the public peace and led to clashes. Even these prohibitory orders were disobeyed thereby compelling the police to use force. Two such instances occurred in Sholapur and Peshawar. In the former place the police were attacked constabulary, mobbed and murdered in broad daylight, and Government buildings and law courts set on fire. Martial law was introduced and quiet restored after a long time. In Peshawar also rowdy crowds defied the police and even the military. British troops were stoned. People were so much inflamed that it took a number of weeks for the return of normal conditions. It was revealed during the Peshawar disturbances that the Congress propaganda had to some extent interfered with the discipline of a few Indian sepoys.

Nor did the Congress stop here. Thanks to its persistent propaganda the martial races inhabiting the border were taught to hate the British and to expect the establishment of Gandhi Raj at an early date. A belief that the British administration was weakening spread across the border to the Afghans who carried out a series of raids on Peshawar. Not

that these were by any means successful, they were easily repelled and severely punished. But it would not do to allow them to continue in the false belief that they could defy the British Government with impunity. The Government, therefore, took prompt punitive measures and put an end to the raids.

Congressmen living in inland areas stirred up villagers against the Government and persuaded them to refuse to pay dues for grazing cattle in the forests. Forest regulations were broken. That the Congress was playing with fire became evident at least in one place. Turbulent hill men inhabiting Chitrur in Bombay Presidency did not—and it must have been obvious, could not—understand the subtleties of non violence. When they became infuriated against the Government they behaved very violently. A police party that went to subdue them was attacked.

In the U. P. and Bengal ryots refused to pay the chowkidari tax. This mass movement led to mass arrests of hundreds of Satyagrahis and the object of the Congress in flooding the jails was in a large measure successfully achieved.

Gujarat, where Mr Gandhi's influence was greatest, was the stronghold of the movement for non payment of land revenue. In all the four districts of Gujarat ryots were persuaded to withhold payment of arrears of the previous years and later on, of the instalments of the following year. The greatest support to this campaign came from two talukas, Bardoli and Borad. Here the agricultural population migrated from their villages to the adjoining villages of the Indian State of Baroda. They also carried with them all their moveable property including crops which they had reaped without the knowledge of the authorities. In some places rather than pay the land revenue the ryots set fire to standing crops. The revenue officials at first adopted all the measures provided by the Land Revenue Code for the collection of land revenue but when these failed the aid of a special battalion of police called the Kitchener Police was taken to enforce payment.

The no-tax campaign and the seditious appeals calculated to disturb the loyalty of the police and the troops could not be allowed to continue. Similarly, the authorities could not look on when Government servants in Gujarat who refused to resign their posts in obedience to the Congress mandate were subjected to countless hardships in the shape not only of social boycott but also refusal of daily supplies and even of water. In several instances Government servants were coerced and prevented from doing their duty—things were made so hot for them. The activities of the Congress in other spheres also became too mischievous to be tolerated any longer and the Viceroy issued a series of Ordinances. One of these gave power to the Government to confiscate the premises of Congress offices whence baneful doctrines emanated. Refusal of normal supplies and services to Government servants was also made an offence. Later in the year all the Congress and allied bodies were declared unlawful.

ful associations under another Ordinance. Under this Ordinance a number of Congress leaders were arrested and Congress offices confiscated but new War Councils sprang into being and continued to court arrest by defying orders prohibiting meetings, processions, Congress flag salutations, etc. These activities were however, confined to the Bombay Presidency.

One of the main objects of the Congress was to deplete the Government treasury by attacking the excise and customs revenue. Excise was the main source of revenue to most provinces and customs to the central government. It was also intended seriously to affect British industry particularly the Lancashire textile trade. For this purpose systematic picketing of liquor and foreign (especially British) cloth shops was resorted to. This work was reserved for the large number of women who for the first time in the history of politics in India joined the movement in response to Mr. Gandhi's appeal. Mr. Gandhi was also fortunate in securing the wholehearted support of the commercial community in the Presidency towns and especially in Bombay who had a series of grievances against the Government of India economic and currency policy. Indian merchants entered into solemn agreements not to send any orders for foreign cloth in the first instance and later on for several articles of British manufacture. This willing co-operation of the commercial community made the task of the women pickets somewhat easy but in several cases coercion replaced peaceful persuasion and the consuming public were put to untold hardships. The Viceroy issued an Ordinance making picketing accompanied by intimidation or coercion punishable. This part of the movement assumed large proportions all over the country and as the year advanced the figures of imports from England, especially of cloth, showed a marked decrease. The trade of Lancashire was hit hard and unemployment figures rose in England.

The strongest ally of Mr. Gandhi in the spread of the civil disobedience movement was the Indian press especially the vernacular press. During the year numerous vernacular sheets came into existence which carried Congress propaganda to every nook and corner of the country and to almost all the villages in the land. The Viceroy at first revived the Press Act by means of an Ordinance, but when this did not have the desired effect he promulgated the *Unauthorized News-sheets Ordinance*. This Ordinance helped to suppress seditious propaganda generally but in Bombay city the Congress continued to issue daily a one page bulletin, despite vigorous efforts by the police to put an end to it.

According to the strict theory of Mr. Gandhi non violence was the sheet anchor of the movement, but when clashes occurred repeatedly in hundreds of places between the police and some times the military on the one hand, and large masses of determined and desperate men and women on the other, it was inevitable that violence should break out. The happenings in Sholapur and Poeshawar have already been referred to. In most cases the police used only the least, but when they were overwhelmed

they had to resort to firing. A large number of people were injured or killed in these clashes. At first Mr. Gandhi (before his arrest) complained against the violence of the police, but there were cases in which infuriated mobs took the initiative by throwing stones and other missiles at the police, and thereby invited more violence on the part of the authorities. On the whole the police carried out their duties loyally conscientiously and efficiently displaying extraordinary patience in face of great provocation. In spite of public odium and obloquy they put in extra work and richly deserved the numerous tributes paid to them.

While as has already been noticed, the participation of the commercial community and of women was a feature of the agitation in 1930 no less significant was its effect on and the response of the younger generation. Young boys were organised into *Vanar Senas* (Monkey Armies) and by their demonstrations they lent a comic touch to the grim struggle. Although they did not alter the course or speed of the movement one cannot fail to notice the beneficial impression that this movement must have left on their immature minds. Older boys and youths were similarly influenced. Being young and impulsive, the energies of some of them were turned into revolutionary channels. The year has witnessed a large number of revolutionary outrages. In many of which bombs and fire arms were used. Police officers were killed and an attempt was made to assassinate the Governor of the Punjab. An armed raid was made on the Jharkhand armoury. Many displaced the inkblots but the mischief had been done.

And all this turned the Government did not forget the duty of implementing the declaration made by the Viceroy on October 31, 1929. The work of preparing for the *Round Table Conference* was carried on vigorously. All difficulties were surmounted, except one—the refusal of the Congress to co-operate. Notwithstanding the harmful effects produced by the civil disobedience movement, the Government were ready to welcome the co-operation of the Congress leader in settling the future constitution of India. With this end in view the Viceroy permitted Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru and Mr. M. K. Jayakar to discuss with Mr. Gandhi and other Congress leaders in jail the possibility of the Congress sending a delegation to the London Conference. The conversations proceeded on the basis of a statement made to a British journalist by Mr. Gandhi and Pandit Motilal Nehru. Pandit Nehru offered Congress co-operation in the R. I. C. if it was made clear that the Conference would meet to frame a constitution for a free India subject to such adjustments of our mutual relations as are required by the special needs and conditions of India and our past association. Mr. Gandhi consented to reduce his *Eleven Points to four*, namely (1) the terms of reference of the R. I. C. to include the framing of a constitution giving India the substance of independence, (2) repeal of the salt tax, prohibition of liquor and a ban on foreign cloth, (3) amnesty for political prisoners, and (4) the remaining seven points to be left for future discussion. It was plain that the Congress demand regarding the purpose of

the R. T. (could not be conveyed and the prison talks fell through. The Congress confined its activities and the Government continued to suppress them—the deadlock continued.

Meanwhile the Round Table Conference met in London and made great progress. Congress leaders pretended to be unconcerned but watched the proceedings in London with keen interest.

The National Liberal Federation.

The definite breach between the moderate and extremist elements in the Congress at its special session in Bombay in August 1918 (vide 1919 edition of this book) witnessed the birth of the National Liberal Federation which has since then, been the platform of Indian moderate leaders. It held its first session in Bombay in 1918. Sir Surendranath Banerjee presiding. The Federation adopted for its creed the old Congress formula which was set aside by the Nagpur Congress.

Those who had held the Federation in high esteem for its moderation, sobriety and balanced judgment suffered a rude shock in 1927 when the Liberal body and its leading lights proved the saying. If you scratch a Liberal you will find an extremist. Liberal leaders bade good bye to their avowed principle of co-operation with the Government when they expressed themselves in favour of a boycott of the Royal Commission on Indian Reforms on the ground that there was no Indian on it.

Thenceforward Liberal politics became negative and barren and leaders who had enjoyed a reputation for sane thinking came to be regarded as the wild men of the Congress. Boycott was the breath of their nostrils although they were declaring now and then that the door was still open for Government to make a gesture of co-operation. Their monotonous stagnation was however slightly relieved by the efforts at constitution making undertaken at the instance of the Congress. Liberals heartily co-operated in this endeavour and attended the All Parties Conference summoned by the Congress in the middle of the year. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, President of the Liberal Federation, consented to serve on the Committee appointed by the Conference to draft a constitution for India. After months of toil the Committee produced a constitution according to which India would enjoy the status of the Dominions of the British Empire. The report also offered a solution for the communal dissensions and a formula to govern the relations between British India and the Indian States. It was in a sense a Liberal document for the Liberals were the only group of men in the country who unanimously and unreservedly accepted the entire report.

The plea for the grant of Dominion Status was very strongly urged by Sir Chimanlal Bhatnagar, President of the 1928 Session of the Liberal Federation who said that the trusteeship of England was coming to an end. British had to deal with a people who had attained majority and were demanding from the so-called trustees their property and also asking for accounts. The British must change their mentality and must realise the feeling that was growing in the country, which if not guided properly

would swallow everything. It will swallow Dominion Status and even British connection and British trade. If Government does not heed our voice and take our modest counsel into consideration Heaven only know what the consequences will be. This firm attitude on the part of the Liberals whom Government were not slow to recognise as their allies served to hasten the advent of a new era. The changing political situation was exhaustively reviewed at personal interviews between the British Cabinet and the India Office and Lord Irwin who had gone home on four months leave. As a result of these conversations the Viceroy made soon after his return from leave what is now famous as the Proclamation of October 31, 1929. (For details see Congress section).

Now the Liberals had what they wanted. And they responded. Principal Congress Liberal and Muslim leaders waited on the Viceroy. The Congress Party demanded an assurance that Dominion Status would be granted before it could agree to participate in the Round Table Conference. What the Liberal spokesmen urged at this Conference is not definitely known but it seems fairly clear that no condition precedent to Liberals co-operation was sought to be imposed.

By the time the Liberals foregathered at Madras things had moved pretty rapidly in Congress circles. The failure of the leaders conference with the Viceroy led Congressmen to talk of severance of British connection, civil disobedience and other wild schemes. This development was the signal for the Liberals to break away from the extremists. Once again the Liberals expressed disapproval of Congress methods. Sir Phiroze Sethna who presided denounced the movement which aimed at the severance of India's connection with the Empire and opposed the campaign of civil disobedience and non-payment of taxes, as they were detrimental to the country's interests and would plunge the country into open conflict with the Government who would then be justified in taking every measure to put them down. The Federation resolved to participate in the Round Table Conference and welcomed the Viceroy's announcement.

Liberal Activities in 1930. The Liberal Party leaders had a busy time of it throughout the year 1930. They had on the one hand to set their faces against the civil disobedience movement conducted by the Congress and on the other to prepare a strong case for Indian Reforms such as would withstand the attack of diehards in Britain. During the year under review, the Liberal Party organised a number of committees for preparing the material on several questions which were to be the subject

matter of discussion at the Round Table Conference. One of three was entrusted with the task of arriving at a settlement over the rights of the minorities in the future constitution. Meetings of these committees and of the All India Council of the Liberal Federation were held in the month of May in Bombay where representatives of the leading minorities of India assembled. Various aspects of the proposed constitution for India were considered and differences on the question of adjusting the rights of the minorities were thrashed out and reduced to a minimum.

Among the British Indian Delegation to the Round Table Conference the Liberal Party had a large representation consisting of twelve members out of 57. These members played a very important part on the various committees of the conference in London. Two among them, namely Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru and the Hon. V. S. Sastri, were mainly responsible for guiding and directing the proposals of the Indian Delegation which ultimately formed the basis of agreement at the conference. On the communal question also the Liberal Delegation strove hard to conciliate the claims of the different minorities and all but succeeded in solving this difficult problem.

In India the attitude of the Liberal Party towards the civil-disobedience movement was one of disapproval but the Party spared no effort to interpret the inner meaning of the movement and explain to the Government its origin and the forces underlying it. On several occasions the Party also disapproved the measures adopted by the Government to deal with the lawless activities in the land and expressed the opinion that such steps only made the disease worse. In short the Liberal Party assumed the role of true interpreters between the Government and the people and did their best to bring about a reconciliation between them.

The annual session of the Liberal Federation during Christmas had to be postponed owing to the absence of many of its leaders in London and owing to the fact that the discussions at the Round Table Conference had not concluded by then.

Indian Round Table Conference

After the failure of the Simon Commission to receive adequate support during their two journeys in India the Government both in England and in India devised a Round Table Conference. As far back as 1924 the late Pandit Motilal Nehru, in moving his resolution on the 'national demand' in the Legislative Assembly proposed that a Round Table Conference should be organised for settling the scheme of reforms for India. The suggestion was turned down by the then Home Member Sir Malcolm Hailey and the plan of the Simon Commission was put forward in its stead. But it was the presence of the Labour Government in England and the sagacity and statesmanship of Lord Irwin that were responsible for reviving the plan suggested

in the late leader of the Opposition in order to obtain contact with the sauer elements in the country who believe in constitutional progress and in the method of negotiation rather than of direct action.

The scheme of the conference was announced in November 1929 but owing mainly to the prolonged sittings of the Imperial Conference the actual summoning of the (Indian) Conference was delayed by about twelve months. The Congress exploited this delay and in the interval carried on a systematic and ceaseless campaign of ridicule and poisoned the Indian mind against the conference. This however, did not deter believers in constitutionalism from attending the conference in spite of the public animus and obloquy they incurred thereby.

Before the delegates left for London an attempt was made with the ready consent of the viceroy to induce Mr. Gandhi the Nehru and other Congress leaders to participate in the conference. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru and Mr. M. K. Jayakar saw the leaders in jail in Yeravla and Yaml and numerous consultations were held but to no purpose. The Congress leaders insisted upon other things (a) prior declaration of what the conference should do, a demand which could not be considered in the light of the repeated announcements that the conference would in entirety try to do what it liked.

The conference therefore met in London in November with out the Congress being represented thereon. It began under auspices of His Majesty the King Emperor declared it open and expressed the hope that the conference would lay the true foundation of self-government for India based on a fusion of the divergent claims into mutual obligations. The Premier who presided expressed his determination to solve the Indian problem. At an early stage in the conference the Indian Princess responded to the invitation of Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru to join an All India Federation. This was the main factor which contributed to the satisfactory achievement of the urgent measure of agreement on the scheme which emerged from the deliberations of the conference—namely an All India Federation with responsible government in the centre and with certain safeguards during the period of transition between now and the establishment of a fully self-governing unit of the Empire.

Details of this scheme were not settled until after the year 1930 had expired. The conference dispersed for the Christmas holidays after holding preliminary sessions settling the main outline and appointing several sub-committees to report on a number of heads of reform: the structure of the federation, the constitution of the various legislatures, defence, franchise, protection to minorities, the separation of Burma from the north of Sind as a separate province, etc. None of these committees had submitted its recommendations before the end of the year.

The Moslem League.

The All India Moslem League came into being in 1904 out of the universal desire among leading Mussalmans at that time for an effective organisation to protect their communal interests. With a view to secure separate Muslim representation in the legislative bodies of the land under the Minto Morley scheme of constitutional reforms then under discussion Indian Muslims who had been hitherto keeping aloof from politics organised the League. Its original objects were the promotion of loyalty to British Government, the protection of political and other rights of Mussalmans and to place their needs and aspirations before Government in temperate language and to promote inter-communal unity without prejudice to the other objects of the League. Muslim opinion slowly advanced and in 1913 the securing of self government within the British Empire was included in the objects. The League was a powerful and influential body in 1916 and 1917, and what is known as the Lucknow pact of communal representation arrived at between the League and the Congress in 1916 was bodily incorporated in the Government of India Act 1919. The birth of the Khilafat Committee however overshadowed the League which from 1919 had almost disappeared till April 1922 when it met for a brief period under the presidency of the late Mr Bhaurri but had to be adjourned for want of a quorum. In 1924 however, some influential Moslem leaders like Mr M. A. Jinnah thought that the Khilafat Committee's functions having ceased in view of the Turkish deposition of the Khalifa decided to revive the League which met under Mr Jinnah's chairmanship at Lahore in May 1924. The Lahore session practically did nothing else save to reorganise the scattered branches of the League. The reconstructed League commanded comparatively less influence and what little authority it exercised disappeared with the formation in 1928 of the All Parties Muslim Conference. This latter body was representative of the Muslim masses as well as classes in the sense that the Muslim League was not. This explains why the Conference is gradually, but none the less sure, replacing the League as the premier Muslim representative body in the country. During the past few months however, neither body has commanded anything like its former influence. In a sense their place has been taken up by eminent leaders like the Aga Khan the late Mr Mahomed Ali, Mr Jinnah and Sir Mahomed Shafi. They effectively and truly represented the bulk of Muslim opinion without an intermediary organisation like the League or the Conference.

The League in 1925-29—The 1925 and 1926 sessions of the League were noted for their virility. The Muslims displayed greater allegiance to their communal organisation in proportion to the loyalty of the Hindus to their Maha Sabha. Suspicion and distrust, enmity and open hostility began to prevail between the two communities. Proportionate distribution of the lower and higher offices, on the political side, and the questions of the Hindus playing

music before mosques and the Mahomedans killing cows, on the religious side, constituted the points of difference which frequently led to inter-communal riots. The situation was regarded with grave concern by serious minded leaders, some of whom under the leadership of Mr Jinnah, met at Delhi early in 1927 and offered, in the name of the Muslims, to surrender their right to communal electorates, provided, among other things Hind was constituted into a separate province and reforms were introduced in the N. W. Frontier Provinces and Baluchistan. This offer however was acceptable neither to the Hindus nor the Muslim masses who insisted on the continuance of the separate electorates. A schism set in the Muslim League which was accentuated by the announcement of the personnel of the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms. The non inclusion of Indians on the Commission was construed by a certain section of the Muslims as an insult to India and those who held this view decided to boycott the Commission. The majority of the community however thought otherwise. The gulf between the two sections widened during 1928 despite efforts to bring about a reconciliation. While persons who happened to hold the leadership of the two sections were quarrelling among themselves, those who had the interests of the community at heart strove to form a body outside the League. Some of the quarrel and confusion marked the proceedings of the Council of the League which commenced in Delhi in March 1929. The trouble started with an attempt to get the League Council to endorse the Nehru Report which was obnoxious to a very large section of Muslims. This session besides provoking the remark from a prominent leader that the Muslim League is misled and so are the Nehru Report and the Congress served to strengthen the new organisation the All Parties Muslim Conference. Refusing to walk into Mr Jinnah's snare the supporters of the All Parties Muslim Conference were engaged in their constructive work. They were joined by the members of the Shafi section of the League who had come to Delhi in the hope of making up their differences with the Jinnah group but who were sadly disillusioned.

The All Parties Muslim Conference.—The publication of the Nehru Report hastened the advent of the All Parties Muslim Conference. As one of the speakers remarked, every provision of the report meant some disadvantage to the Muslims and some advantage to the Hindus. The Conference was called in 1928 to counteract the effect of the Nehru Report and to formulate the Muslim community's demand in regard to the future constitution of India. Notwithstanding the refusal of the Jinnah League to participate in the proceedings the Conference was attended by almost all the prominent Muslim leaders of the country, including a very large number of the members of the Councils and the Assembly. There was ready agreement on the unsuitability of the Nehru Report, but difference of opinion prevailed with regard to the goal of India. Persons like Mr Mahomed Ali

stood for complete independence and, of course, for the boycott of the Commission while Sir Mahomed Shafi, who had a very large following, favoured co-operation with the Commission in the framing of a constitution within the Empire. Things were a gloomy aspect for a while, but thanks mainly to the tact of the President the Aga Khan a compromise was reached whereby the mention either of Dominion status or Independence was omitted from the resolution put before the Conference which demanded merely a federal constitution. Similarly it referred neither to the Simon Commission nor to the Nehru Report but insisted on compliance with the demands of the Conference by any agency which devised a constitution.

The success of this Conference dealt a serious blow at the League which was already losing its hold on the community. The Conference became the rallying point of the saner and serious-minded section of Muslims. It was bent upon safeguarding the rights of Muslims.

Muslim Activities in 1930—Unlike the Congress, the Muslim political organisations are known for their lethargy except during the week when their annual meetings are held. In 1930, however, they displayed unusual activity. This is no doubt due to the summoning of the Round Table Conference to settle the basis of India's future constitution. Unattracted by the negative but spectacular programme of the Congress the majority of the Muslims appreciated the danger of allowing their case to go by default at the momentous London Conference and took a lively interest in its work before and during its proceedings. Repeated attempts were made throughout the year particularly during the latter half to bring Indian Muslim leaders together for ventilating the community's demands. The credit for this useful activity goes to the All India Muslim Conference, the Muslim League remaining practically inert. In July the Executive Board of the All Parties Muslim Conference met at Simla and formulated the community's demands. The Simon Report was examined and rejected but the Round Table Conference was welcomed. Those Muslims who had formerly shouted the slogan "Swaraaj if possible with British connec-

tion and without it if necessary" found in the R. T. C. offer the British hand of friendship. Shortly after the opening of the Round Table Conference the All Parties Muslim Conference met at Lucknow and reiterated what have come to be known as Mr Jinnah's Fourteen Points which demand a series of provisions calculated to protect the community against possible Hindu aggression. The more important of the Fourteen Points are federal constitution with residuary powers vested in the provinces; uniform provincial autonomy, effective representation for minorities in all provincial legislatures; one-third representation for Muslims in the Central Legislature; guarantee against a disturbance of the Muslim majority in the Punjab, Bengal, the N. W. Frontier Province; full religious liberty; no prejudicial communal legislation except under certain conditions; share for Muslims in the cabinet and the service reforms for the N. W. F. P. and Baluchistan; separation of Hind. protection of Muslim culture and insistence on separate electorates unless the above points are conceded. These demands were affirmed and re-affirmed throughout the year some leaders going to the length of rejecting joint electorates for the present whatever the inducement. The Hindus seemed in no mood to concede their demands. The Congress persisted in its civil disobedience campaign paying little heed to the Muslim desire to settle the communal problem before fighting the Government. The Hindu delegates in London did not allay Muslim fears—these factors produced among the Muslim a frame of mind which found expression in the presidential address delivered by Sir Muhammad Iqbal at Allahabad towards the end of the year. Typifying the prevalent Muslim exasperation, Sir Muhammad demanded the formation of a Muslim State in the North West, comprising Sind, the Punjab and the N. W. Frontier Province, within the State of India. Such a state would afford a permanent solution of the communal problem, he said and averred that the cultural development of the community demanded it. The session of the League made a firm declaration that no constitution devised for the future of India would be acceptable to the Muslims unless their "rights" were adequately safeguarded.

The Khilafat Committee.

The Central Khilafat Committee owed its origin to the reticence shown by the All India Congress Committee in 1920 to the question of the Khilafat and Non-co operation. Messrs Gandhi and Shaukat Ali started this organisation with a view to educative propaganda throughout the country and if possible, to capture the Congress. The object of the Committee was stated to be the righting of the Khilafat "wrongs". As a result of intensive propaganda mainly led by Mr Gandhi himself, prominent Indian publicists supported the view that the Indian Moslems being deeply concerned over the exploitation of the Holy places of Islam, had a right to expect the Hindus to help them in securing their rights. Soon after the Madras Khilafat Conference under the chairmanship of Mr Shaukat Ali unfolded a programme of progressive non-cooperation and appealed to the country for support. The Khilafat Committee, with the huge funds at its disposal, was able to draft in a large number of delegates to the Calcutta special Congress in 1920 when the non-co operation programme was accepted by that body. With two more objects added to it, namely the obtaining of Swaraj and the righting of the Panjab wrongs.

With the deposition of the Khalifa by the Kemalists and the revival of the Moslem League the Committee's activities have been considerably restricted. Recently the Committee sent a deputation to Noida to intervene and settle the dispute between the warring elements. Though the Government of India were willing to permit a deputation of the Committee to Turkey, the Turkish Government did not quite like the idea which had consequently to be abandoned.

The 1925 session of the Khilafat Conference was rendered lively by Mr Hasrat Mohani whose speech strongly criticised Sultan Ibro Saud and was subsequently expunged. The resolution adopted by the conference under the Presidency of Mr Abdul Kalam Azad condemned the British policy in Iraq and the League's decision on Mosul and declared that if the Turks went to war on the latter issue the Conference would deem it its duty to help them.

Since then one heard little about the public activities of the Committee, although many of its domestic quarrels engaged the attention of the public. Funds, however, continued to be collected for the activities of the Committee which could hardly be specified. Things dragged on until the latter half of 1927, when the leaders found the Khilafat organisation a useful tool for purposes of their propaganda for boycotting the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms. This was successfully achieved by the extremist wire pullers at Madras in 1927.

In the next year, however, a peculiar situation arose as the result of the publication of the Nehru Report. This document raised many controversial issues. Its two main recommenda-

tions, namely Dominion status for India and joint electorates with temporary reservation of seats, were not acceptable to the Khilafatists whose ideal was an extreme type of nationalism coupled with rank communalism. They wanted complete independence for India and in the same breath demanded the continuance of separate electorates. This state of mind found expression at the annual session of the Khilafat Conference which met in 1928 at Calcutta.

There is nothing noteworthy to record about the political activities of the Khilafat during 1929. The annual session of the Conference was held at Lahore as a kind of side show to the Congress. Nawab Ismail Khan presided and urged the summoning of a conference of Indians to settle communal and other questions. The curious thing about this session was that it flew hot and cold in the same breath. It revolved upon independence for India including severance of the British connection but at the same time decided to participate in the Round Table Conference to be convened by the British Government to settle the future constitution for India. While the latter reflected the true state of feeling among the Mussalmans of the country the former was obviously a wordy sop to the Congress extremists in the Conference.

More than ever before the Central Khilafat Committee ceased to be a political organisation in 1930. Its activities in the past year were mainly cultural, social and religious. True, its leaders indulged in activities which were regarded by some as part of a ruse for pan-Islamism but there does not seem to be any political object in view. Outside India the Committee kept itself in touch with similar organisations in Cairo, Palestine, Damascus etc. with a view to promoting unity among Muslims, encouraging Muslim trade and industries and generally enhancing their well being. The late Maulana Mahomed Ali and his brother visited foreign Islamic countries with the object of organising a world tanzim with Jerusalem as its headquarters for the religious, social and cultural advancement of Mohammedans and for the protection of their holy places. Internally the Committee concentrated on constructive work. It approached the Government for the appointment of the Haj Inquiry Committee. It rendered great services to the pilgrims by giving facilities for their journey, supplying them with information and literature concerning the holy places and attending to their comforts in countless other ways. A number of night schools were established in Rangoon, Delhi, Bombay, and other places for the education of the adults of the community. In Bombay, alone there are 30 night schools. The Committee also organised a volunteer corps with 5,000 regulars. They made themselves useful in maintaining order at public meetings, processions, demonstrations etc. and also in restoring peace in areas where communal tension had prevailed.

The Indian Legislature.

The annual session of the Indian Legislature commenced in Delhi on 20th January. The proceedings began without any opening ceremony but it is the Vice Roy who opened the House on 20th January. The opening stages of the session were characterised by a good deal of minor Government legislation and there was a variety of resolutions and bills by individual members, the latter were mostly of local interest but included several Bills affecting Hindu social conditions. Mr. M. R. Jayakar for instance negotiated through various stages a Bill to declare gains of inheritance by a Hindu to be his separate property. He also endeavoured to forward a Special Marriage (Amendment) Bill this being a measure further to amend the Special Marriage Act of 1872. The purpose of the new measure was in effect to legalise civil marriages between members of all communities. It was strongly opposed by a section of Muslim unofficial members and Mr. Jayakar's motion to refer it to a Select Committee was consequently talked out. A private Bill of much general importance which again came before the Assembly was that for the Reservation of Coastal Traffic to Indian owned ships. The only motion in regard to it was by Mr. Sarabhai that it be re-committed for the purpose of obtaining further information in 30th April 1910 and this was carried without discussion.

Protection of the Galleries. The first few days of the session were considerably affected by a dispute between Government and the President concerning the protection of the public galleries. The President desired in particular to have no police in the galleries. The subject had been discussed by a special committee presided over by the Honour Member before the session began but arrangement for substituting other people for police to control the galleries though proposed subject to certain conditions by the Committee were not made in time for the session. When therefore the President took the Chair at the first sitting his initial act was to refer to this question and to exercise his undoubted power to clear the public galleries. He also ordered that no further passes should be issued to the public until further orders and said that in the meantime he would consider what further steps he should take to vindicate the authority of the Chair. The upshot of the President's action was a series of conferences at Viceroys Lodges and on the 20th February the President read a letter from Mr. R. the Viceroy dated 19th January announcing their result. This was more or less on the lines recommended by the Special Committee and provided that Government should appoint a senior police officer to be responsible to the President for regulating all matters relating to the protection of the Assembly within the inner precincts of the building this officer to have the right to consult his superior officer in the Police Department if he considered that the precautions approved by the President were inadequate. It was agreed that reasonable protection of the Assembly could be secured

through an Assembly establishment and Government undertook to place at the service of the House as many police as might be required pending the recruitment of the suitable new establishment. In effect the police were in evidence in the galleries as much as formerly perhaps more and they were assisted in their duties with regard to ticket-holders by a number of clerks appointed by the President.

Another unusual step taken by the President was to read a statement of his position in relation to the boycott of the Legislature ordered by the Indian National Congress. The President said he made the statement because he was elected on the ticket of the Swami Party. Since the boycott resolution by the Congress in the week following Lord Curzon's 12th January speech he said, wanted to know how he proposed to act. In the end he declined to vacate the Chair.

If the Viceroy in his address on 25th February dealt at length with the internal political situation and particularly with the plan for a **Round Table Conference**, in connection with the constitutionalism in point of fact in important respects India already exhibited several of the attributes of a self-governing dominion but he said the demand for Dominion Status now being made on behalf of India was based upon a general claim to freedom from control by His Majesty's Government. Here there arose several difficulties, the existence of which could not be seriously dispensed and the whole object of the conference now in progress is to afford opportunity to His Majesty's Government of examining in free consultation with Indian leaders how they may best meet rapidly and most surely be surmounted.

His Excellency declined to pronounce between the various methods by which the Indian British Delegation might be selected. The only desire of His Majesty's Government he said would be that the delegates should be as representative as possible. And had it yet been possible to decide upon a date for the conference in view of a prospect of a conference and of the issue of the report of the Indian Statutory Commission in answer to it, he announced that he had decided that there should be a session of the Legislature early in the summer so that the election could be held anywhere after July 31st. His Excellency said the House that at the Round Table Conference those taking part in the proceedings will be completely free to advocate any proposals for the realisation of Great Britain's professed policy that they may desire to advance. They would do this he repeated.

In the light of all the material then available he finally earnestly appealed to representatives of all parties to collaborate with Great Britain in finding a solution to the present difficulties, and urged Indians themselves to prepare for the conference by securing unanimity among themselves upon the great matters at issue.

Annual Railway Budget.—The annual Railway Budget was introduced in the Legislative Assembly and Council of State on the 17th February. When the current year's Budget was presented a year ago, Government expected that the surplus for the year 1928-29 on all lines would be nearly Rs. 9 crores. The Railway Member now showed that both receipts and expenditure fell short of the amount assumed but that the shortage on the receipt side was the more serious, so that the year closed with a net gain of less than Rs. 8 crores. This disappointment was unfortunately symptomatic of what was to come, and the financial results of the year 1928-30 were disappointing. Government budgeted for a total revenue of about Rs. 106½ crores and a total expenditure of Rs. 95½ crores. Had this result been achieved they would have closed the year with a surplus of Rs. 11½ crores. On the commercial lines they now expected that the actuals would be over 4 crores worse than the estimate so that the final surplus would be little more than Rs. 7 crores. India like other countries, is passing through a period of trade depression due to falling prices, when buyers naturally adopt a cautious policy and goods move slowly. Moreover rates and fares had been reduced in the past five years to an extent which involved a loss of Rs. 6 crores of revenue. The hopes that this would be made up by expansion of traffic had not been realised. The total receipts from commercial lines in 1928-30 were estimated at Rs. 106 crores, or Rs. 1½ crores above those for the preceding year, and expenditure was estimated at nearly Rs. 98 crores, an increase of Rs. 2½ crores. The net gain from commercial lines was thus placed at Rs. 7 crores out of which a loss of Rs. 18½ lakhs on strategic railways had to be met. The balance of Rs. 520 lakhs being insufficient to meet the due contribution of Rs. 612 lakhs to general revenues, it was necessary to draw Rs. 86 lakhs from the reserve to make up the amount.

Budget estimates for 1930-31 showed receipts nearly Rs. 106 crores, or nearly Rs. 3 crores more than the revised estimates for 1929-30, and a total expenditure at nearly Rs. 100 crores, an increase of a little over Rs. 2 crores over the revised estimates for 1929-30. The final estimated result was shown to be a net gain to the railways of nearly Rs. 8 crores, or about Rs. 3 crores more than the revised estimates for 1929-30. The contribution due to general revenues would be Rs. 674 lakhs and only Rs. 84 lakhs would then remain to be added to the reserve fund.

Railway capital expenditure budgeted for 1929-30 was budgeted at Rs. 24½ crores. Actual expenditure was now estimated at a little more than Rs. 24 crores. The 1930-31 budget provided for capital expenditure of Rs. 16½ crores. These figures show clearly how greatly the position has changed since 1927, when it seemed possible that funds would be forthcoming to meet all reasonable requirements for railway development. It has now become evident that the most drastic reduction in the capital programme is inevitable and that in the present circumstances there is nothing for it but to cut out cost according to our cloth.

General Budget.—The annual general budget was presented to both Houses of the

Legislature on the evening of the last day in February. In submitting it the Finance Member Sir George Schuster showed that there had been serious deterioration in several revenue headings in the last two months of 1928-29 so that the year in question closed with an actual deficit of Rs. 106 lakhs instead of with a surplus of Rs. 80 lakhs set out in the revised estimates. Turning to the results for the year 1929-30 though Sir George could see no cause for anything like permanent pessimism for the future he found many things which increased the difficulties for the present. Failure of the rains in some places, excessive rains and floods in others, political uncertainties in India and general disturbance of world trade conditions were numbered among the misfortunes. The general budget results for the year indicated a balance of deterioration as compared with budget estimates, to the extent of Rs. 60 lakhs. This, combined with the original deficit of Rs. 90 lakhs which could not be covered by transfer from the revenue reserve fund brought the total deficit to Rs. 150 lakhs. Fortunately there was a windfall of the same amount on German Liquidation Account so that on balance the year 1928-30 closed square.

Dealing with the outlook for 1930-31 the Finance Member laid serious stress upon the losses which must ensue from continuance of the Civil Disobedience agitation. He mentioned among special items of expenditure in the forthcoming year Rs. 1½ lakhs for the decennial census, Rs. 7 lakhs for continuance of the banking enquiry and Rs. 24½ lakhs for the development of civil aviation. Altogether and including Rs. 25 lakhs for inevitable increments of pay the total now expenditure budgeted for was Rs. 140 lakhs. The Finance Member also showed a new charge of Rs. 88 lakhs as special provision to meet liabilities in respect of Post-office Cash Certificates. Taking into account all these items, and of anticipated deterioration in the main commercial departments, the railway and posts and telegraphs, the budget revealed a gap of Rs. 562 lakhs to be closed. Towards this Sir George showed that the financial contract with the Army would be altered so as to extend it from four years to five years and to reduce the annual amount of it proportionately. This would mean a military budget of Rs. 64.20 crores in 1930-31 and the two following years instead of Rs. 65 crores in the first two of them. Government proposed to increase from 12 to 15 per cent the general import duty on cotton piece goods and further, to place a five per cent protective duty with a minimum of 2½ annas per pound on plain grey goods, against all cotton piece-goods from outside the United Kingdom, this protective duty to be in force for three years. Their next proposal was to increase the excise duty on kerosine from one anna to one anna six pies per gallon coupled with a reduction in the import duty from two annas to two annas three pies. They proposed an all-round increase of Rs. 1½ per cwt in the import duty on sugar. They proposed to raise by one pie in the rupee the tax on all personal incomes of Rs. 15,000 and upwards and finally proposed to re-introduce an import duty of four annas per ounce on silver. The budget estimates thus provided for a surplus of Rs. 70 lakhs, while incidentally, the revenues

for 1929-30 would also benefit from the new proposals by Rs 3 lakhs

The Finance Member in his concluding remarks, said that special enquiries already made showed the impossibility of counting on any substantial reduction in the cost of the Civil Administration. In fact with all the new services and heads which are being pressed for consideration it is only by the exercise of the most rigid control that we shall be able to keep the growth of expenditure within bounds. He thought that the time had come for a comprehensive review of the whole expenditure position. Accordingly Government had decided to place an officer on special duty for this purpose.

The outstanding point in the discussion of the Budget and of the Finance Bill bowed upon it was opposition to the term of the new proposals for increasing the **Import Duties on Cotton Piece Goods**. The proposed new differential duty upon certain classes of goods give an advantage to British manufacturers and though this form of duty was selected by Government on purely practical revenue grounds so as to

provide the maximum protection for the Indian mill industry at the minimum cost to the consumer the result was a bitter and violent attack upon Government by the extremists. Left of the House on the ground that Government had deliberately given preference to Great Britain. The new proposals were eventually passed by a substantial majority but when the result was announced Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya as leader of the Nationalist Party, and a number of members on the benches behind him walked out of the House and forthwith resigned their seats in it.

Among other business during the session the House passed a resolution, adopting with certain amendments the report of the Indian Road Development Committee which later also proposed an increase by two annas on the import and excise duties and motor spirit in order to provide funds for road development. It also adopted a private resolution by Dr. B. H. Menon recommending the appointment of a committee with a view to the improvement and furtherance of primary education.

The Delhi sittings concluded on 31st March.

SUMMER SESSION

The annual session during the Simla season was held at an earlier date than usual in view of the prospective dissolution after 31st July in preparation for a general election and for the Round Table Conference in London. The first sitting took place on 7th July. Mr. V. J. Patel having several weeks previously resigned the Presidency the Deputy President, Maulvi Muhammad Yaku, presided and the first important business of the session was the election of a new President. This took place with Mr. M. A. Jinnah one of the panel of chairman in the chair. There was a contest and the result was the election of Maulvi Muhammad Yaku by 78 votes against 22 votes recorded for Dr. Nand Lal. The election took place and received the approval of His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor General, on the morning of the 9th July and His Excellency addressed the House the same afternoon.

Lord Irwin specially referred to the internal political situation and spoke most frankly to the gravity of the times requires that I should place all those who hear or read my words in full possession of my thoughts. His Excellency pointed out that it was after the express declaration by himself of the purpose of His Majesty's Government in regard to the Round Table Conference, and of the free opportunity for mutual co-operation and accord which the Conference was designed to provide that Mr. Gandhi took his reckless plunge into a campaign of civil disobedience. A warning of the ill consequences which such a campaign must involve fell upon deaf ears and the damage which the campaign had in countless directions already caused, was now evident. Those who

have identified themselves with this movement would have us regard it as a perfectly legitimate form of political agitation to which resort is had only under pressure of regrettable necessity. I cannot take that view. In my judgment and in that of my Government it is a deliberate attempt to coerce the established authority by mass action and when it has as it has, the avowed object of the making of Government impossible the Government is bound, either to resist or abdicate. The recent resolution of the All India Working Committee of the Congress insidiously designed to seduce police and troops from their allegiance, leaves no longer room for doubt of the desperate lengths to which the organisers of the movement are prepared to go. He would, in truth, be a false friend to India who did not do his utmost to protect her from acquiescence in principles so fundamentally destructive.

His Excellency justified his use in the circumstances of special measures which would in normal times be indefensible. Speaking generally His Excellency said he had nothing but commendation for the servants of Government both civil and military, who in dealing with the movement, had been doing their duty with great steadiness and courage. So long as the Civil Disobedience movement persisted Government would fight it with all their strength but on the other hand so far as the constitutional nationalist movement was concerned, His Excellency desired nothing more than to be able to help India to translate her aspiration into constitutional reality. His Excellency announced that His Majesty's Government

have reached the conclusion that it would not be ready to prescribe for the conference any terms more limited than were implied in his statement of November 1st last, and that the conference should enjoy the full freedom that those words connote.

(In this the Viceroy gave his reply to those Nationalist leaders who had been demanding from His Majesty's Government a formulation of terms of reference to the conference and the specific announcement of a term that its purpose was to grant India full Dominion Status. Similarly His Excellency's declaration of Government policy towards the civil disobedience movement was a reply to a widespread demand before made for an amnesty of political prisoners.)

The session lasted only until 18th July. Its programme of official and non-official business included nothing of outstanding general interest but the feature of the session was a prolonged debate on a supplementary grant demanded by Government for expenditure in India in connection with the Round Table Conference. Mr. Mian Mohammed Shah Nawaz moved a vote of Rs. 100 in this demand in order to criticize the recommendations of the Indian Statutory Commission and their value as part of the material for the consideration of the conference. This motion for a vote landed many members of the House in a quandary. They had hitherto boycotted the Statutory Commission and were now in effect pledged to ignore its Report. On the other hand no member of the House now that the Congress Party and the extreme

Left Wing of the Nationalists had received their seats desired to follow any line but that of co-operation towards the Round Table Conference. In the result the debate that followed was unorganized and patchy. In spite of efforts to keep the Statutory Commission's report out of view both it and the Conference were subjected to many interesting and valuable speeches. The net effect of the debate apart from a good deal of well-expressed criticism of various proposals in the Statutory Commission's report was a decided support by the House to the Government attitude declared in the Viceroy's speech that is of resistance to the lawless propaganda of the Congress and otherwise of movements upon making the Round Table Conference a success.

Meanwhile outside the Chamber there took place some of the most important activities of members of the House in co-operation with other political leaders during the session. The net effect was an arrangement between Government on the one hand and Mr. M. R. Jayakar and Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru on the other in which these two political leaders were at their own request permitted by Government to visit Pandit Motilal Nehru and Mr. Gandhi with a view to cultivating also their co-operation in the Conference.

The Legislature adjourned *sine die*. It was afterwards dissolved by the Governor General and there followed a general election. The new Assembly had been summoned for 14th January 1931. The Council of State met on 10th February 1931.

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Indians Overseas.

NUMBERS.—The total Indian population resident in the countries to which Indians mainly emigrate for purposes of settlement, according to the latest available returns is as follows:—

Name of Country	Indian population	Date of Census
<i>British Empire</i>		
1 Ceylon	969 000	1920
2 British Malaya*	700 000	1920
3 Hong Kong	— 113	1911
4 Mauritius	281 000	1908
5 Seychelles	132	1911
6 Gibraltar	50 (approximately)	1920
7 Nigeria	100	1920
8 Kenya	6709	1920
9 Uganda	1,613	1925
10 Nyasaland	515	1921
11 Zanzibar	12 841	1921
12 Tanganyika Territory	18 483	1907
13 Jamaica	17 871	1920
14 Trinidad	131 642	1929
15 British Guiana	128,200	1920
16 Fiji Islands	68,731	1921
17 Basutoland	179	1911
18 Swaziland	7	1911
19 Northern Rhodesia	56 (Asiatics)	1921
20 Southern Rhodesia	1 240 ()	1921
21 Canada	1,200	1920
22 Australia—		
Western Australia	300	} 2 000 (approximately) 1925
Southern Australia	200	
Victoria	400	
New South Wales	700	
Queensland	300	
Tasmania	100	
23 New Zealand	606	1921
24 Natal	141,336	1921
25 Transvaal	13 400	1921
26 Cape Colony	6 466	1921
27 Orange Free State	100	1921
28 Newfoundland		1921
Total for British Empire	2,520,065	
<i>Foreign Countries</i>		
29 United States of America	3 175 (Asiatics)	1910
30 Madagascar	5 272 (Indians)	1917
31 Reunion	2 194	1921
32 Dutch East Indies	832,667 (Orientals, chiefly Chinese & Arabs) (say 50,000 Indians)	
33 Surinam	34,957	1923
34 Mozambique	1 100 (Asiatics and half castes)	Not known
Peru	3,827	1922
Total for Foreign Countries	100,525	
Grand Total of Indians Overseas	2 620 590	

* Including Straits Settlement, Federated and Unfederated Malay States.

Origin of Indian Emigration—Emigration is prohibited by the Hindu Shastras and there is little evidence of any settlement of Indians overseas in early times except in Sumatra, Java and Ceylon. Emigration for purposes of labour dates from the beginning of the 16th century. From 1800 A. D. onwards Indians crossed the Bay to the Straits Settlements to work on the sugar, spice plantations, and coconut plantations of Penang, and this intercourse was allowed to continue for long without regulation. The first officially recorded instance of genuine recruitment for labour emigration occurred in 1830 when a French merchant named Joseph Argand, carried some 150 artisans to Bourbon. The abolition of slavery in British colonies in 1834 gave the first great impetus to the movement. The sugar planters of Mauritius at once turned to India as their best recruiting ground and between 1834 and 1837 obtained at least 7,000 recruits from Calcutta. The Government of India at a very early stage realised the necessity of bringing such emigration under regulation. The Law Commission was asked to investigate the case and to make recommendations for securing the well being of emigrants. They advised that no legislation was required except in order to prevent undue advantage being taken of the simplicity and ignorance of emigrants by providing that a magistrate should satisfy himself that all contracts were entered into freely and understood by them and in order to secure that sufficient provision was made for their accommodation and sustenance during the voyage. A copy of every engagement was also to be transmitted to the Government under which the emigrants were to live. These recommendations were embodied in the first Emigration Act (V of 1837), which also provided that contracts should be determinable after 5 years.

History of Emigration—Under the above Act emigration during 1837 was permitted to Mauritius, British Guiana and Australia (89 men, the first and last direct emigrants to Australia). In 1838 emigration was suspended owing to agitation in England regarding the abuses to which the system was liable and a committee of enquiry reported in 1840 that emigrants were being entrapped by force or fraud, robbed of their wages and treated with brutality. In consequence emigration was prohibited (Act XV of 1842) except to Mauritius and there control was tightened. In Act XXI of 1844 emigration under still stricter regulation was allowed to Jamaica, British Guiana and Trinidad. Act XIII of 1847 removed the restrictions on emigration to Ceylon. The emancipation of slaves in the French colonies in 1849 gave rise to a system of emigration from French Indian ports to Réunion and Bourbon which was largely based on crimping in British territory. This practice was checked by Act XXIV of 1852. In 1858 emigration was opened to St. Lucia, and in 1860 to St. Vincent, Natal and St. Kitts. In the latter year a more elaborate Act based on a convention with the French Government was passed legalising and regulating emigration to Réunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe and French Guiana. Act XIII of 1864 marks an important stage in the history of emigration, since it elaborated

and consolidated the whole system of control. It was itself amended in 1869 and 1870 in important respects with the object of preventing epidemics on emigrant vessels and improving sanitary conditions in settlements. In 1869 emigration was permitted to Grenada, and in 1872 to Surinam. Owing to the removal of the Straits Settlements from the control of the Government of India in 1867 emigration to that colony came under all the restrictions imposed by the Emigration Act and was only permitted from the port of Negapatam. Owing to the injury caused to the agricultural industries of the colony, these restrictions were removed in 1872 subject only to magisterial control of recruitment in India. In 1870 complaints reached the Government of India of gross abuses in the treatment of emigrants in British Guiana. A commission of enquiry was appointed, and their report led to important legislation in the colony for the protection of Indian immigrants, which was subsequently extended to Trinidad. Owing to similar complaints from Natal and Mauritius, commissions of enquiry were also instituted in both these colonies, and their reports in 1878 brought to light a number of points requiring amendment.

Recent Legislation—In 1871 a fresh consolidating Act was passed (Act VII of 1871) by which the Acts regulating emigration to the French Colonies and two amending Acts to Act XIII of 1864 were incorporated in the general law. The question of revision of the law again came up for consideration in 1882, when several cases of kidnapping and other objectionable practices were reported to the Government of India. The opportunity was taken to depoint two officials (Major Pitts and Mr. Grierson) to ascertain, in the N. W. P. and in Bengal respectively, the way in which the system of recruitment actually worked, the respects in which it was open to improvement, and the attitude of the people towards emigration. Their reports were reviewed by the Government of India, and finally in 1883 the law was again revised and consolidated by Act XXI of that year. This Act specifies the countries to which emigration is lawful, but empowers the Governor-General in Council to add to the list by notification, and also to prohibit emigration to any of the countries in the list on the ground of epidemic disease and on excessive mortality among emigrants in such country or on the ground that proper measures have not been taken for the protection of emigrants, or that the agreements made with them in India are not duly enforced. This Act with certain amendments of no importance to the system of indentured emigration remained in force until 1908, when a fresh revision of the law was undertaken.

Under the Act of 1908 (XVII of 1908) the countries to which emigration was lawful were the British Colonies of Mauritius, Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, Natal, St. Kitts, Nevis, Fiji, the Seychelles, the Netherlands Colony of Dutch Guiana and the Danish Colony of St. Croix. Emigration to St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, Nevis, the Seychelles and St. Croix ceased soon after the passing of the Act. The

demand for fresh labour having died out. Emigration to Natal was discontinued from the 1st July 1911 as the Government of India were satisfied that it was undesirable to continue to send Indian labour to that country. First migration to the French Colonies of Reunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe had been suspended prior to the passing of the Act of 1906 on account of repeated complaints of the inadequate precautions taken for the proper treatment and repatriation of the immigrants.

The labour laws of the several Colonies provide for the protection and welfare of resident Indian labourers. The Government of India also occasionally depute to the colonies their officers to report on the condition of Indian labourers. Deputations from India visited Fiji and British Guiana in 1921. In spite of all precautions certain social and moral evils had grown up in connection with the indentured system of emigration and Indian public opinion has during the last decade been strongly opposed to it. The whole system was exhaustively examined by the Government of India in 1915 in the light of the report received from Messrs McNeill and Chimanlal and they arrived at the conclusion that the time has come when contract labour should be abolished. The Secretary of State for India accepted this policy and authorised the Government of India to announce the abolition of the indentured system and the announcement to this effect was made in 1916.

In 1922 a further step forward was taken in Act VII of 1922 which prohibited indentured emigration and all unskilled emigration, except to countries specially approved by the Legislature. Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya was brought under control, and the definition of 'Emigrant' was extended to cover all persons "assisted" to depart from India.

References.—The following is a list of the most important reports on questions connected with Indian Emigration that have been published during recent years—

- 1 Report of the International Commission appointed to enquire into the condition and treatment of British India immigrants in Reunion 1879
- 2 Report on the system of recruiting coolies in the North Western Provinces and Oudh for the Colonies, 1883
- 3 Major Pitcher and Mr Grierson's report on the system of recruiting labourers in the North Western Provinces and Bengal for the Colonies, 1888
- 4 Report of the Natal Indian Immigrants Commission, 1888-87
- 5 Dr Comin's report on the proposed resumption of Emigration to Reunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe, 1892
- 6 Dr Comin's report on Emigration from the East Indies to Surinam, 1893
- 7 Mr Muir Mackenzie's report on Emigration to Reunion, 1894
- 8 Mr Muir-Mackenzie's report on the condition of Indian immigrants in Mauritius, 1896

9 Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire into the question of Indian Emigration, 1896

10 Lord Sanderson's Commission's Report on Emigration from India to the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, 1910

11 Report of the Indian Enquiry Commission, South Africa 1914

12 Messrs McNeill and Chimanlal's report on the condition of Indian Emigrants in the four British Colonies Trinidad, British Guiana or Demerara, Jamaica and Fiji, and in the Dutch Colony of Surinam 1914-15

13 Marjoribanks and Marakkayar's report on Indian labour emigrating to Ceylon and Malaya, 1917

14 South Africa Asiatic Enquiry Commission report 1921

15 Report by Right Hon V S Rameshtri regarding his Dominion tour 1923

16 India and the Imperial Conference of 1923 compiled by Director of Public Information Government of India

17 Reports on the scheme for Indian emigration to British Guiana

18 Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to Mauritius, 1925

19 Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to British Guiana 1926

20 Annual Reports of the Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon for the years 1927 1928 and 1929

21 Annual Reports of the Agent of the Government of India in British Malaya for the years 1927 1928 and 1929

22 Annual Reports of the Agent of the Government of India in South Africa for the years 1927, 1928 and 1929

23 Report by the Right Honble V M Srinivasa Sastri P.C. regarding his Mission to East Africa in 1929

Present Position.—Indian emigration questions have recently taken on a wider aspect. The status of Indians in the Empire generally is one in which the Indian public now take keen interest. It is no longer possible to deal with the treatment of Indian labour apart from other classes of Indian emigrants and travellers. In several colonies and dominions considerable Indian communities have sprung up, which although composed largely of the descendants of indentured labourers, are themselves free and lawfully domiciled citizens of the countries in which they are settled, but have not yet been placed on a footing of legal, social, political and economic equality with the rest of the population. The issues round which public interest at present centres are three—

- (a) Control of emigration
- (b) Rights of Indians to admission to other parts of the Empire.
- (c) Rights and disabilities of Indians domiciled overseas

These questions may be considered separately

Control of Emigration—So far as unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute powers of control. The terms of section 10 of the Emigration Act of 1922 are as follows—

10 (1) Emigration, for the purpose of unskilled work, shall not be lawful except to such countries and on such terms and conditions as the Governor General in Council, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, may specify in this behalf

(2) No Notification shall be made under sub-section (1) unless it has been laid in draft before both Chambers of the Indian Legislature and has been approved by a resolution of each Chamber, either without modification or addition, or with modifications and additions to which both Chambers agree, but upon such approval being given, the notification may be issued in the form in which it has been so approved.

Under this law emigration has been legalised to Ceylon on the following conditions

(1) The emigrant shall—

(a) have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of Ceylon, or

(b) have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him

(2) The emigrant shall not before leaving British India have entered into a contract of service for a period exceeding one month

(3) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that any contract of service or a period exceeding one month entered into by an emigrant shall be void

(4) No part of the cost of his recruitment, subsistence during transport or transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be defrayed from a common fund to be raised in such manner and managed by such agency as may appear suitable to the Colonial Government.

(5) The Government of Ceylon shall at any time when so desired by the Governor General in Council admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act

(6) Within one year of his arrival in Ceylon any emigrant who has been assisted to emigrate at the cost of the common fund referred to in clause (4) shall, on satisfying the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity, or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer, or for any other sufficient reason, be repatriated free of cost to the place of recruitment, and the costs of such repatriation shall be defrayed by the Government of Ceylon or the Ceylon Planters Association

(7) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, the Government

of Ceylon shall appoint a person to perform the duties of the Agent as set forth in clause (8)

(8) Within six months from the issue of this Notification or within such further period as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that no payment made in India by a recruiter to an emigrant to enable him to pay off debts before emigrating shall be recoverable

(9) The Government of Ceylon shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of persons emigrating to Ceylon in accordance with this Notification

Similar conditions have been imposed in the case of Malaya. Emigration was also permitted to Mauritius for a period of 1 year only with effect from May 1st 1923, and limited to a number not exceeding 1,500 labourers. The terms were more onerous than in the case of nearer Colonies and the arrangement is now lapsed

Emigration to British Guiana for the purpose of unskilled work has also been declared lawful on the terms and conditions given below but the date from which emigration is to commence has not yet been fixed—

Emigration to British Guiana—Emigration to British Guiana for the purpose of unskilled work shall be lawful with effect from such date as the Governor General in Council may with the concurrence of the Governor of British Guiana notify in the *Gazette of India* on the following terms and conditions which shall thereupon become operative—

(1) The family shall be the unit for the purposes of emigration. Not more than 500 families shall be permitted to emigrate and the number of persons included in the said 500 families shall not exceed 1,500

(2) The emigrants shall either have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of British Guiana or have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him

(3) No part of the cost of his recruitment or subsistence during transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana or met from funds at their disposal

(4) The Government of British Guiana shall at any time when so desired by the Governor General in Council, admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act

(5) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, or if the Agent is absent or unable to perform his duties the Government of British Guiana shall at the request of the Governor General in Council appoint a person to perform temporarily the duties of the Agent

(6) Prior to the arrival of the emigrants Settlement Commission shall be appointed in

British Guiana to select and prepare suitable agricultural land for the emigrants and generally to supervise their employment. The Agent referred to in clause (4) shall on appointment be a member of such Commission.

(7) The Government of British Guiana shall offer to each family for its separate enjoyment a holding comprising not less than five acres of suitable agricultural land prepared for cultivation on the terms hereinafter set out in a locality which shall be healthy and shall have an adequate supply of good drinking water. All expenses in connection with the preparation of the holdings shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana and shall in no case be recoverable from an emigrant.

The annual rent of the holding shall be fixed by the Settlement Commission at a rate not exceeding the lowest rate paid in the locality.

After an emigrant has been in occupation of a holding for three years he shall provided that he has cultivated a portion of the holding either by himself or through some member of his family be entitled to a grant of the holding on payment at any time during the ensuing four years of such fees not exceeding 24 dollars as may be fixed by the Settlement Commission.

On the expiry of seven years from the date of the commencement of his occupation of a holding an emigrant shall acquire absolute ownership in the holding provided that he has paid the rent and fees referred to in the foregoing paragraphs of this clause and has brought under cultivation either by himself or by some member of his family half the area of his holding.

(8) An emigrant on arrival in British Guiana shall be housed and maintained without charge by the Government of British Guiana for at least one month.

(9) If any emigrant so requires loans shall be made to him for maintenance, house accommodation, payment of rent and for agricultural purposes generally. Free medical assistance and free skilled supervision shall be provided.

(10) Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of 7 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana.

Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of more than 3 and not more than 5 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana on payment to the Government of British Guiana of half of the cost of his passage from his residence in India to British Guiana.

Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of more than 5 and not more than 7 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana on payment to the Government of British Guiana of quarter of the cost of his passage from his residence in India to British Guiana.

(11) Notwithstanding anything contained in the last preceding clause the Government of British Guiana on the request of an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act shall repatriate at its own expense and without any pay-

ment by or on behalf of the emigrant to the place of his former residence in India any emigrant at any time after his arrival in British Guiana.

(12) An emigrant shall be at liberty at any time after his arrival in British Guiana to take up work or employment other than or in addition to the cultivation of a holding on lease from the Settlement Commission.

(13) The ordinance enjoining compulsory education in British Guiana shall be enforced to the same extent in the case of Indian children as in the case of children belonging to other communities.

(14) Boards of arbitration in regard to wages shall be established before the arrival of the emigrants and Indians shall be adequately represented on such boards.

(15) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and under any agreement in force at the date of this notification is entitled to an assisted return passage to India shall not be required to pay more than 25 per cent of the passage in the cost of his return passage and clothing over the cost of such passage and clothing at the time of his first arrival in the colony.

(16) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and has at the date of this notification become or thereafter becomes destitute shall be entitled to be repatriated to India at the expense of the Government of British Guiana without being further required to prove that he has become incapable of labour.

(17) The Government of British Guiana shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of the persons emigrating to the Colony in accordance with this notification.

Admission of Indians to Other Parts of the Empire.—On the motion of the Government of India this question was discussed at the Imperial War Conferences 1917 and 1918, and the policy accepted by the self governing dominions and the British Government was embodied in the following resolutions—

(1) It is an inherent function of the Governments of the several communities of the British Commonwealth including India, that each should enjoy complete control of the composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities.

(2) British citizens domiciled in any British country including India, should be admitted into any other British country for visits, for the purpose of pleasure or commerce including temporary residence for the purpose of education such right shall not extend to a visit or temporary residence for labour purposes or to permanent settlement.

(3) Indians already permanently domiciled in the other British countries should be allowed to bring in their wives and minor children on condition—(a) That not more than one wife and her children shall be admitted for each such Indian, and (b) that each individual so admitted shall be certified by the Government of India as being the lawful wife or child of such Indian."

The first paragraph of this resolution has regularised the various restrictions on immigration which the self-governing dominions have, from time to time, adopted and which, without expressly differentiating against Indians in practice used in order to check Indian immigration, the objections to which are stated to be not racial or political but economic. Australia prohibits the entry of any person who fails to pass a dictation test of not less than 50 words in any prescribed language. New Zealand prohibits the entry of any person who has not received in advance a permit from the Dominion Government which is refused to any person regarded as unsuitable to settle in the country. South Africa prohibits the entry of any person deemed by the Minister of the Interior on economic grounds or on account of his standard or habits of life to be unsuited to the requirements of the Union. Canada prohibits the landing of any person who has come to the Dominion otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native and unless he possesses in his own right 250 dollars. New Zealand and the Irish Free State impose no restrictions. All the self-governing Dominions have adopted special exemptions in favour of students, tourists and merchants visiting the countries for the temporary purposes of commerce, pleasure or education. India on its side has assumed power to regulate the admission of immigrants from any other part of the Empire or foreign countries, by means of passports. A Bill has also been passed by the Indian Legislature empowering the Government of India to make rules for the purpose of securing that persons not being of Indian origin, domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian domicile. With regard to the Crown colonies and protectorates, the attitude of the Indian Government is that there is no justification for placing any restrictions on the immigration of British Indians, which are not placed on other classes of British subjects, and this principle has in practice been observed by the Colonial Office except in the case of Kenya colony where, as stated hereafter, the British Government has reserved to itself the right to impose restrictions on the immigration of classes of people whose entry into the colony may have an adverse effect on the economic evolution of the indigenous population.

Rights and Disabilities of Indians Lawfully Domiciled Overseas.—The policy of the Empire is summed up in the resolution of the Imperial Conference, 1921, which was recorded in the following terms—

"This Conference reaffirms that each Community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control over the composition of its own population by restricting immigration from any of the other communities, but recognises that there is incongruity between the position of India, as an equal member of the Empire, and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some parts of the Empire, and this Conference,

therefore, is of opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised."

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India, while appreciating the acceptance of this resolution, nevertheless feel bound to record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa and hope that by negotiations between India and South Africa a way can be found as soon as may be to reach a more satisfactory position."

The Right Hon. Sri Srinivasa Sastry visited the Dominions of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the course of 1922 as the emissary of the Government of India to assist them in giving effect to this resolution. The main object of his mission was to appeal to the Governments and public of Canada and Australia fully to enfranchise qualified domiciled Indians. In Australia, Indians resident in Queensland and Western Australia have neither the provincial nor the federal franchise. In Canada, Indians resident in British Columbia are excluded from the dominion as well as the provincial franchise. While successful in securing a more sympathetic atmosphere towards Indians, he failed to bring about any modification in the existing electoral laws.

The question of giving effect to this resolution of 1921 was raised by the Indian representatives at the Imperial Conference 1923. Their proposal was as follows—

Let the Dominion Governments who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Governments in the areas under their direct control such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India and explore the avenues of how best and how soonest the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 Resolution may be implemented."

This proposal was favourably received by the Dominion Premiers, including General Smuts and by the Secretary of State for the Colonies who cordially agreed that there should be full consultation and discussions between him and a Committee appointed by the Government of India upon all questions affecting British Indians domiciled in British Colonies and protectorates and mandated territories. In pursuance of the proposal, the Government of India appointed a Committee in March 1924 composed of Mr. J. Hope Simpson, M.P. Chairman, H. H. the Aga Khan, Sir B. Robertson, Sir Bahadur T. Rangachariar, M.L.A., and Mr. K. O. Roy with Mr. R. B. Swbank, C.I.E. I.C.S., as Secretary to make representations to the Colonial Office on certain outstanding questions affecting Indians in Kenya and Fiji. The Committee assembled in London early in April 1924 and dispersed towards the end of July. During this period they had several interviews with the Secretary of State for the Colonies and the officials of the Colonial Office, in which they made representations upon a variety of important matters affecting Indians in Kenya, in Fiji and

in the mandated territory of Tanganyika. In regard to Kenya, the representations covered all questions of interest to India dealt with in the decision of His Majesty's Government. The result of these representations was announced by Mr J. H. Thomas in the House of Commons on August 7th, 1924. The situation in Kenya also improved as a result of the work of the committee by the decision of the Indian community to relinquish their former attitude of non-co-operation and to accept an arrangement by which they will select five members to be nominated by the Governor to the Legislative Council. The result of the representations which the Committee made on certain outstanding questions relating to Indians in Fiji was announced on January 12th 1927 when the Government of India published the more important papers relating to the negotiations which had been going on with the Colonial Office for some time.

Summary of present Position—Outside Australia, N Zealand and Canada the position stands as follows —

(1) South Africa—The main grievances of Indians which led to a passive resistance movement headed by Mr Gandhi were settled by the compromise embodied in the Indians Relief Act, 1914 and by the guarantee known as the Smuts-Gandhi agreement. The substance of this agreement is embodied in the following extracts from letters —

(i) Mr Gorges Secretary for the Interior to Mr Gandhi, June 30th, 1914. With regard to the administration of existing laws the Minister desires me to say that it always has been, and will continue to be the desire of the Government to see that they are administered in a just manner and with due regard to vested rights.

(ii) Mr Gandhi to Mr Gorges, July 7th 1914

By vested rights I understand the right of an Indian and his successors to live and trade in the township in which he was living and trading, no matter how often he shifts his residence or business from place to place in the same township

This has been officially interpreted to mean that the vested rights of those Indians who were then living and trading in townships whether in contravention of the law or not should be respected

In 1920 an Asiatic Enquiry Commission was appointed to investigate the grievances of Indians regarding their rights to trade and hold land in the Union. Their main recommendations were as follows —

(1) Law 3 of 1886 (Transvaal) the Gold Law of the Transvaal (Act No 35 of 1908) and Act No. 37 of 1919 should not be repealed

(2) There should be no compulsory registration of Asiatics, but

(3) Voluntary repatriation should be encouraged

(4) There should be no compulsory segregation of Asiatics but

(5) A system of voluntary separation should be introduced under which municipalities should have right subject to certain conditions —

(a) to lay out residential areas for Asiatics, (b) to set aside certain streets or portions of the town for Asiatic traders to which existing license holders should gradually be attracted

(8) These areas should be selected and allocated by a board of independent persons in consultation with the Municipal Council and Asiatic community

(7) In Natal the right of Asiatics to acquire and own land for farming or agricultural purposes, outside townships should be confined to the coast belt, say, 20 to 30 miles inland.

(8) A uniform License Law applicable to all the Provinces of the Union should be possible, be enacted. If that is impracticable, the law relating to the issue of Trade Licenses in the Cape Province, the Transvaal and Natal should be assimilated in a comprehensive consolidating Act of Parliament providing, *inter alia* —

(a) That the granting of all licenses to trade (not being liquor licenses) shall be entrusted to municipal bodies within the area of their jurisdiction, outside those areas, to divisional Councils in the Cape Province and in the other Provinces to special Licensing Officers appointed by the Administrator

(b) The grounds upon which an application for the grant of a new license may be refused

(c) That the reasons for the refusal to grant any license shall be recorded, together with any evidence tendered for or against the application

(d) That, in the case of the refusal of a license on the ground that the applicant is not a fit and proper person to hold the same or to carry on the proposed business there shall be a final appeal to a Special Appeal Board, appointed by the Administrator

(e) That municipal bodies shall have the right to prohibit the license holder, or any other person, from residing in any shop, store or other place of business

(9) There should be no relaxation in the enforcement of the Immigration Laws, and more active steps should be taken to deal with prohibited immigrants who have evaded the provisions of those laws.

(10) The administration of the Asiatic policy of the Government should be placed in the hands of one official, under whose charge would come all administrative functions, together with the official records relating to Asiatics. This officer should also be entrusted with the duty of securing full statistics regarding Asiatics in the Union and of the arrivals in and departures from South Africa. Details of all applications for trade licenses, and transactions in connection with the purchase of land and property made by Asiatics throughout the Union, should be sent to him in order to ensure the enforcement of the provisions of Section 3 of Act 22 of 1913

On the other hand, he should keep in close touch with the various sections of the Indian community, see that the laws are applied in a just manner give a ready ear to any complaints or grievances and generally safeguard their interests.

From the above it will be observed that the Commission recommended the retention of a law prohibiting the ownership of land by Asiatics in the Transvaal and another of its recommendations, threatened the right which Indians had previously enjoyed of acquiring and owning land in the (lands of Natal. Against this latter proposal the Government of India earnestly protested but it was not accepted by the Union Government.

Present Position—Indians enjoy both the political and municipal franchise only in the Cape Province and the municipal franchise only in Natal. In the remaining two provinces they are not enfranchised. They are subjected to differential treatment in the matter of trading licenses especially in the Transvaal. Their immigration into the Union is barred and severe restrictions exist on inter provincial migration. In the Transvaal they are not allowed to acquire immovable property outside locations and on the Witwatersrand they are subject to the restrictions of the Gold Law.

The anti Asiatic party have made several efforts especially in Natal, further to curtail the rights of Indians. Some of these are merely irritating social disabilities, such as railway regulations debarring Indians from travelling in any other carriages except those reserved for them, and similar rules restricting their use of tramways at Durban and excluding them from race courses and betting club rooms. Examples of recent anti-Asiatic legislation of major importance are

(a) The Natal Rural Dealers Licensing Ordinance, transferring the power of granting trading licenses from the Licensing Officer to an elected Licensing Board, on which Indians may not sit.

(b) The Durban Land Alienation Ordinance. This Ordinance which enables Municipalities in selling land to assign it for particular communities, and to that extent to secure segregation, has been allowed on condition that Asiatics are given reasonable opportunity for acquiring adequate residential sites.

Anti Asiatic feeling in South Africa—A bill for the segregation of Asiatics known as the Class Areas Bill was introduced in the Union Assembly in March 1924 which though not specifically directed against Indians, contained provisions which could be used for the compulsory segregation of all Asiatics in certain areas. Indian opinion was deeply agitated over the prospect of this legislation which it was apprehended might in the existing state of public opinion in South Africa result in the economic ruin of a large number of Indian traders in the Union. In response to the vigorous protests made by the Government of India the Union Government gave an assurance that it was their desire and intention to apply the measure if it became law in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements

of resident Indians. The Government of India whilst welcoming the assurance were unable to rest satisfied with this position and made every effort to persuade the Union Government to abandon the project. For the moment they have succeeded, as in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African Parliament the bill has lapsed.

In Natal an Ordinance was introduced in the Provincial Council in 1921 dealing with the township franchises to the detriment of the Indian community. It was again introduced in 1922 and in a modified form in 1923 but in each instance the Union Government withheld its approval. In 1923 the Union Government itself introduced a measure entitled *The Class Areas Bill* containing provisions which could be used in urban areas for the compulsory segregation of Asiatics. Indian opinion was deeply exercised over the prospects of this legislation despite the assurance of the Union Government that it desired to apply the measure in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of Indian residents. But in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African House of Assembly in April, 1924 the bill lapsed. Towards the end of December 1924 news was received that the Government of South Africa had given its consent to the Natal Borough Ordinance. This measure while safeguarding the rights of Indians already on the electoral roll of Boroughs prevented further enrolment of Indians as burgesses. Similarly the Natal Township Franchise Ordinance (No. 3 of 1923) was passed to or to render Indians ineligible for township franchises in future. Further, towards the end of January 1925 news was received that the Union Government had gazetted a Bill to amend the Mines and Works Act in order to take powers to refuse certificates of competency to natives or Asiatics in certain occupations. The Government of India made suitable representations in the matter to the Union Government and the Select Committee to which the measure was referred altered its wording so as not to refer to Asiatics and natives directly. The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was passed by the Union Assembly but rejected by the Senate. In January 1926 it was reintroduced and in May it was adopted in a joint Session of the Senate and the Assembly, by eighty three votes to sixty seven. In reply to representations made by the Government of India they were informed that there was no present intention on the part of the Union Government of extending regulations beyond the position as it existed prior to the judgement of the Transvaal Provincial Division of the Supreme Court in the case *Rees versus Hildrick Smith* when it was held that certain regulations with reference to mines and works which have actually been in force in the Union of South Africa since 1911 and in certain provinces for many years before that date were not valid under sections of the Act in terms of which they were promulgated. The Government of India were assured that should any such extension of the scope of these regulations be contemplated in future every reasonable opportunity will be given to all the parties in the Union interested in the matter to make representations.

In July 1925, a more comprehensive Bill, known as the Areas Reservation and Immigration and Registration (Further Provision) Bill, was introduced in the Union Assembly. The Government of India made effective representations against the provisions of this Bill both on grounds of principle as well as of detail.

Deputation to S. Africa

Towards the end of November 1925 the Government of India with the concurrence of the Government of South Africa sent a deputation to South Africa the personnel of which was as follows—

G. F. Paddison Esq. C.S.I., I.C.S. (Com-
missioner of Labour Madras)—*Leader*
Hon. Mr. Syed Basa Ali M.A.—*Member*
Sir Deva Prasad Saravadhikary Kt. C.I.E.—*Member*

G. S. Bajpal Esq. C.B.E., I.C.S.—*Secretary*

The main purpose of the deputation was to collect as soon as possible first hand information regarding the economic condition and general position of the resident Indian community in South Africa and to form an appreciation of the wishes and requirements of the Indian community in South Africa. This deputation was followed by a return visit to India of a Parliamentary deputation from the Union Government of which the following were members—

The Hon. Mr. W. H. Murray, Minister of Mines and Industries, Patrick Duncan K.C., M.P., Messrs. A. C. Kordom, J. H. Marwick (Durban), O. S. Vermeulen, W. H. Kood and J. H. Hartshorne. As a result of the investigations of these deputations the Government of India and of the Union arranged for a meeting in the Union of a further deputation from India to explore every possible avenue in order to arrive at a satisfactory solution of the Indian problem.

The Indian delegation whose members were Sir Muhammad Habibullah, the Hon. Mr. Sir Phiroze Sethna, Sir Percy Lindsay, Sir G. F. Paddison, the Rt. Hon. Mr. Srinivasa Sastry, Mr. G. L. Corbett and Mr. G. S. Bajpal assembled in conference with the Parliamentary deputation in Cape Town on the 17th December 1926. At the session which lasted until the 11th January 1927 the contentious differences were discussed by the delegates freely and openly and in a spirit of determination to find a satisfactory solution of the outstanding difficulties. At the close of the Conference the delegates were therefore able to recommend the following articles, which were unanimously approved of by the respective Governments as a basis of agreement—

- (1) Both Governments reaffirm their recognition of the right of South Africa to use all just and legitimate means for the maintenance of Western Standard of life.
- (2) The Union Government recognise that Indians domiciled in the Union who are prepared to conform to Western Standards of life should be enabled to do so.
- (3) For those Indians in the Union who may desire to avail themselves of it the Union Government will organise a

scheme of assisted emigration to India or other countries when Western standards are not required. Union domicile will be lost after three years continuous absence from the Union in agreement with the proposed revision of the law relating to domicile which will be of general application. Emigrants under the assisted emigration scheme who desire to return to the Union within the three years will be allowed to do so only on return to the Union Government at the end of the assistance period by them.

- (4) The Government of India recognise their obligation to look after such emigrants on their arrival in India.
- (5) The admission into the Union of the wives and minor children of Indians permanently domiciled in the Union will be regulated by paragraph 1 of Resolution XXI of the Imperial Conference of 1914.
- (6) In the expectation that the difficulties with which the Union has been confronted will be materially lessened by the agreement which has now happily been reached between the two Governments and in order that the agreement may come into operation under the most favourable auspices and have a fair trial the Government of the Union of South Africa have decided not to proceed further with an Immigration, Immigration and Registration (Further Provision) Bill.
- (7) The two Governments have agreed to watch the working of the agreement now reached and to exchange views from time to time as to any changes that experience may suggest.
- (8) The Government of the Union of South Africa have requested the Government of India to appoint an Agent in the Union in order to secure continuous and effective co-operation between the two Governments.

In India the settlement was on the whole well received. In South Africa the more responsible newspapers, both English and Dutch such as the "Cap. Times" and "Die Burger" paid handsome tributes to both delegations for the statesmanship with which they had brought to bear on their work and the eminently reasonable and practical character of the results achieved by them. The majority of people in both countries doubtless regard it as a good first step in the solution of a complicated problem and the spirit of which it is the outcome as the best guarantee of a progressive and friendly adjustment honourable to both parties.

The friendly relations which were happily established between the Government of India and the Union Government of South Africa as a result of the agreement not only continue but have grown in warmth and sincerity. The Government of India sent out as their first Agent in South Africa the Right Hon. Mr. Srinivasa Sastry, P.C. who was a member of the Government of India's Delegation to the Cape Town Conference. His appointment

was received with universal approval both in India and South Africa, the satisfaction felt by the Union Government being indicated by their decision, as an act of grace to make his appointment, to extend an amnesty to all Indians illegally present in the Union. On their part the Union Government after the ratification of the Agreement by the two Governments, lost no time in introducing legislation to give effect to their undertakings under it so that when Mr. Saastri arrived in South Africa in June 1927 all that remained to be done was to take action under Part III of the Agreement relating to the measures required for the upliftment of the Indian community. Most of the provisions of this part concern the Province of Natal where the bulk of the Indian population of the Union is resident, and the Union Government were not slow in moving the Provincial Administration to appoint a Commission to enquire into the condition of Indian education in that province and to devise the means necessary for its improvement. Co-operation with this Commission on the part of the Government of India was provided by the Deputation from India of two educational experts—Mr. K. P. Mehta I.E.S. Deputy Director of Education in the United Provinces, and Miss C. Gordon, B.E. (Edin.), Madras Educational Service, Lecturer in Kindergarten methods at the Government Training College at Sastipet to advise and assist the Commission in its investigations and deliberations.

A notable feature of the present situation was the marked spirit of friendliness and good will which now animates the Union Government in dealing with all problems affecting the domiciled Indian community. An example of this occurred in the year 1927 when a measure was introduced in the Union Parliament known as the Liquor Bill, clause 104 of which purported to prohibit the employment of Indians on any licensed premises—hotels, clubs, breweries, etc. The appearance of this clause which threatened the livelihood of 3,000 Indians engaged in such occupations caused consternation among them and the Minister in charge decided to withdraw the clause from the scope of the Bill.

Much of the credit for the salutary measures referred to and the spirit of friendliness which they denote were due to the Right Hon. Mr. Saastri, the Agent of the Government of India in South Africa whose tact and honesty earned for him the confidence of the European community official and non official alike and an increasing measure of their sympathy and assistance in furtherance of the Indian cause. Gratifying response was made by the Indians to this appeal for £20,000 for the purpose of opening a combined Teachers Training and High school in Durban. The institution which meets an urgent need for Indians in the Union of South Africa was opened on October 14th 1929, by His Excellency the Earl of Athlone, Governor General of South Africa. It is known as the Saastri College and has on its staff six fully qualified Indian teachers recruited in India.

In India the Government of India have appointed officers to look after repatriates and their personal property immediately upon their return from South Africa, to arrange for their

despatch to their homes and if possible, to find them employment for which they may be suited.

Early in 1929 the Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Saastri retired on the expiration of his period of appointment, and Sir Kurma Venkata Reddi, Kt. was chosen as his successor. In December 1929 sudden and serious illness compelled Sir Kurma Reddi to return to India on sick leave. During the time he has held his post, Sir Kurma has amply justified his selection to this important office.

Early in February 1930 the Government of the Union of South Africa set up a Select Committee of the House of the Assembly to enquire into certain questions relating to the right of Indians to occupy and own fixed property in the Transvaal and to propose such legislation to the House as it might deem fit. This decision was the result of a number of recent judicial judgments bearing upon the occupation of premises on proclaimed grounds in the Transvaal by persons belonging to the native races of Asia and to the wide spread belief that the intentions of the Union Parliament as indicated in Act 37 of 1919 which purported to prohibit the acquisition of immovable property by Asiatics subsequent to its coming into operation were being systematically defeated. As the labours of the Committee were likely to affect important Indian interests and as Sir Kurma Reddi was on leave in India the Government of India deputed Mr. J. D. Tyson I.C.S. to make suitable representations to the Committee for safeguarding legitimate Indian interests and to give the Indian community in the Transvaal such assistance as it might need for placing its views before the Committee. The Committee's conclusions which were embodied in a Bill and its Report were placed on the table of the Legislative Assembly of the Union on the 19th May and the Bill prepared by them was read in the House for the first time on the 14th of that month. As soon as copies of the Bill and the Select Committee's Report reached the Government of India, they made pressing representations to the Government of the Union to allow adequate time for careful examination of the far reaching provisions of the measure which the Select Committee had prepared. Their representations were not without effect and the Union Government decided to postpone further consideration of the Bill until the next session of the Union Parliament which will commence early in 1931.

(2) **Kenya Colony.**—The grievances of Indians domiciled in this Colony are fully set forth in the published despatch of the Government of India, dated October 21st, 1920. The controversy centred round the following points—

(a) **FRANCHISE.**—Indians have not the elective franchise. The Government of India proposed that there should be a common electoral roll and a common franchise on a reasonable property basis plus an educational test, without racial discrimination for all British subjects.

(b) **SEGREGATION.**—Professor Simpson who was sent to East Africa to report on sanitary matters, recommended segregation on sanitary grounds. The Government of India objected, firstly, that it was impracticable,

secondly, that it was commercially inconvenient and thirdly, that Indians are in practice unfairly treated in the allocation of sites

(c) **THE HIGHLANDS**.—Lord Elgin decided in 1908 that as a matter of administrative convenience grants of land in the upland area should not be made to Indians. The whole area has now been given out, and the Government of India claim that there is no land left to which Lord Elgin's decision applies. This decision has now, however, been amended so as to prohibit the transfer of land in the uplands to non-Europeans.

(d) **IMMIGRATION**.—Suggestions have been put forward for restricting Asiatic immigration into Kenya. The Government of India claim that there is no case for restricting Indian immigration and that such restrictions would be in principle indefensible.

THE SETTLEMENT.—The decisions of the British Government were contained in a White Paper presented to Parliament in July 1923. It was held that the guiding principle should be that the interests of the African native must be paramount, and in light of this it was decided—

(e) **FRANCHISE**.—A communal franchise was adopted with 11 seats for elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, one nominated Arab one missionary representing the Africans, and a nominated official majority. One Indian is also appointed on the Governor's Executive Council.

(f) **SEGREGATION**.—The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asiatics is also done.

(g) **THE HIGHLANDS**.—The existing practice is maintained both as regards initial grants of and transfers. A similar reservation in the low lands is offered to Indians.

(h) **IMMIGRATION**.—Racial discrimination in immigration regulations is rejected. But in the economic interests of the Africans, further control over immigration is necessary. Some arrangement is required for securing a strictly impartial examination of applications for entry into Kenya. The Governors of Kenya and Uganda have been instructed to submit joint proposals for legislation.

The Government of India reviewed their decisions in a resolution published on August 18th, 1923, and recorded "their deep regret that His Majesty's Government did not feel justified in giving greater effect to the recommendations made by them" and reserved liberty to reopen the case on a suitable opportunity. They stated their intention of making representations regarding the action to be taken to implement these decisions, particularly in the matter of the immigration regulations.

Following upon the Kenya award statutory action was taken by the local administration on the franchise question. Adult suffrage on communal lines was conferred upon Indians. As regards immigration, the Government of India took the opportunity to urge the postponement of the bill giving effect to the decision of His Majesty's Government until such time as the Committee proposed by their representatives at the Imperial conference in 1923 had an oppor-

tunity of examining the question of the restrictions therein embodied. Accordingly the introduction of the bill was postponed at the instance of the Colonial Secretary. The Government of Kenya was also asked by His Majesty's Government for an explanatory statement regarding the method proposed for the administration of immigration measures. The Government of India received an assurance from the Colonial Secretary that ample opportunities would be afforded for the expression of their views, and that earnest attention would be given to any representation which their Committee desired to make. As has already been stated such a Committee was appointed in March 1924. The following statement made by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on 7th August 1924 shows the result of the representation made by the Colonies Committee—

(1) **IMMIGRATION**.—My position is that it danger over arises of such an influx of Indian labour, of whatever class, race, nationality or character, as may likely be prejudicial to the economic interest of the natives. I hold myself entirely free to take any action which may be necessary. Conflicting statistics which have been laid before me have not enabled me to reach a definite conclusion as regards the extent of net Indian immigration. Accordingly steps will be taken to create a statistical department to obtain accurate information with regard to persons of all races arriving in or departing from Kenya. Meanwhile the Kenya Immigration Ordinance will not be enacted.

(2) **FRANCHISE**.—I have given careful consideration to representations in favour of a common poll but I am not prepared to reach the conclusion already arrived at that in the special circumstances of Kenya, with four diverse communities, each of which will ultimately require electoral representation, the communal system is the best way to secure the fair representation of each and all of these communities.

(3) **HIGHLANDS**.—I consider that the Secretary of State for the Colonies has no alternative but to continue pledges expressed or implied which had been given in the past, and I can hold out no hope of the policy in regard to agricultural land in the Highlands being reconsidered.

(4) **LOWLANDS**.—It was proposed to reserve an area in the lowlands for agricultural immigrants from India. The Committee made it plain that it is averse from any reservation of land for any immigrant race, subject to the suggestion that before applications for land in lowland areas are invited an opportunity should be taken of sending an officer experienced in Indian settlement and agricultural methods to report on the areas. At present any consideration of the matter is in suspense pending receipt from the colony of reports from the native and agricultural points of view on the areas in question.

With regard to the announcement in connection with Lowlands the question of deputing an officer to examine these areas was considered by the Government of India who thought it inadvisable to proceed any further with the idea.

The work of the Colonies Committee did much to abate the bitterness which existed in the relations between the different classes of settlers in Kenya and the situation was further improved by the decision of the Indian community to relinquish their attitude of non-co-operation and to select five members for nomination by the Governor to the Legislative Council.

In June 1924 His Majesty's Government announced the appointment of an East African Committee under the Chairmanship of Lord Southborough to consider and report on certain questions regarding the administration and economic development of British East African dependencies. Since this enquiry was likely to affect Indian interests, the Government of India urged that the Indian point of view should be heard before the Committee came to any conclusions. This request was granted but further action in the matter was suspended, pending the publication of the report of the Commission provided over by Major Ormsby Gore which visited East Africa to enquire into certain aspects of the questions referred to the Southborough Committee. The report of the Ormsby Gore Commission was published in the United Kingdom on May 7th 1925. On June 9th, Major Ormsby Gore announced in the House of Commons that in view of the completeness of the report presented by the Commission which under his chairmanship had visited East Africa His Majesty's Government had decided that the Southborough Committee should not resume its sittings.

In November 1926 Information reached the Government of India that the Government of Kenya contemplated undertaking legislation at an early date in order to make the European and Indian communities responsible for the not cost of their education. It was originally intended to give effect to this decision by levying from Europeans a tax on domestic servants in their employ and from Indians a poll tax. The Indian community resented this differentiation and ultimately the colonial Government decided that both communities should pay the same form of tax viz. an adult poll tax. For Europeans this has been fixed at 30 shillings and for Indians at 20 shillings. An Ordinance giving effect to this decision was passed by the Kenya Legislative Council and came into force from 1st January, 1927.

In view of the issue of another White Paper in July 1927 in which it was announced that His Majesty's Government had authorised the Secretary of State for the Colonies to send to Africa a special Commission to investigate the possibility of securing more effective co-operation between the Governments of Eastern and Central African Dependencies and make recommendations on this and cognate matters the question regarding the position of Indians in Kenya again came to the forefront.

The announcement excited serious apprehensions in India with regard to the future position of Indians in those Colonies. A deputation drawn mainly from both houses of the Indian Legislature also waited on His Excellency the Viceroy on the 17th September, 1927, and represented the position of Indians in East Africa. One of the suggestions made by the

deputation was that permission may be given for a small deputation appointed by the Government of India to go over to East Africa in order—

- (a) to make a general survey of these territories in relation to Indian interests therein, and
- (b) to help the resident Indian community in preparing their evidence for the Commission.

The Government of India readily accepted this suggestion and with the approval of His Majesty's Government sent Kunwar Maharaj Singh (C.I.F.) and Mr. R. B. Ewbank (C.I.K.) to East Africa. These officers visited Kenya, Uganda, Zanzibar and Tanganyika and their services are understood to have been greatly appreciated by the resident Indian communities. The personnel of the Commission was announced by the Secretary of State for the Colonies on November 14th 1927 and was as follows:—The Right Hon. Sir Edward Hilton Young (P.C., G.B.E., D.S.O., D.S.C., M.P.) (Chairman), Sir Reginald Mant, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. Sir George Schuster, K.C.M.G., C.B.E., M.C. and Mr. G. H. Oldham (Members) with Mr. H. F. Downie (Secretary). The Commission left Freetown on December 32nd 1927 and travelled via the Nile to Uganda, and thence to Kenya, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia, visiting the chief centres and hearing the views of representatives of different sections of the community. The Commission also visited Salisbury for the purpose of conferring with the Government of Southern Rhodesia. The report of the Commission was published on the 18th January 1929.

It was examined by the Government of India in consultation with the Standing Emigration Committee of the Indian Legislature and with prominent representatives of all Parties in the Legislative Assembly who were not members of the Committee. The tentative conclusions reached by Government on the main recommendations in the Report were set out in a telegram to the Secretary of State for India of the 19th March 1929 which was published in India in September 1929.

In March 1929 the Secretary of State for the Colonies sent out Sir Samuel Wilson, Under Secretary of State for the Colonies to East Africa to discuss the recommendations of the Hilton Young Commission for the closer union of Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda (and such possible modification of these proposals for effecting the object in view as may appear desirable) with the Governments concerned and also with any bodies or individuals representing the various interests and communities affected with a view to seeing how far it may be possible to find a basis of general agreement. Sir Samuel was also directed to ascertain on what lines a scheme for closer union would be administratively workable and otherwise acceptable and to report the outcome of his consultations. At the invitation of the Secretary of State for the Colonies the Government of India deputed the Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, P.C., to East Africa to help the local Indian communities to state their views to Sir Samuel Wilson on matters arising out of the Hilton Young Commission's Report and to be at Sir Samuel Wilson's disposal if he wished.

to make use of him in dealing with the Indian deputations.

Mr. Sastri left India in April and returned in June 1929. In the Report presented by him on his return he recommended that the Government of India should—

- (a) press for inquiries as to the basis of a civilisation franchise which shall be common to all races alike
- (b) invoke the good offices of the Colonial Office and of the Government of Kenya in securing the consent of the European Community to the establishment of a common roll
- (c) oppose the grant of responsible government to Kenya or of any institutions leading up to it
- (d) oppose the establishment of a Central Council on the lines proposed by Sir Samuel Wilson
- (e) demand in case of the establishment of some such body that the unofficial representatives from each province should include an adequate number of Indians
- (f) advocate the continuance of the official majority in the Legislative Council of Kenya
- (g) demand that the representation of natives in the Kenya Legislative Council should be by natives or by Europeans and Indians in equal proportions

In September 1929 the Indian Delegation from East Africa was received by Sir Fazl-i-Husain, Member in charge of the Education, Health and Labour Department of the Government of India at Simla. The delegation was represented by Mr. J. B. Pandya, Mr. O. P. Datta and Mr. Iswar Das from East Africa and Pt. H. N. Kunzru and Mr. V. S. Ramani from Madras. Mr. A. B. Reid, Joint Secretary to the P. H. L. Department, was also present.

Sir Fazl-i-Husain welcomed the delegation and requested them to tell him in what matter they wished the Government of India to help them. The delegation stated in view of the Indian Communities in East Africa on the matters arising out of the Hilton Young Commission's Report which in their judgment most vitally affected Indian interests. The statement made by the delegation related principally to the question of common franchise in Kenya the representation of the natives of the country on the Council of the Federation of the several territories in East Africa along the lines suggested in the report the reservation of land in Kenya for the settlement of Indians the residential segregation of Indians in Kenya the appointment of an Indian Trade Commissioner in East Africa the improvement of educational facilities for Indians in East Africa the appointment of Indians in the higher public services there and the better political representation of Indian interests in Uganda and Tanganyika. The delegation also requested the Government of India to nominate a representative to accompany the Deputation which they propose to send to London shortly to put the Indian case before His Majesty's Government before they pass any orders on the Hilton Young Commission's Report.

Sir Fazl-i-Husain thanked the delegation for their interesting statement, but said that before he could make any statement on the attitude of the Government of India in regard to the points advanced by the delegation or reply to their request for the nomination by the Government of India of a representative to accompany the proposed deputation to London he would like the members of the delegation to attend the meeting which the Government of India had arranged to hold upon the 14th September with leading members of the Legislature and the Standing Emigration Committee so that the latter might have the advantage of hearing the delegation themselves before they advised the Government of India upon the situation. The delegation expressed their willingness to attend the meeting and then withdrew.

The next meetings of the Standing Emigration Committee were held and the decision arrived at by the Government of India was communicated to His Majesty's Government.

The report of Sir Samuel Wilson was published on the 21st October 1929. Another meeting of the Standing Emigration Committee was held soon thereafter to consider the report and a further communication was addressed to His Majesty's Government on the subject.

The question of the future Government of East Africa is now being considered by His Majesty's Government on whom the Government of India have impressed the keen interest which in this question by all communities in India and the importance of having due regard in their treatment of this matter to legitimate Indian claims.

During the year 1927 another matter which engaged Government and the public in India was the report of the local Government Commission which was appointed by the Governor of Kenya in July 1926 to make recommendations as to the establishment or extension of local government for certain areas in the Colony.—The report of the Commission was submitted to the Governor of Kenya in February 1927. The recommendations made were numerous and so far as Indians were concerned they involved a decrease in the proportion of Indian representation on the local bodies at Nairobi and Mombasa and the creation of a European elected majority in both places. This caused resentment among Indians in the Colony and resulted in the abstention from the Legislative Council of four out of five Indian representatives. The Government of India submitted representations to His Majesty's Secretary of State for India on the subject.

In 1928 the Local Government (Municipalities) Ordinance was passed. This amended the law relating to Municipal Councils in Kenya to provide for the nomination of 7 members Indian Members as against 9 European Members to be elected in Nairobi and for the nomination to the Municipal Board of Mombasa of an equal number of European and Indian Members viz 7.

(3) **Fiji and British Guiana.**—Emigration to Fiji was stopped in 1917 under Rule 18 (b) of the Defence of India (consolidated) Rules in pursuance of the general policy of stopping recruitment under the indentured system of emigration. With a view to secure if possible, a renewal of emigration to the Colony

an unofficial mission composed of the Bishop of Polynesia and Mr Rankine, Receiver-General to the Fiji Government, arrived in India in December 1919, and submitted a scheme of colonisation which was referred to a committee of the Imperial Legislative Council on 4th February 1920. To secure a favourable reception for this mission the Fiji Government cancelled all outstanding indentures of East Indian labourers from 2nd January 1920, and also announced their intention to take early measures to provide for the representation of the Indian community on the Legislative Council on an elective basis by two members. In accordance with the recommendations made by the Committee the Government of India informed the mission in March 1920, that they would be willing to send a Committee to Fiji provided that the Government of Fiji and the Secretary of State for the Colonies would guarantee that the position of the emigrants in their new home will in all respects be equal to that of any other class of His Majesty's subjects resident in Fiji. In July 1920 the Government of Fiji informed the Secretary of State for the Colonies of their willingness to give the pledge subject to his approval. Arrangements with regard to the contemplated deputation however were postponed until January 1921, owing to the announcement of Lord Milner's policy in regard to Indians in Kenya, and the desirability of consulting the new Legislature in India. After consultation with the Fiji Government as to the terms of reference and personnel of the deputation, an announcement was made on the 27th June 1921. But owing to the inability of the two Indian members Messrs Srinivasa Sastri and Hridaynath Kunzru who had been nominated to join the Committee which as finally constituted consisted of Messrs Venkateswari Raju, G. L. Corbett, Govind Sahai Sharma, and Lieutenant S. Hissam ud din Khan, did not reach Fiji until the end of January 1922.

The labour troubles in Fiji in the years 1920-21 had produced an unexpected result in India. The Government of Fiji cancelled the indentures of Indian labourers as from January 1920 while arrangements were made for the early repatriation of such of them as desired to return to their own country. In consequence, large numbers left Fiji. Many arrived in India comparatively destitute while others who were colonial born or whose long residence in the colonies had rendered them unfit for the old social conditions found themselves utterly out of place—indeed foreigners—in their own country. Returned emigrants from other colonies also being in difficulties owing to the unfavourable economic situation in India strongly desired to return to the territories from which they had come. During the early part of 1921 from all parts of India there was a steady drift of destitute and distressed labourers in the direction of Calcutta where they hoped to find ships to take them back to the colonies in which they were certain of work and livelihood. At the earnest representation of the Fiji Government, and after full consultation with representative public men, arrangements were made to relax the emigration restriction in favour of those Indians who were born and had property in any colony, as well as of such near relations as they desired to take with them. Admirable work was done among

these distressed persons by the Emigrants Friendly Service Committee which had been formed primarily to deal with the applications of repatriated Indians desirous of returning to Fiji. The Government of India gave discretion to this Committee to permit persons who could prove that they had been in Fiji to return there if they so desired. The local labour conditions stimulated the return of these unfortunate people by giving them assisted passages. The Legislative Assembly had made a grant of £1,000 for the maintenance of these labourers, until such time as they were able to find work and settle down in India. The deputation from India left Fiji on the 3rd April 1922, and submitted its report to the Government of India. It has not been published.

In February 1920, Letters Patent under which the constitution of the Fiji Legislative Council was revised were issued. Provision was made *inter alia*, for the election of three Indian members on a communal basis. On the 4th November 1920 one of the Indian members moved a resolution recommending the adoption of a common electoral roll in place of the existing communal one. The resolution was supported by the three Indian members and opposed by the rest of the Council including the elected European and nominated Fijian members. As a protest against this vote, all three Indian members resigned their seats and these have remained unfilled, no Indian having hitherto offered himself for election.

British Guiana.—The Indian population in this colony belong almost entirely to the labouring classes and their grievances are mainly economic. Towards the end of 1919 a deputation consisting of the Hon'ble Dr J. J. Nanan, Attorney General, and Mr J. A. Luckhoo, a prominent Indian who was a member of the combined court visited India to put forward a scheme for the colonisation of British Guiana by means of emigration from India. This was examined by a Committee of the Indian Legislature, which advised that a deputation be sent from India to investigate conditions on the spot. Owing to certain unforeseen circumstances it was not found possible to proceed with the proposal until 1922 when a deputation consisting of Messrs Pillai, Keatinge and Tivary visited British Guiana. Mr Keatinge was a former member of the Indian Civil Service who had retired from the post of Director of Agriculture, Bombay Diwan Bahadur P. Kesava Pillai, was an elected member of the Madras Legislative Council of which he was also Vice President, and Mr Tivary was a member of the Servants of India Society who had done considerable amount of Social Welfare Work among the Depressed Classes in the United Provinces. The two reports of the deputation were published on the 21st of January, 1924. Towards the end of the month a deputation from the Colony of British Guiana consisting of Sir Joseph Nanan, Kt, and the Hon. Mr J. C. Luckhoo, K.C. arrived in India for further discussions. The Standing Emigration Committee of the Indian Legislature eventually reported that while they would be inclined to view with favour the colonisation scheme put forward by the deputation, they would before making any definite recommendation, like the Government of India to depute an officer to British Guiana to report on certain

matter. Kunwar Maharaj Singh, M.A., C.I.E. Bar-at-Law, was deputed for this purpose. He proceeded to that Colony in September 1925. His report was received in February 1st 1926 and published. He made certain criticisms and suggestions and the whole matter was thus satisfactorily settled. The colonisation scheme has not yet come into operation as the Colonial Government are not in a position at present to afford the cost which it involves.

In March 1926 following special inquiries by the Colonial Office reports appeared in the press that a bill had been introduced in the House of Commons empowering His Majesty's Government to alter the constitution of British Guiana by Order in Council. The Government of India consulted in the matter the Standing Emigration Committee of the Indian Legislature and are now watching events.

(4) Other Parts of the Empire.—The changes eventually introduced by the British Guiana (Constitution) Order in Council 1926 did not involve any differentiation against Indians and did not in any way infringe the provisions of the special declaratory Ordinance which was passed by the Colonial Government in 1923 and which confers equality of status on all persons of East Indian race resident in the Colony. In Ceylon, Mauritius and Malaya, the position of Indians has on the whole been satisfactory and the matters have gone smoothly. The Government of India have now appointed their own Agents in Ceylon and Malaya. The question of the fixation of a standard minimum wage for Indian Estate labourers in Ceylon and Malaya has been the subject of negotiations between the Govt. of India and the Colonial Governments ever since the emigration of Indian labour to the Colonies for the purpose of unskilled work was declared lawful in 1923 under the provisions of the Indian Emigration Act 1922. So far as Ceylon is concerned a settlement satisfactory to the Govt. of India and that of Ceylon has been arrived at, the standard wage and other outstanding questions affecting the interests of the labourers and the draft legislation to give effect to it was passed by the Ceylon Legislative Council in December 1927 as Indian Labour Ordinance No. 27 of 1927. The Standard Rates of Wages agreed upon have been introduced with effect from the 1st January 1929. In regard to Malaya, Standard Wage Rates which are considered suitable by both the Indian and Malayan Governments have been introduced in certain areas and the question of their extension to the rest of Malaya is engaging attention.

The rates so fixed were, however, reduced by 20 per cent with effect from the 1st October 1930 owing to acute depression in the rubber trade. The position is being watched by the Government of India and it is hoped that the rates originally agreed upon will be restored as soon as the present crisis has passed.

In April 1924, the Government of Mauritius requested that emigration to the Colony might be continued for a further period of one year but the Government of India in consultation with the Standing Committee on Emigration decided that consideration of the request should await the results of a local investigation. The Government of Mauritius agreed to receive a

officer for the purpose and to give him all facilities, and in December, 1924, an Indian Officer of Government, Kunwar Maharaj Singh, left India to conduct the necessary inquiry.

Kunwar Maharaj Singh's report was published by the Government of India in August 1925. The various recommendations made in the report have been commended to the consideration of the Colonial Government.

In February 1926 the Government of India received a reply from the Colonial Government stating that they accepted the main conclusion formulated by Kunwar Maharaj Singh in regard to the removal of emigration to Mauritius, etc., that no more unskilled Indian labour should be sent to Mauritius either in the immediate or near future. With regard to Kunwar Maharaj Singh's suggestions relating to other matters of interest to the Indian population now residing in the Island the Colonial Govt. expressed their willingness to give effect to several of them.

The present position of Indians in the Dominions is that under the Canadian Dominion Likeness Act Indians domiciled in Canada enjoy the full franchise in eight out of the nine provinces. In New Zealand Indians enjoy the franchise on the same footing as all other British subjects. In Australia a Bill was introduced in the Commonwealth Senate on the 18th June 1925 amending sub-section (5) of section 38 of the Commonwealth Electoral Act 1918-24, by adding after the word 'Afric' the words, 'except British India. This measure gives the Commonwealth franchise to subjects of British India at present domiciled in Australia and is the fruition of the hopes held out by the Commonwealth Government to Mr. Baskin on the occasion of his visit to Australia in 1912. The Bill was passed by the Senate and under it the Indians will enjoy both the State and Commonwealth franchise throughout Australia except in Queensland and in Western Australia where Indians do not enjoy the suffrage in respect of election for the Lower House. By Acts which have recently been passed by the Commonwealth Parliament British Indians in Australia have been admitted to the benefits of Invalid and Old Age Pensions and Maternity allowances from which they were hitherto excluded as Asiatics. Old Age Pension is payable to men above 65 years of age, or above 60 years provided such persons are of good character and have resided continuously for at least 20 years. An Invalid Pension is obtainable by persons who being above 16 years of age and not in receipt of an Old Age Pension, have whilst in Australia, become permanently incapacitated for work by reason of an accident or by reason of being an invalid or blind, provided they have resided continuously in Australia for at least five years.

Maternity allowance to the amount of £5 is given to a woman of every child to which she gives birth in Australia, provided the child is born alive and the woman is an inhabitant on the Commonwealth or intends to settle there. This Legislation removes the last grievance of the Indian community in Australia which was remediable by the Federal Government. In Western Australia and Queensland they are still subject to certain disabilities of which exclusion from the State franchise, is perhaps the most important.

Indians in Great Britain.

Some seventy years have gone by since the Parsee community, in the persons of the late Dadabhai Naoroji and other members of the firm of Cama & Co., led the way in the sojourn of Indians in England for business purposes. This led it has since maintained, though there are both Hindu and Mahomedan business men firmly established there. Nor are the professions unrepresented for there are in London and elsewhere practising barristers, solicitors and medical men of Indian birth. The number of the latter, especially Parsees, is considerable. Three Indians (all belonging to the Parsee community) have sat in the House of Commons. Since 1910 four Indians—the late Mr. Amoor Ali the first Lord Sinha the late Sir Binode Bihari and Sir Dinshaw Mulji have served on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Three Indians are on the Secretary of State's Council. In 1919 the late Lord Sinha was the first Indian to be raised to the peerage and to be appointed a member of the Home Government. In the spring of 1923 Mr. (now Sir) Dadabhai Dalal was appointed High Commissioner for India being the first Indian to hold the office. He resigned towards the end of 1924 to be succeeded by Sir Atal Chatterjee previously a member of the Government of India. The early years of the present century saw the gathering of a new Indian element in permanent residence—that of retired officials and business men, or people of independent means who from preference or in order to have their children educated in England, leave the land of their birth and seldom if ever visit it again. Further the stream of Indian summer visitors includes wealthy people who come regularly. Sectionally the only Indian community to be fully organised is that of the Parsis. They have an incorporated and well-endowed Parsi Association of Europe. Its centre Zoroastrian House 11 Russell Road West Kensington opened in 1929 includes a room devoted to ritual and ceremonial purposes a reading room and library and rooms for social intercourse. The Arya Bhavan a home for orthodox Hindus visiting London was opened at 30 Belisle Park Hampstead in the summer of 1928. Indian business interests have been organised by the formation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce in London with Offices at 63 New Broad Street E.C. 2. The East India Association (4 Victoria Street S.W. 1) established in 1867 provides a non-partisan platform for the discussion of Indian problems and exists to promote the welfare of the inhabitants of India. The British Indian Union (10 Grosvenor Gardens, W. 1) under the presidency of H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught and with Lord Reading as Chairman, is a valuable agency for promoting friendship and understanding between the people of Great Britain and India.

India House

In March, 1930 the office of the High Commissioner for India was transferred from the inadequate premises in Grosvenor Gardens to the new India House in Aldwych, erected and furnished at a cost of £324,000. The design

of this noble building which has a frontage of about 130 ft. opposite the Waldorf Hotel, was the work of Sir Herbert Baker A.R.A. with Dr. Oscar Faber as consulting engineer. Although expression of the Indian character of the building is mainly found in the interior the architect has given to the details of the external elevation by means of carving heraldry and symbolism an individuality that proclaims it the London house of India. Including basement and mezzanine floors there are twenty floors in all the available space for external work alone being between 50,000 and 60,000 ft. The total height from the lower level in the courtyard on the Strand side to the roof is about 130 ft.

On the ground floor there is a great hall for exhibits of the products and art wares of India. This hall is carried up two floors the upper floor being represented by a wide gallery and on either side of the exhibition hall there are recesses after the style of an Indian bazaar for special exhibits. From the octagonal entrance hall a great public staircase leads to a gallery round the octagonal hall on the first floor. This gallery in its turn leads to a high vaulted library and reception rooms and the central portion of the library provides accommodation for large receptions on special occasions.

The staircase exhibition hall octagonal hall and library markedly express the Indian character of the building. The walls of the staircase and the halls are of red stone similar in appearance to the Agra and Delhi sandstone carved and pierced in the geometrical patterns of the *jali* in Indian architecture. Such of the carving as could be completely separated from the structure was actually worked at New Delhi by Indian workmen from Makrana marble. The use throughout of Indian hardwoods chiefly gurgan for flooring obviates the need for any floor covering. From basement to roof scarcely any wood of non-Indian origin was employed for panelling and decorative purposes in all parts of the great building. Silver grey *koko* laurel and the beautiful dark red padouk have been used. The domes and vaults of the building were designed for effective decoration for which the services of specially selected Indian artists were obtained. The water supply is entirely independent of municipal service being obtained from two artesian wells sunk some 160 ft. below the basement where the central heating apparatus is installed.

The Indian Trade Commissioner and his staff are at India House, with all other departments of the Office of the High Commissioner excepting the Stores Department which is at the depot off the Thames at Belvedere Road Lambeth.

The Students

Under normal conditions it is the student community which constitutes the greatly preponderating element and creates an Indian problem. Its numbers multiplied ten or twelve fold in the quarter of a century before the war. After a very considerable temporary check

caused by the Great War the number rapidly expanded from 1910 in spite of pressure on college accommodation. In addition to the ordinary graduate or under-graduate students, there are some youths of good family, including heirs of Indian States, admitted into our public schools, such as Eton and Harrow. There are over 800 Indians at the Inns of Court. Since the war there has been a welcome increase in the number of technical and industrial students. Altogether including technical and medical students, there are fully 2,000 young Indians (some five per cent of them women) in London, Edinburgh, Cambridge, Oxford, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool and a few other centres. London absorbs about half the total.

The Advisers

It is well known that until a few years ago the young Indian apart from inadequately supported unofficial effort and the chance of coming under the influence of English friends of their families were practically left to their own devices. But in April 1909 Lord Morley, created for their benefit a Bureau of Information and appointed Dr (now Sir) T. W. Arnold to the charge of it under the title of Educational Adviser. The Bureau was located at 21, Cromwell Road, together with the National Indian Association and the Northbrook Society, which were thus given spacious quarters for their social work among the young men in India the provincial advisory committee to help and advise intending students, have been replaced in some instances by University Committees. The work of the Bureau rapidly expanded, and in consequence Lord Crewe in 1912 re-organised the arrangements under the general charge of a Secretary for Indian Students. Mr (now Sir) C. E. Mallet who resigned at the close of 1916. He was succeeded by Dr Arnold under the designation of Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State. Mr N. C. Sen followed Dr Arnold as Local Adviser in London. At Oxford the Oriental Delegation and at Cambridge the Inter Collegiate Committee have been instituted to deal with Oriental students generally whilst Local Advisers for Indian students have been appointed at Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

These arrangements underwent far-reaching revision in the autumn of 1920 in connection with the setting up, under the Act of the previous year of a High Commissionership for India in the United Kingdom. The "agency" work Sir William Meyer took over from the Secretary of State included that connected with Indian students. Sir T. W. Arnold accepted an appointment long pressed upon him as Professor of Arabic at the School of Oriental Studies, and the High Commissioner appointed Mr N. C. Sen and Dr Thomas Quayle as Joint Secretaries for the Education Department. The administrative work hitherto divided between the India Office and 21 Cromwell Road, was consolidated at the offices of the High Commissioner, thereby obviating a good deal of duplication of files and papers. Dr Quayle is now Secretary in the Education Department of the Office of the High Commissioner and his colleagues Mr K. P. Dutt

The whole situation was investigated by a committee of inquiry which sat in 1921 under the chairmanship of Lord Lytton. Arrangements had been made for the Committee to continue their investigations in India in the cold weather of 1921-22, but were abandoned in consequence of the refusal of the Legislative Assembly to vote the necessary grant. This largely accounts for the somewhat tentative form of the recommendations of the unanimous report published in October 1922. The opinion was expressed that the only permanent solution of the problem is to be found in the development of education in India. Attention was invited to the diminution of the number of Indian students proceeding abroad that would result from giving effect to recommendations made for such development by previous commissions, and by the establishment of an Indian Bar. The Committee held that it should be possible to secure admission both to British universities and subject to certain reservations to the works of manufacturing firms in Great Britain for all Indian students competent to profit by the facilities afforded. It provided that some machinery existed to ensure their distribution to the places best suited to their requirements. Subsequently a committee presided over by Sir Edward Chamberlain recommended the creation of Indian Bars which should have the effect of much reducing the number of Indians going to the Inns of Court. An Act for the purpose was passed by the Indian Legislature in 1926.

The students have hosts of non-official friends and helpers and the report suggested that there should be a conference of representatives of all organisations interested in the social and intellectual welfare of young Indians in Great Britain to discuss the best means for co-ordinating their efforts. Accordingly the High Commissioner held a conference in July 1925, when plans were formulated to help to meet the needs of students more particularly in respect to suitable boarding accommodation in London. The subject had been previously discussed at a meeting of the East India Association (April 27, 1925) when a paper was read by Mr F. H. Brown. The conference came to the conclusion that since non-official effort admittedly does not meet the need fully the hostel and club at 21, Cromwell Road, should be maintained, more particularly to provide accommodation for new comers. A small committee with Mr A. D. Bonser (Warden of 21, Cromwell Road) as Secretary was established to assist students in obtaining suitable accommodation. The increasing number of students coming from Indian States raises the question whether the time has not come for provision to be made for them on lines similar to those adopted by the Education Department of the Office of the High Commissioner. The Standing Committee of the Chamber of Princes has a skeleton organisation in London. The Mysore State opened last year an agency office at Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square and appointed a permanent Trade Commissioner.

Under the presidency of Lord Hawke an Indian Gymkhana Club in 1921 acquired its own sports ground at Osterley, the total cost of purchase and equipment being estimated at £15,000. Generous gifts were

made by some Ruling Princes and others, particularly the Maharaja of Patiala, but further help is required. The cricket eleven of the Club has an excellent record in matches at Lords and the Oval and with suburban clubs.

A notable development of 1920 was the opening of the Rod Triangle Shakespeare Hut in Bloomsbury, off Gower Street, as a union and hostel for Indian and Ceylonese students up to the number of 500. The hostel was removed to permanent premises 104-112 Gower-street, close to University College in the autumn of 1923. It is Indian both in conception and control, the warden and committee being responsible not to the National Council of Y M C A in London but to the Indian National Council in Calcutta. While the organisation has a definitely moral

and spiritual as well as a social purpose, it is not a proselytising agency. There is a steady average of some 550 members, and the hostels are exceptionally fortunate in securing the voluntary services of men and women of great distinction in many fields for the regular Sunday afternoon and other lectures. The cost of building and furnishing has been met and the question of extending the hostel accommodation is under consideration.

There has been some recent development in the matter of periodical literature devoted to India. A monthly entitled *India* pays special attention to the social side of British life in India and Sir Albion Banerji edits and owns a quarterly entitled *Indian Affairs*. There are various political organisations connected with India.

SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS IN LONDON CONNECTED WITH INDIA

BRITISH INDIAN UNION—Promotes friendship and understanding between the two races. 10, Grosvenor Gardens S W 1. *Secretary* Major T Moss.

CENTRAL ASIAN SOCIETY—77 Grosvenor Street W 1. *Hon. Secretaries* Major General Sir William Beynon, K.C.I.E., Colonel H. Stevens.

EAST INDIA ASSOCIATION—To promote the welfare of the inhabitants of India, chiefly by lectures and discussions. 3, Victoria Street, S W 1, *Hon. Secretary* F. H. Brown, C.I.E.

INDIA SOCIETY—(The study of the arts and letters of India) 3, Victoria Street, S W 1, *Hon. Secretary* F. J. P. Richter M.A.

INDIAN STUDENTS UNION AND HOSTEL—112, Gower Street, W C 1. *Chairman* Dr. Edwin Bevan.

INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE IN GREAT BRITAIN—85 Gracechurch Street, E C 3. *Secretary* A. H. Mann.

INDO-BRITISH MUTUAL WELFARE LEAGUE—*Joint Hon. Secretaries* Mrs. Hannah Ben and Mrs. C. Hegler (53, Elsworthy Road N W 3).

INDIAN GYMKHANA CLUB—Thorbury Avenue Osterley. To promote the physical wellbeing of Indian students. *Secretary* Captain W. R. B. Berry, 10, Kings Bench Walk, Temple E C 4.

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION—(Chiefly aims to promote the welfare of students) 21, Cromwell Road S W 7. *Secretary* Miss E. J. Beck.

NORTHBROOK SOCIETY—(Makes grants to deserving Indian students) 21, Cromwell Road, S W 7. *Hon. Secretary* E. Oliver.

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY—(Research in the history and antiquities of Asia) 74 Grosvenor Street W 1. *Secretary* Mrs. E. W. Fraser.

ROYAL EMPIRE SOCIETY—(Formerly Royal Colonial Institute) Northumberland Avenue W C 1. *Secretary* George Pilcher.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS—(has an Indian section before which lectures are delivered) on industrial historical and commercial questions. 18 John Street Adelphi. *Secretary* G. K. Menzies M.A.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS, Chatham House, 10, St. James Square, S W 1. *Secretary* Stephen King Hall.

PARSEE ASSOCIATION OF EUROPE—London, Zoroastrian House, 11 Russell Road, Olympia W 14. *Hon. Secretary* Syttama Cama.

STUDENT CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND—*Secretary* R. O. Mackie, Abundale, North End Road Golders Green, N W 11.

VICTORIA LEAGUE—81 Cromwell Road S W 7. *Secretary* Miss Gertrude Drayton, C.B.E.

Sport.

Sport as everything else suffered considerably during the year 1930 owing to the political troubles of the country. The chief disappointment was the postponing of the visit of the second M C C cricket team to India. Arrangements were well in hand and the itinerary for the tour had been completed when it was decided by the Working Committee of the Congress to boycott the cricketers and all the matches in which they played. Sensing the trouble that was sure to arise should the visit materialise the Indian Cricket Board of Control wisely advised the M C C cricket authorities to postpone the tour for a year or so which was done. It is possible that India will have an opportunity of renewing the acquaintance with the English cricketers this year.

A further disappointment was in store for cricket enthusiasts when in addition to the M C C tour being postponed it was decided also to dispense with the Bombay Presidency Quadrangular cricket matches. This was the first time in the history of the tournament that political influences caused this important series of matches to be cancelled. The move for the abandonment originated at the Hindu Gymkhana in Bombay which sent out a circular that until the political situation improved they neither could nor would play any cricket either inter-club or even participate in the Quadrangular tournament. Realising that without the Hindus Bombay's annual feast of cricket would lose much of its flavour it was decided to do away with the festival altogether.

But thanks to the enterprise of the Maharaj Kumar of Valsanagram the two most famous cricketers in the world, Jack Hobbs and Herbert Sutcliffe came to India at the Maharaj Kumar's invitation to complete a team which he had got together to tour India and Ceylon. Under his captaincy the team comprising some of the finest cricketers in India and Hobbs and Sutcliffe were unbeaten in all their matches. The aristocracy of the Englishmen with the bat was much appreciated by cricket enthusiasts who flocked in their thousands to see them in action. Interviewed by a press representative after the completion of the tour Hobbs said that he was surprised at the standard of cricket in India and ventured the prophecy that with more expert coaching this country could produce men who would command a place in a world team. He particularly mentioned Capt. C. K. Naidu and Gulam Mohammed. Sutcliffe too was equally lavish with his praise with all that he had seen in India, and the many fine cricketers he had come across. The one fault that the visitors found in this country was the practice of giving away prizes for the successful sportsmen; this was a habit greatly to be deprecated and not in the best interests of sport. This however is an old grievance of all sportsmen, particularly cricketers who come to India from England. It is gradually being done away with however although it is bound to be some time before the practice is entirely eliminated.

Apart from the above events in the cricketing world India had rather a lean time, at cricket at any rate. A number of tournaments were

run in various parts of the country and proved very popular although none reached the proportions of first class cricket with the exception of the Northern India Quadrangular Cricket Tournament played at Lahore.

The big event in the tennis world was the visit of an English tennis team. Encouraged by the success of the tour in 1929 when the French players toured India the Calcutta South Club with commendable initiative and backed up by the principal tennis clubs of this country sent an invitation to the British International Lawn Tennis Club to send to India a fully representative side. This invitation was readily agreed to by the authorities in England and towards the end of the year the team arrived under the captaincy of Mr. A. Wallis Myers and consisting of Messrs. J. B. Ullrich, W. H. Austin, M. D. Horn and E. D. Andrews. The latter player had been to India before and was therefore well acquainted with the conditions. Their visit gave a wonderful fillip to the game all over the country and they were received with enthusiasm wherever they played and while it showed that India has not yet the players of their calibre many lessons were learned from their play and Indian tennis will accordingly soon be on the up-grade. The stroke play of Austin particularly was much admired. At each centre the team visited the International Lawn Tennis Club flag was unfurled. At the conclusion of the tour Mr. Wallis Myers gave his impressions of his visit. He paid a tribute to the tactical acumen of Slesman and spoke highly of Ahmad Hussain and Miss Irfan. In passing it may be mentioned that Miss Row has been chosen to represent India at Wimbledon this year.

He considered that India possesses players of undoubted merit whose footwork is second to none in the world but their style needs a little polish to shine in the best company. Mr. Myers thought that the grass courts in Bengal and the Punjab were excellent.

Sport all over India continues to make progress, especially from an organisation point of view. It is at last realised that sports should be well organised to get the best out of it. Many organisations are springing up notably among the various railways each with their separate ruling bodies. The Railway Athletic Association is indeed a live body, and is a great asset in the sporting life of the community, especially among the many thousands of railwaymen. Their football, hockey, boxing and athletics championships are the leading events of the sporting world in this country.

The Indian Board of Cricket Control is truly alive to its responsibilities, and has tentatively arranged for a tour to England of Indian cricketers in 1932 with at least one test match. This is a move in the right direction, and will put this country on the map so far as cricket is concerned. It can now be assumed that Test Match status has been definitely reached.

Hockey continues to be one of the chief games played in India, and the principal tourna-

ments the Beighton Cup Calcutta, the Aga Khan in Bombay, with other lesser known tournaments all prove very successful. This country can justly claim to be the home of the game and where the real exponents play it as it should be played. It is confidently expected that India should be represented at the Olympic Games at Los Angeles in 1932 will carry all before her. A team is due to visit England some time in the future. The people of England and the Continent will remember the last visit of the team from this country who surprised them with their cleverness.

Association football still has a large following but chiefly among the military. The main tournaments the I F A Shield, the Durand at Simla, the Bovers at Bombay and the Lahore Trades Cup still create wide interest. The Indian footballers are rapidly coming to the fore, and at Calcutta crack teams such as Mohan Bagan are quite the equal of the best military side. In Western India the game progresses and the Western India Football Association had a most successful season. The gates certainly did not create a record but this was due in no small measure to the troublous times through which the country was passing. The winners of the Bovers Cup the premier event in Western India were the King's Own Scottish Borderers from Poona. The idea has often been mooted to institute again a second division of the Harwood League in Bombay. This was a recognised feature of Bombay football at one time, but it fell into bad days owing to the shortage of grounds. A definite effort however is to be made to re-start the second division in 1931. The Western India Football Association is doing good work but there is still room for more legislation throughout the length and breadth of India.

Very little progress has been made in Athletics, this is to be deplored now that India is beginning to loom large in the sporting armament. A visit was paid to India during the year by the celebrated German athlete Dr O Peltzer who touched India during his tour to Australia and New Zealand. He gave demonstrations in various parts of the country on his methods of running and in addition gave a series of lectures illustrated with lantern slides. These were well attended and aroused keen interest among athletes in the various centres he visited. India also sent an Athletic team to Japan

for the Far Eastern Games, but met with very little success. Here again the need of an efficient organisation was very apparent. The All-India Olympic Council is doing good work. It is true, but it is heavily handicapped for want of money. Encouragement is chiefly left to individuals which is to be regretted.

Rugby football still has its devotees in all the big centres of the country where the tournaments at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras are well patronised. The Test in India is as popular as ever although the attendance at the larger meetings has shown a notable decline in cities like Bombay, and Calcutta. This is due in a large measure to the economic condition of the country. The outstanding event of the year in the racing world has been the remarkably consistent form of that celebrated horse Star of Italy owned by Sir Victor Sassoon. He has put up some wonderful performances being unbeaten, and at Calcutta won the triple crown the Viceroy's Cup, The Wellfleet Plate and the King Emperor's Cup and then went to Bombay and annexed the Rajpipla Gold Cup and the C N Wadia Gold Cup.

A truly wonderful horse

Golf is being played everywhere with important tournaments held in various parts of the country notably at Gulmarg and Nainital. Yachting is still popular especially in Bombay under the auspices of the Royal Bombay Yacht Club. Races are held every Saturday during the season with one whole week devoted to a regatta. Also at Nainital, Poona and Calcutta one can see the white sails of the yachts much in evidence during certain periods of the year. Hacquets also is played quite a lot, although it is not yet as popular as tennis to which game the Indian has taken very kindly.

Amateur boxing is flourishing especially in the Bombay Presidency, where the local organisation is doing all it can to foster the sport. Since its inception a few years the Bombay Presidency Amateur Boxing Association has made great strides and boxing is as well controlled as any sport in India. Other cities too have their tournaments, while the Military do all they can to encourage it. Professional boxing is very quiet, with an occasional tournament either in Calcutta, Bangalore or Bombay.

A summary of the chief sporting events of 1930 is given in the following pages

Racing.

Bangalore.

Bobbili Cup Distance 5 furlongs —A handicap for Arabs —

Mr Mahomed Oomer s Agent (8st 5lbs)

Rylands

H H The Maharaja of Mysore s Scimitar

(9st) Hill

H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur s Brigand
(7st 12lbs) Hoyt

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, a neck Time—1 min 10 secs

H H The Yuvaraja of Mysore s Cup Distance 7 furlongs.—A handicap for Horses in Class 4 —

Haji Sir Ismail Salt s Tim Amen (8st 5lbs),
Rylands

Mr Newan Sander s Vulcan (8st 7lbs), H
McQuade

Mr Griffin s Brasso (7st 2lbs), Alfred

Won by 2 lengths, 1 length $\frac{1}{2}$ length—Time
not taken

H H The Maharaja Mysore s Cup Distance 1 mile —

Mr J J Murphy s Dargos (9st 5lbs),
Howell

Mr Mark Leslie s Ney (8st 2lbs), Bohaman

Raja Parlakimedts Snowflight (7st 5lbs),
Rankin

Won by a neck Time—1min 41 secs

Krishniah Chetty Cup Distance 1 mile —

Mr Edjao Samarji s Marooah (7st 12lbs),
Thompson

Mr Goolam Ali s Khalil Khan (8st 5lbs),
Howell

Mr E H Gharala s Desert Queen (8st 5lbs),
Khalil

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, neck Time—1 min 53
8-0 secs

Barton Cup Distance 7 furlongs —

Mr W Hayhoe s Lady Beatrice (8st 10lbs),
Rylands

His Highness the Maharaja of Kolhapur s
Hunter (8st 10lbs), Babajan

Mr C Newman Sander s The Victim (9st
11bs) Hoyt

Won by 2 lengths, 3 lengths 1 length
Time—1 min 38 1-5 secs

Brewery Cup Distance 7 furlongs —

Mr J J Murphy s Dargos (9st 2lbs),
Howell

The Nawab of Benganpello s Newcastle
(8st 2lbs), Hoyt

H H The Maharaja of Mysore s Hillcot
(7st 10lbs), Bohaman

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, 1 length, a neck Time—
1min 29 2 5 secs

Griffin Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan s Scotch Fair
(8st 6lbs) Babajan

Mrs M Clarke s Toy Girl (9st), E J
Howell

The Raja of Kallikote s Palpito (8st 5lbs),
Clarke

Won by 3 lengths $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths
Time—1 min 16 2-5 secs

Bombay

The Rajppla Gold Cup Distance 1 mile —

Mr D Habib s Sun Arch (7st 5lbs),
Marrable

Mr A Lookmanji s Atrean (8st 11lbs),
Burn

H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur s Troy
lon (7st 11lbs, car 8st), Morris

Won by 1 length, head short head Time—
1 min 38 secs

The Malabar Hill Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

H H The Thakore Saheb of Wadhwan and
Lt-Col Zorawar Singh s Sermon (7st
10lbs) Marrable

Mr G McElligott s Three Star II (7st 5lbs),
R Stokes

Messrs Habib Esmail and N Begmahomed s
Ballytroph (7st 11lbs) N Whiteside

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, neck, $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths No time
taken

The Cambridgeshire Stakes (Div I)
Distance 1 mile 1 furlong —

Mr P B Avasia s Facino (8st 5lbs),
T Hill

Mr A S Molooobhoy s Ballinaloe (8st 2lbs),
Burn

Mr B M Mehta s Kilderkia (7st 9lbs),
Marrable

Won by 2 lengths, short head, 2 lengths
Time—1min 54 1-5 secs

The Grand Western Handicap Distance 1½ miles —

H H The Maharaja of Rajppla s Highness (8st 4lbs) W J Sibbritt 1
 Mr Pine s Long Reign (8st 2lbs), Morris 2
 Mr Kelso s De Beers II (7st 7lbs carried 7st 8lbs), Harding 3
 Won by 1½ lengths, 2 lengths, 3 lengths Time—2mins 43-5 secs

The Plantation Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

H H The Aga Khan s Quincy (8st 6lbs), A C Walker 1
 Mr Pine s Puffin (7st 11 lbs), Howell 2
 Mr Eve s Saxpence (8st 2lbs) Brace 3
 Won by 1½ length ½ length ½ length

The X'mas Handicap Distance 1 mile —

H H The Thakore Sahib of Wadhwan and Lt-Col Zorawar Singh s Pandora s Box (7st 9lbs), Whiteside 1
 H H The Aga Khan s Saint Amour (7st 7lbs) Stokes 2
 Mr Eve s Roman Roue (8st 12lbs), Brace 3
 Won by ½ length head neck Time—1 min 53 secs

The Victory Plate Distance 1½ miles —

Mr W Bini s Tristan (8st 12lbs) Stokes 1
 Mr J Reynolds Poor Seats (8st 12lbs) T Hill 2
 Mr Shantidas Askuran s Tynagh (9st 2lbs) Bowley 3
 Won by 1 length ½ length, neck Time—2 mins 71 5 secs

The Lloyd Handicap Distance 1 mile —

Mr A O Ardesheir s Jonathan (8st 6lbs) Reynolds 1
 H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur s Arch Druid (8st 8lbs) Morris 2
 Mr Kelso s Phare (8st 12lbs), Harding 3
 Won by 3 lengths 2 lengths 6 lengths Time—1 min 39 secs

The Turf Club Cup Distance 1½ miles —

Mr N Mathradas Moonil (7st 9lbs), A Clarke 1
 Mr Ahmed Hazamy s Sheema (9st 11 lbs) A K Otold } Dead
 Mr J Chubildas' Asarf (8st 5 lbs, Heat 2 }
 carr 8st 6lbs), Khalil
 Won by 1½ lengths dead heat, 1 length Time—3 mins 19 1-5 secs

The Byculla Club Cup Distance 1½ miles —

H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Cheerful Gift (7st 12lbs), R Stokes 1
 Mr Eve s Hoppy (8st 4lbs), J W Brace.. 2

Mr P B Avasta s Factio (8st 11lb) A C Walker 3

Won by neck, ½ length, 1 length Time—3 mins 23 5 secs

The Aga Khan's Cup Distance 1½ miles —

Mr A C Ardesheir s Jonathan (8st 9lbs) Reynolds 1
 H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur s Scottish Flag (7st 8lbs) R Stokes 2
 Mr H M Mahta s Kildarkin (7st), Whiteside 3
 Won by short head, head, ½ length Time—2mins 62-5 secs

The Colaba Cup (Div I) Distance 1 mile —

Mr J Reynolds Poor Seats (8st 11lbs), O Hoyt 1
 Mr Stone s Desert Sun (8st carried 8st 8lbs), Barnett 2
 H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Scottish Flag (7st 8lbs), McQuade 3
 Won by short head short head, short head Time—1 min 39 secs

The Colaba Cup (Div II) Distance 1 mile —

Mr A C Ardesheir s Jonathan (8st 4lbs) Reynolds 1
 H H The Maharaja of Mysore s Alcor (8st 11lb) T Hill 2
 H H The Maharaja of Rajppla s Pandora s Box (8st) W J Sibbritt 3
 Won by 1 length ½ length, ½ length Time—1 min 39 secs

The C N Wadia Gold Cup Distance 1 mile 1 furlong —

Mr Albert Habib s Acumen (9st), W J Sibbritt 1
 Mr Eve s Star of Italy (9st 7lbs) C Hoyt 2
 Mr G Fellowes Willow Stream (9st), Burn 3
 Won by 2 lengths 4 lengths Time—1 min 54 secs

The Willington Plate Distance 1 mile —

Mr D Habib's Sun Arch (8st 11lbs), Marable 1
 Mr A Lookmanja s Atreas (9st 2lbs) Burn 2
 Mr A S Tyebjee s Eastern Essex (8st 8lbs), S Black 3
 Won by 3 lengths, ½ length, 1½ lengths Time—1 min 37 secs

The Northumberland Handicap Distance 2 miles —

Mr Eve's Hoppy (8st 5lbs) J W Brace	1
H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Shipshape (9st 7lbs), W J Sibbritt	2
H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Cheerful Gift (8st 4lbs) Herbert	3
Won by short head short head, 2 lengths	
Time—3 mins 27 2 5 secs	

The Bombay City Plate Distance 1½ miles —

Mr J Mein Austin's Tuberville (9st)	1
A. C Walker	2
Mr J Jenkins Gorbio (9st) H Hill	3
H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Concliator (8st) W J Sibbritt	4
Won by neck 2 lengths 1½ lengths	
Time—2 mins 53 3 5 secs	

The Eclipse Stakes of India —

Mr Eve's Star of Italy (9st 4lbs), C Hoyt	1
Mr Albert Habib's Acumen (9st 7lbs) A C Walker	2
H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Shipshape (9st 4lbs) Howell	3
Won by ½ length 2 lengths 1 length	
Time—2 mins 42 5 secs	

The Doncaster Plate Distance 6 furlongs —
Messrs Habib Remali and A Pegmahomed's Ballybrophy (8st 2lbs) Whiteside

Mr Kelso's Flourish (8st 5lbs) Harding	1
H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Flying Steve (7st 12lbs) W J Sibbritt	2
Won by head 3 lengths, 1½ lengths	
Time—1 min 12 4 5 secs	

Calcutta

Chowringhee Hurdle Plate Distance 1½ miles —

Mr A A B Cope's Red Connors (9st) Jackson	1
Messrs. Mein Austin's Domestic Bond (11st 10lbs) Lortham	2
Messrs. Gifford and McGee's Tycho (9st 6lbs), Elliott	3
Won by 1 length. Time—2 mins 46 secs	

March Plate (Div 1) Distance 7 furlongs —

Major J J Hilliard's Chequelo (9st), J Brown	1
Balkut of Balkutapur's Rookhoney (8st 10lbs) Rylands	2
Messrs. Paul and Mitchell Innes' Tolworth (7st 12lbs), Marland	3
Won by a neck Time—1 min 28 secs	

Viceroy's Cup Distance 1½ miles —

Mr Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 5lbs), C Hoyt	1
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Mr W Rosenthal's Acumen (9st 5lbs), W Sibbritt	2
H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Highness (9st 5lbs) Easton	3
H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Shipshape (9st 5lbs) T Brown	4
Won by ½ length 2½ lengths and short head	
Time—3 mins 2 4 5 secs	

Grand Annual Distance 2 miles —

Raja of Amargung's Destruction (9st 5lbs) Baker	1
Mrs A C Sander's Philanthropy (11st) Goswell	2
Mr T C Galstaun's Dark Orient (10st 5lbs), Tugan	3
Mr A Carludern's Sapphire Stone (10st 15lbs) Hawkins	4
Won by 1 length 1½ lengths 1½ lengths	
Time—3 mins 30 1 5 secs	

Now Year Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

Mr H G (Cyprus) Louvarides (8st 4lbs) Marland	1
Mr Sujon K. Chowdhury's Louville (7st 6lbs) Mookings	2
Mr Pannik's Anturus (8st 6lbs) Brown	3
Won by ½ length short head 1½ lengths	
Time—1 min 13 1 5 secs	

Ronakdahan Cup Distance 6 furlongs —

H H The Maharajah of Kolhapur's Star of India (9st) A C Walker	1
Miss V. Prophit's Roman Emperor (9st) S Wragg	2
The Hon Mr R. Cufadhur's Ganter (8st 7lbs) Marland	3
Won by ½ length 1½ lengths neck	
Time—1 min 13 3 5 secs	

Gooch Behar Cup Distance 1 mile 3 furlongs —

Miss M. Prophit's Royal Air Force (7st) S Wragg	1
Mr A E De Silva's Louvillo (7st 12lbs) Hutchins	2
Mr Pannik's Dandaloo (7st 11lbs) J Brown	3
Won by neck, short head 1½ lengths	
Time—2 mins 19 3 5 secs	

King Emperor's Cup Distance 1 mile —

Mr Eve's Star of Italy (9st 3 lbs) C Hoyt	1
Mr Shantidas Askuran's Welcome Gift (9st 5lbs) Scanlan	2
Mr V Rosenthal's Acumen (9st 5lbs) Sibbritt	3
Won by 1½ lengths, head, 1½ lengths	
Time—1 min 39 3 5 secs	

Governor's Cup Distance 1½ miles.—

Mr Pannick's Dandaloo (7st 12lbs), J Brown

Miss M Prophit's Royal Air Force (7st 7lbs), S Wragg

Mr G Fellowes Willow Stream (9st), Cooper

Won by ½ length Time—3 mins 3 3-5 secs

Macpherson Cup —

Mr A D Gordon's Stinger (7st ear 7st 2lbs), E Reynolds

Mr E K Bowie's Nightjar (9st 6lbs), Edwards

Mr DeSilva's Lanveloo (8st 1lbs) Hunt ohms

Won by a length Time—2 mins 3. 3-5 secs

Bereford Cup Distance 1½ miles —

Mr P Davis Saucy Jack (8st) Northmore

Messrs Burn and Holmes Johnson's Malbrook (9st 2lbs), Edwards

Hon Mr R Gujadhur's Wild Gift (8st 8lbs), C Hoyt

Won on protest by a short head Time—3 mins 4 2 5 secs

Prince of Wales Plate Distance 1 mile —

Mr A C Ardeshir's Naughty Look (7st 12lbs), E C Reynolds

Miss M Prophit's Golden Truce (9st 2lbs), S Wragg

Mr Pannick's Buchanan (7st 2lbs) R. Alford

Won by 1 length 1½ lengths, short head Time—1 min 40 2 5 secs

Metropolitan Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

The Hon Mr R Gujadhur's Gander (8st 8lbs) Marland

Mr H G Gregson's Louvariam (7st 6lbs), Dobie

H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Star of India (9st 12lbs), A C Walker

Won by ½ length Time—1 min 14 3 5 secs

Great Eastern Plate Distance 6 furlongs straight

Mr H Birkenmyre's Sky Warrior (7st 10lbs), Meekings

Raja of Parlakimedi's Prosperdan (7st 9lbs), Dobie

Mr J C Galstaun's Speedy Marquis (7st 9lbs), Long

Mr J D Scott's Scott (7st 8lbs), S Wragg

Won by a head Time—1 min. 22 5 secs

Mayfowl Cup Distance 1 mile —

Mr A C Ardeshir's Naughty Look (8st), J Brown

Mr Sejan K Chowdhury's Clauville (9st), Marland

H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Conciliator (7st 9lbs) Cooper

Mr E S Godfrey's Charmaine (8st 2lbs), Sibbritt

Won by ½ length ½ length 1½ lengths Time—1 min 40 1 5 secs

Merchants Cup Distance 1½ miles —

Messrs Burn and Holmes Johnson's Malbrook (7st 18lbs) Edwards

Mrs C De M Kellock's Irish Magic (8st 4lbs) Benant

Mr A J Shillingford's Flash Roy (8st 6lbs), C Hoyt

Sir Basil Eddis's Hollyhock (8st 6lbs) Northmore

Won by 2½ lengths 1½ lengths, a neck Time—2 mins 35 3 5 secs

Wellesley Plate Distance 1½ miles —

Mr Eve's Star of Italy (9st 7lbs) C Hoyt

H H The Maharaja of Rajpipla's Highness (9st 7lbs) Sibbritt

Messrs Bowie and Farrar's Night Jar (9st 7lbs) Edwards

Won by 1½ lengths ½ length 3 lengths Time—2 mins 8 2-5 secs

Bengal Plate (Div I) Distance 6 furlongs —

Mr N Sevadjan's Zamori (8st 7lbs), Long

Mr H M Thadden's Southerner (8st 4lbs) Alford

Mr F Mackinnon's Gainstown (7st 8lbs), Siely

Won by ½ length Time—1 min 18 2 5 secs

Griffin Plate Distance 5 furlongs

Mr P C Bothra's Mary Arden (8st 2lbs), Marland

Mr C G Arthur's Dynamite (8st 11lbs), Cooper

Mr F Pogon's Prosperous (8st) Wright

Won by a head Time—1 min 44 5 secs

The President's Cup (Div I) Distance 6 furlongs —

Lt-Col F Fraser Hunter and Mr A Manasseh's Some Hawk (10st 7lbs), Hon S Butler

Mr G P Mackenzie's Skipper (9st 6lbs), Capt Lochiam

Mr J S Hempton's Lingnet (10st 8lbs), Mr H Johnson

Won by a short head 1 length, 1½ lengths Time—1 min 19 1-5 secs

Thaddeus Cup Distance 7 furlongs—

Mr Shantidas Askuran s Welcome Gift (9st.), Scanlan	1
Mr E S Godfrey s Charmaine (7st 11lbs) Dobie	2
Mr V Rosenthal s Acumen (9st 7lbs) Subbritt	3
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, 2 lengths, 2 lengths	
Time—1 min 27 4-5 secs	

Kolhapur

W I T C Plate (Div 1) Distance 5 furlongs—

Mr Osman Mshdi s Sacc (9st 2lbs), Barnett	1
Mr N Ardeshir s British Lion (7st 12lbs), McQuade	2
Mr H Tamavi s Tajbibi (8st 11lbs) Khalil	3
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths	
Time—1 min 7 4-5 secs	

Shri Shahu Maharaja Memorial Cup Distance $\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

S S Akkasahab Maharaja s Certainly (9st 8lbs), Barnett	1
H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur s Shiva Nivas (9st 9lbs) Obeld	2
H H The Maharaja of Kolhapur s Indian Star (9st 12lbs), Brace	3
Won by a head, a short head 1 length	
Time—2 mins 11 2-5 secs	

Sir Leslie Wilson Cup Distance E C and 5 furlongs—

Mr K Asperkhan and Nakib s Humayyah (8st 10lbs) C Hoyt	1
Mr Ghorpade and Hakim s Baham (7st 9lbs), Black	2
Mr Khalil Esmail s Bulbul Hazar (7st 4lbs) McQuade	3
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths 3 lengths $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths	
Time—3 mins 16 8-5 secs	

Lahore.

Christmas Hurdles Distance about $\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Lt Col Conder and Major O Donnell s Fillet (11st 9lbs) E Fownes	1
Major J C Walker s Wedding Day (12st 2lbs), W Alford	2
Major T F Arnold s Calva (12st), Capt Wansbrough Jones	3
Won by 2 lengths, $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, 3 lengths	
Time—3 mins 54 1-5 secs	

Stewards Cup Distance about 1 mile—

Maj S O'Donnell s Hakkidulla (8st 2lbs) Lesson	1
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Major W B Rennie s Granary (8st 7lbs), J O Neale

Maj-Gen H K Bethell s and Capt W M Newill s Honey Mooner (8st 12lbs) Capt Bernard	3
Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $\frac{1}{2}$ length	
Time—1 min 46 secs	

The Indian Grand National Distance about 3 miles—

Capt A E Dean s Passing Show (12st 7lbs), Capt Wood	1
H N MacLaurin s Llyn Elgion (10st 9lbs), Capt Harvey	2
Capt P T Hilliard s Just Cause (11st) Hilliard	3
Won by 3 lengths 2 lengths, a head	
Time—6 mins 28 1-5 secs	

Governor's Cup Distance about 1 mile—

Mr K B Taj Mohd Khan s Santa Claus (8st 9lbs) Mason	1
Mrs Korr s Swing Gate (8st 3lbs) Balfour	2
H H The Khan of Kalat s Parfiesan (8st 1lb) Tymon	3
Won by $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths 2 lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length	
Time—1 min 47 3-5 secs	

Lucknow

Lucknow Grand National Distance $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles—

Capt A E Dean s Passing Show (12st 9lbs) Hawkins	1
Mr C M L Clement s Liu (9st 4lbs) E Fownes	2
Capt C W Scott s Lulifer (10st 12lbs) Owner	3
Won by neck 3 lengths 2 lengths	
Time—5 mins 9 8-5 secs	

Civil Service Cup Distance 7 furlongs—

Mrs M Proffit s He Might (9st 5lbs) S Wrugs	1
Mr J Reid Kay s Bray Honor (8st 11lbs) Marland	2
Lt Col Conder and Major S O Donnell s Fillet (7st carried 7st 2lbs)	3
Won by 3 lengths $\frac{1}{2}$ length and neck.	
Time—1 min 28 2-5 secs	

The Army Cup Distance 7 furlongs—

Major S O Donnell s Hakkidulla (10st 11lbs) Capt Cox	1
Major General H K Bethell and Capt W M. Newill s Honey Mooner (11st 10lbs) Capt Nevill	2
Major T F Burridge s Work of Art (11st 12lbs), Capt Tudor	3
Won by a neck, 2 lengths, 1 length.	
Time—2 mins 11 1-5 secs	

Pownee Cup Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—A handicap for horses in Class IV—

Major T Burridge's Work of Art (8st 5lbs),
Marland 1

Capt B George and M Cox's Charles
Allox (8st 13lbs) Sibbritt 2

Raja Sripal Singh's Nobbler (7st 4lbs)
Partoosingh 3

Won by 3 lengths 1 length and 2 lengths
Time—2 mins 12 3 5 secs

Madras

The Cochin Cup Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—A handicap for Arabs

Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan's Student Prince
(8st 7lbs) Caldwell 1

Mr Jaum Run Ali's Sahara (8st 6lbs)
Robertson 2

Mr Desikan's St Andrew's Eve (8st 5lbs),
Wright 3

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths
Time—2 mins 55 1 6 secs

The Merchants Cup Distance 1 mile 1 fur-
long.—Handicap for horses in Class III—

Mr Rama's Gheugar (7st 4lbs), Robertson 1

Maharaja of Mysore's Theolad (7st 10lbs)
Barber 2

Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Recompense
(8st) Caldwell 3

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, neck $3\frac{1}{2}$ lengths Time—
1 min 56 secs

The Yendayur Cup Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—
Rajah of Parakkimedi's Morloch (7st

12lbs.) Wragg 1

Mrs. Clarke's Golconda (9st) O'Brien 2

Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan's Black Cuff
(8st 10lbs) Babajon 3

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths Time—2 mins 39
4 5 secs.

The Jamila Plate Distance 5 furlongs.—
Mr Ayub Asad's Arabia (7st 13lbs),

Barber 1

Mr Taha's Saturday (8st 10lbs) Caldwell 2

Mrs Dawe's The Show Boat (8st 13lbs.)
Robertson 3

Won by a neck Time—1 min 9 secs

The Rajah Venugopal Memorial Plate Dis-
tance 1 mile.—Handicap for Horses in Class

IV—
Messrs. Newman Sanders and Bewie's Orange
Pippen (8st 4lbs.) Gura 1

Capt Hopkin's Radha Devi (7st), Rosen 2

Mr Vijaya Lakshmi's Toiglass (7st 12lbs)
White 3

Won by 3 lengths 4 lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length
Time—1 min 47 secs

The Stewards' Cup Distance 6 furlongs—
Handicap for Horses in Class III—

Kawab Banganapalle's Newcastle (8st
9lbs) Meekings 1

Col Hill's O B E (7st 8lbs) Adlay 2

Mr Yommu's Erosion (8st) Forsyth 3

Won by 3 lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $\frac{1}{2}$ length
Time—1 min 20 2 5 secs

The Maharani of Venkatagiri's Cup Distance
1 mile 1 furlong—

Raja Sivaganga's Criadillo (7st 9lbs)
Wright 1

Mr S A A Annamalai Chettiar's Bhadra
(9st 3lbs) Barber 2

Mr Sambandam's Sukhapala (7st 5lbs)
Packham 3

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length Time—2 mins 4 5 secs

H H Travancore Maharajah's Regent Cup Dis-
tance 6 furlongs.—A handicap for horses

in Class IV—
Mr Cuttins's Bowler (8st 9lbs), Mc
Longon 1

The Maharaja of Kashmir's Chorister (7st
9lbs), O Neal 2

Mr Newman Sandor's The Victim (8st
11lbs) Guru 3

Won by 1 length $\frac{1}{2}$ length $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths
Time—1 min. 17 secs

R. C T E Cup Distance $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.—A
handicap for horses in Class III—

The Raja of Parakkimedi's Snow Flight (7st
7lbs.) Robertson 1

The Raja of Bobbili's Geraint (7st 7lbs),
Nelson 2

The Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Reconn
pense (7st 7lbs), White 3

Won by $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths $2\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, 2 lengths
Time—2 mins 10 secs

Mysore

Rajakumar's Cup Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr A A E Cope's Red Connors (7st 8lbs),
Alford 1

Mr V H Vijaya Lakshmi's Toiglass (7st
6lbs) Wright 2

Mr Hajee Strismail Salt's Dalkruha (9st),
Bylands 3

Sir Darcy Lindsay's Rose Tip (7st 13lbs),
Wright 4

Won by a length Time—1 min 16 2 5
secs

Rajasaheb Bobbili's Cup Distance 7 furlongs —
 Mrs J H Mashah & Bakhtiar (7st 11lbs), Thompson 1
 Mr A Hazamy & Infoog (8st 9lbs), Hoyt 2
 Mr E H Dew & Mameinuke (8st 5lbs), Long 3
 Won by 1½ lengths Time—1 min 39 2 5 secs

Haji Sir Ismail Salt's Cup Distance 1½ miles —A handicap for Arabs
 Mr Mahomed Oomer & Auhai (8st 13lbs), Hill 1
 Mr Mahomed Jamoor & Jadha (8st 4lbs) Rylands 2
 Messrs Govindraj & Rozario & Saif Saud (8st 4lbs) Clarke 3
 Won by a short head short head a length Time—2 mins 24 secs

The Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup Distance 1 mile —A handicap for country bred —
 Capt Wilkin and Lt-Col Newman Davis & Sivaji (8st 13lbs) Wright 1
 Mr A Hazamy & Swank (9st) Hoyt 2
 Mr M S Sampandam & Sukhapala (8st 2lbs) Hill 3
 Won by ½ length 4 lengths Time—1 min 46 secs

H H The Maharaja of Mysore's Cup Distance 1½ miles —A handicap for horses in Class III —
 H H The Maharaja of Mysore's Polcat (9st), Hill 1
 Col R O B Hill & O B E (7st 9lbs) McQuade 2
 Mr J J Murphy & Dargos (8st 13lbs), O'Brien 3
 Won by 1 length ½ lengths, 2 lengths Time—2 mins 14 secs

Colombo

Turf Club Plate Distance 1½ miles —
 Mr E C Paterson & Last Verse (7st 1 lb) J Rosen 1
 Mr G Fellowes & Willow Stream (9st 11lbs) Burn 2
 Mr W W Pole Fletcher's Roscommon (7st 2lbs) B Rosen 3
 Time—2 mins 59 2 5 secs

Civil Service Cup Distance 7 furlongs —
 Mr A E DeSilva & Lippia (8st 11lbs) Northmore 1
 Mr M L Lyon & Gallophant (7st), Warren 2

Mr N H Samarasinghe & Epos (9st 4lbs), Hutchins 3
 Won by half a length Time—1 min 27 1 5 secs

Colombo Cup Distance 2 miles —
 Mr F Pike & Hakimght (8st 2lbs), Boughton 1
 Mr W Evans & Barclays (8st) Morley 2
 Mr A E DeSilva & Saint Edgar (8st 6lbs) Northmore 3
 Won by a length Time—3 mins 41 secs

Governor's Cup Distance 1 mile 3 furlongs —
 Mr G Fellowes & Willow Stream (9st 3lbs) Burn 1
 Mr A Lookmanji & Atreas (9st 3lbs) O'Brien 2
 Mr N H Samarasinghe & Epos (9st 3lbs), Hutchins 3
 Won by ½ length Time—2 mins 24 4 5 secs

November Selling Handicap Distance 6 furlongs —
 Mrs Bartlett & Miss Kurmi (7st), J Rosen 1
 Mrs H F Dealwis & Raisius (7st) B Rosen 2
 Mr Heywood & Ardnoise (8st 2lbs) Williams 3
 Mr Heywood & Lady Gauntlette (7st 12lbs) Macpherson 4
 Won by ½ length, neck Time—1 min 19 1 5 secs

Pooné

The Atlantic Stakes Distance 1½ miles —
 Mr H A Baigmahomed & Mulligatawny (8st 12lbs), J Brown 1
 H H The Aga Khan & Avoline (7st 10lbs) A C Walker 2
 Mr P R Jaramani & Bray Prince (9st 11lb), J W Brace 3
 Won by ½ length, 2½ lengths, 2 lengths Time—2 mins 8 3 5 secs

The Western India Stakes Distance 1½ miles —
 Mr P B Avais & Facino (8st 4lbs) A Clark 1
 Messrs C B Farrar and R K Bowie & Nightjar (8st 13lbs), Kaston 2
 Mr A S Tyebjee & Eastern Essex (9st 3lbs) B Black 3
 Won by neck head neck Time—2 mins 1 5 secs

The Vauxhall Handicap Distance 6 furlongs —

- Mr H M Mahta s Spanish Wish (8st 2lbs), B Rosen 1
 H H The Thakore Sahib of Wadhwan and Lt-Col Zorawar Singh s Sermon (8st 2lbs), A T Morrison 2
 Mr Eve s Saxpence (8st) J W Brace 3
 Won by 1½ lengths 1½ lengths, ¾ length
 Time—1 min 14 secs

The Poona Plate Distance 6 furlongs —

- Mr Shantidas Askuran s Cavern (8st 7lbs) Burn 1
 H H The Aga Khan s Nijinski (9st 1lb), A C Walker 2
 Mr Kalso s Flourish (8st 10lbs) Harding 3
 Won by 2 lengths, 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths
 Time—1 min 14 3/5 secs

The Governor's Cup Distance B C and Distance —

- Mr A C Ardeshir s Asailah (8st 12lbs) Howell 1
 Mr A A Ali bin Talib s Saifudowla (9st 4lbs) W J Thompson 2
 The Chief of Miraj Juniors s Manji (7st), B Rosen 3
 Won by 2 lengths, ¾ length, 1½ lengths
 Time—3 mins 10 2/5 secs

The Trial Plate Distance 1 mile —

- Mr Pine s Long Reign (9st 6lbs) Townsend 1
 H H The Aga Khan s Quincy (8st 7lbs) C A Walker 2
 Mr A C Ardeshir s Naughty Look (8st 13lbs), Howell 3
 Won by 2 lengths, neck, neck
 Time—1 min 41 2/5 secs

The Criterion Distance 7 furlongs —

- Mr Shantidas Askuran s Lipstown (8st 8lbs), Burn 1
 Mr L S Lalvani s Galumph (8st 8lbs) carried 7st 1lb), Wright 2
 Mr Kalso s Phare (8st 8lbs), Harding 3
 Won by 2½ lengths, head, 3 lengths
 Time—2 min 27 1/5 secs

Ootacamund

The Sivaganga Cup Distance 1½ miles —

- Rajah of Ramnad s Orchis (8st 7lbs) H McQuade 1
 Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan s Gold Currency (7st 5lbs), Long 2
 Mr Pogose s Nought (9st 12lbs), Hill 3

Won by a head, 1 length, ¾ length
 Time—2 mins 17 1/5 secs

The New Market Plate Distance 5½ furlongs

- Mr Clarke s Miss Pamela (7st 8lbs), Wright 1
 Mr Murphy s Maid of Athlone (8st) Meekings 2
 Mr Daver s Gapencois (7st 3lbs) Rankin 3
 Won by 1 length 2 lengths, 4 lengths
 Time—1 min 9 2/5 secs

The Gocharn Plate Distance 7 furlongs —

- Handicap for horses in Class III —
 Mr Pogose s Nought (8st 2lbs), Hill 1
 Lady Beatrix Stanley and Miss Stanley s Bridal Knot (9st 4lbs) Meekings 2
 Hajee Sir Ismail Salt s Happy Alliance (7st 9lbs) Long 3
 Won by short head
 Time—1 min 31 1/5 secs

The Nilgiris Plate Distance 5½ furlongs —

- Handicap for Grifins —
 Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan s Scotch Fair (8st 7lbs) Babajan 1
 Mr Saitars Jane Ball (8st 13lbs) Rylands 2
 Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan s Ellen Goes (8st 5lbs), Long 3
 Won by ¾ length
 Time—1 min 11 4/5 secs

The Banganpalle Cup Distance 1 mile —A

- handicap for horses in Class III
 Lady Beatrix Stanley and Miss Stanley s Bridal Knot (9st) Meekings 1
 Mr Pogose s Nought (8st 8lbs), T Hill 2
 Won by 4 lengths
 Time—1 min 50 3/5 secs

The Vondagar Cup Distance 7 furlongs —A

- handicap for horses in Class IV —
 Mrs Vijayar Lakshmi s Tolglass (7st 5lbs) Wright 1
 Hajee Sir Ismail Salt s Tim Amen (8st 8lbs), Rylands 2
 The Rajah of Ramnad s Orchis (8st 11lb), H McQuade 3
 Won by 2 lengths, 2 lengths
 Time—2 mins 37 secs

Secunderabad

Fakhr-ul Malik Cup Distance 1 mile —

- Nawab Wali ud Dowlah Bahadur s Bachante (7st 13lbs), S Black 1
 Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan Bahadur s Vivemeter (8st 10lbs) M Babajan 2
 Nawab Mir Mahdi Ali Khan Bahadur s Gold Currency (8st 4lbs), W J Wright 3
 Won by short head, 4 lengths, ¾ length
 Time—1 min 41 secs

The Resident's Cup Distance 7 furlongs —
 Dr M Utman's Noor Jehan (9st 7lbs) 1
 M Babajan 1
 Maharaja Sir Kishen Pershad Bahadur's
 Pollantbes (7st 12lbs) J Wreghitt 2
 Mr M S Sambandan's Sikkapala (8st
 10lbs), A Clarke 3
 Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length, $1\frac{1}{2}$ lengths, $\frac{1}{2}$ length
 Time—1 min 30 secs
 The Turf Club Plate Distance 5 furlongs —
 Mrs E D Kazi's Square Deal (8st 11lbs),
 Townsend 1
 Mr R Swedani's Arabla (7st 5lbs), R D
 Akford 2
 Mr H V Daver's Nayif Faahs (8st 18lbs),
 P Rylands 3

Won by $\frac{1}{2}$ length short head, short head
 Time—1 min 51-5 secs

The Iraq Plate Distance 6 furlongs —
 Mr Moosa M Hoosein's Colombo
 (7st 12lbs) S Black 1
 Mrs J H Mashai's Bakhtiar (9st), W G
 Thompson 2
 Mr Sheriff Ahni's Elwaisiyah (7st 5lbs),
 J Wreghitt 3
 Also Ran —August (7st 13lbs) Padmala
 (7st 12 lbs) Majesty II (7st 11lbs) and
 Zaki Beg (7st 8lbs)
 Won by 3 lengths 1 length and $\frac{1}{2}$ length
 Time—1 min 24 secs

ATHLETICS

The following are results of the All India Olympic
 meet at Allahabad —

100 Yards —1, M Sutton (Bengal) 2, Muha-
 mad Khan (Punjab) Time—10 1-5 secs

Mile —1, Gurbachan Singh (Punjab) 2, Ihan
 gavalu (Madras) Time—4 mins 23 1-5
 secs

Putting the Shot —1, Dev Raj (Punjab) 2,
 Jogendrasingh (Punjab) Distance 39 feet

220 Yards —1, M Sutton (Bengal) 2, Muham-
 mad Khan (Punjab) Time—22 1-5 secs

Throwing the discus —1, Dev Raj (Punjab)
 2, Prictos (Bengal) Distance 110 ft $1\frac{1}{2}$ in

Relay Race 4 by 100 Yards —1, Bengal, 2,
 Punjab 3, Madras Time—42 1-5 secs

Long Jump —1, S J D Costa (Madras) 2,
 G Mallu (Punjab) Distance 22 ft 4 in

Five Miles —1, Devi Singh (Hyderabad) 2,
 2, Gujar Singh (Punjab) Time—27 mins
 32 2-5 secs

440 Yards —1, G P Bhalla (Punjab) 2, V
 J Rapti (Punjab) Time—51 secs

High Jump —1, Abu Yusuf (Bengal) 2,
 P K Bose (Bengal) Height 50 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft

120 Yards Hurdles —1, H K Dutt (Bengal)
 2, L C Tapeell (Bengal) Time—45 2-5
 secs

POLO

Calcutta Indian Polo Championship—
 Jalpur Pilgrims 4 goals
 Bhopal Scouts 3 goals
 The Ezra Polo Tournament—
 Jodhpur 9 goals
 Crusaders 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ goals
 Bombay The Rajputa Gold Cup—
 Baria 6 goals
 3rd Cavalry 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ goals
 Delhi The Delhi Show Handicap Polo
 Tournament—
 Bargorites 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ goals
 Rajinder Lancers 2 goals
 The Prince of Wales Commemoration Polo
 Tournament—
 Central India Horse 11 goals
 Jodhpur 3 goals
 Radha Mohan Polo Tournament—
 Jodhpur 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ goals
 Kashmir 1 goal
 Lahore Punjab Challenge Cup—
 Probyn's Horse (X) 4 goals
 16/19th Hussars (A) 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ goals

Lucknow Polo Tournament, Lucknow—

Audad 4 goals
 Skinner's Horse 3 goals

Secunderabad Junior Polo Tournament, Secun-
 derabad—

Royal Dragoons A 9 goals
 2nd Hyderabad Imperial Service
 Lancers 4 goals

Simsa The Viceroy's Staff Cup Polo Tourna-
 ment—

The Rajinder Lancers 5 goals
 The Hoodoos 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ goals

Quetta Quetta Extra Unlimited Handicap Polo
 Tournament—

15th Lancers 5 goals
 Hopeful 4 goals

Mount Abu Idar Cup Polo Tournament—
 Jalpur Lancers 5 goals
 Sadar Risala 2 goals

Naini Tal The Naini Tal Payagpur Polo
 Tournament—

The Prientoses 2 goals
 The K O G Sappers and Miners 1 goal

FOOTBALL

Bombay	The Bovers Cup Tournament—
	The King's Own Scottish Borderers
	Regt 2 goals
	The Duke of Wellington's Regt NW
The Harwood League—	
	The Duke of Wellington's Regt won the
	League Championship after drawing with
	the East Lancs Regt in the final
Gossage Cup—	
	Bombay Gymkhana 2 goals
	Colaba United NW
Calcutta	The Trades Cup—
	St Josephs 3 goals
	The Measurers 1 goal

The Cooch Behar Cup Competition—	
Eastern Bengal Railway	3 goals
The Mahomedan Sporting Club	2 goals
The I F A Shield Competition—	
The Scaforth Highlanders	3 goals
The Loyal Regt	NW
Military vs Civilians (Annual Match)—	
Military	3 goals
Civilians	2 goals
International Match—	
England	1 goal
Scotland	1 goal
Simsa	The Durand Cup—
York and Lancs Regt	2 goals
Leicesters	NW

CRICKET

Secunderabad	Quadrangular Tournament—
	Final —Muslims 127 and 39 for 4 wickets
	Europeans 84 and 80

Muslims	137 and 253
Hindus	129 and 185
Europeans	111 and 195 for 9 wickets
Parsi	133 and 170

GOLF

Calcutta	
The Ladies Golf Championship of India—	
	Mrs Duccan beat Mrs Morgan 6 and 5
The Merchants Cup—	
	A. M. Mair and Coy 550 points

Gulmarg

The Duncan Vase—	
	Major A. Clowes beat Mr D. W. Gordon by 5 and 4

Nasik

Western India Challenge Shield—	
	Gillinder beat Dick by 2 and 1
Ladies Gold Bangle—	
	Miss Miller beat Miss Owen 4 and 1
The Captain's Cup—	
	Parker beat Nathan, 4 and 3

Consolation Cup—	
	Fido beat Bennett, 2 and 1
The Advant Cup—	

A. J. A. Mlingworth (Bombay) 234 nett

Mahabaleshwar

The Willingdon Cup—	
	Capt. Morrison.
The Willingdon Silver—	
	Miss A. Morrison

Bombay

The McDonald Cup—	
	J. Birtwistle
Captain's Cup—	
	J. Bullock
Captain's Cup (Runner Up)	
	A. C. Greenfield

BOXING

Bombay	
The results of the Bombay Presidency Amateur	
Boxing Federation —	
Flyweight —Pte Lee (K. O. S. B. Regt)	
	beat Rtn. Boyd (Ulsters) on points
Bantamweight —L/Cpl. Ewing (Ulsters) beat	
	M. D. Wadia (B. B. & C. I. Rly) on points

Featherweight —E. Frewin beat L/Cpl	
	Fernahan on points.
Lightweight —L/Sgt. McKnight (Ulsters)	
	beat Opl. Shields (East Lancs) on points.
Welterweight —Bombardier Preeti (R. A.	
	Kirkce) beat Rtn. Ramsay (Ulsters) on
	points.

Middleweight —Rfm. Kerry beat Pte Magee (East Lanes) on points
 Light Heavyweight —Lt P Davis (Royal Tank Corps) beat Milton Scott on points
 Heavyweight —Rfm. Milligan knocked out Rfm. McMullan in the first round
Middleweight Championship of India—
 Militan Kubes beat Bombardier Ayling on points

Mussoorie

The following were the results of the Army Individual Finals —
 Flyweights —Fus Barber (R S Fus) beat Pte Orinkell (1st Leicesters) on points
 Bantamweight —Corpl Guerin (Hants) beat Dmr Tomlin (Beds and Herts) on points retaining his title

Featherweight —Corpl Shields (1st E Lanes) beat Lance-Corpl Walsh (2nd R. Sussex) on points
 Lightweight —Sergeant Preston (R I Fus.) beat 4 Corpl Ayres (1st Rifle Bde) the referee stopping the fight in the second round.
 Welterweight —Lance-Corpl Pithers (Beds and Herts) beat Pte Lewis (Loyals) on points
 Middleweight —Edr Ward (13th Med Bde) R A 1 beat Lance-Corpl. Pockets (A Berks) on points
 Heavyweight —Pdr MacDonald (1 Bty R H A) beat Pte Buchanan (2nd P W Volunteers) on points retaining his title
 Heavyweight —Tpr Hough (4th Hussars) beat Sgt Murdoch (2nd R I Fus) on points

TENNIS.

Allahabad

All India Tennis Tournament —
 Men's Singles —E V Bobb beat D N Kapoor, 6-3, 5-7, 6-2, 6-3
 Ladies Singles —Miss J Sandison beat Mrs McKenna, 6-3, 6-0
 Mixed Doubles —Brooke Edwards and Miss Sandison beat S W Bobb and Mrs McKenna, 6-3, 6-4
Allahabad Plate—
 Allahabad Plate (open to losers in the 1st and 2nd rounds of the Men's Singles)
 Finals Mahmud Khan beat Ashgar Hussain 6-1, 7-5

Bombay

The Western India Tennis Championships—
 Men's Singles —E D Andrews beat M Kamruddin 6-3, 6-3
 Men's Doubles —Raja Iyer and R A Wagle beat L Brooke-Edwards and T W Brough, 1-6, 6-3, 7-5
 Women's Singles —Mrs B C Covell beat Miss Leela Row, 6-2, 6-1
 Women's Doubles —Mrs Covell and Mrs Davidson beat Mrs Row and Miss Leela Row 6-1, 6-0
 Mixed Doubles —E D Andrews and Mrs Covell beat L Brooke-Edwards and Mrs McDougall, 6-1, 8-6
The Bombay Presidency Hard Court Tennis Tournament—
 Men's Doubles —N R Savarna and B H

Khardkar beat Capt Raja Iyer and Wagle, 5-7, 11-9, 6-1
 Mixed Doubles —Miss D Moran and Ranga Rao beat Mrs Davidson and Brough 4-6, 6-4, 6-8
 Men's Singles —L D Ranga Rao beat B H Khardkar
 Ladies Singles —Miss Leela Row beat Mrs M P McDougall
 Ladies Doubles —Miss O Stebbing and Mrs Corbett Wright beat Mrs T N Davidson and Mrs N P McDougall

Calcutta

Bengal Lawn Tennis Championships—
 Men's Singles —Uda beat L Brooke-Edwards, 3-6, 6-2, 7-6, 3-6, 6-4
 Women's Singles —Miss J Sandison beat Mrs McKenna 6-3, 6-3
 Men's Doubles —Uda and Asano beat D Hill and M Hill 6-3, 2-6, 3-6, 6-3, 6-4
 Women's Doubles —Mrs McKenna and Mrs Pollard beat Mrs Graham and Mrs Newson, 6-3, 6-4
 Mixed Doubles —L Brooke-Edwards and Miss J Sandison beat Krishna Prasad and Mrs McKenna 5-7, 6-2, 7-5
Calcutta Lawn Tennis Championships—
 Women's Singles —Miss J Sandison beat Mrs McKenna 7-5, 6-4
 Women's Doubles —Mrs Simon and Miss J Sandison beat Mrs McKenna and Mrs Stork, 6-2, 7-5

Men's Doubles —Andrews and Horn beat Shan Shur Singh and Kapoor, 6-2, 6-3 6-1
 Men's Singles —Austin beat Andrews, 6-2, 7-5 6-1
 Mixed Doubles —L Brooke-Edwards and Miss J Sandison beat D A Hodges and Mrs Stork, 6-1 6-3

Delhi.

The Army Championships—

Men's Singles (Final) — O Callaghan beat Bernard 8-2, 7-5, 7-5
 Ladies' Singles —Miss Sandison beat Mrs Lumby, 6-2, 6-1
 Men's Doubles —O Callaghan and Webb beat Minto and Skipp, 6-1, 6-4

Madras

Southern India Lawn Tennis Tournament—

Men's Singles —T B Balagopal beat C J Mullen, 6-0, 6-4 7-5 3-6 6-1
 Men's Doubles (Final) —C J Mullen and Narayanaswami beat K Y Prasad and Changhai, 6-2, 6-1, 4-6, 6-8, 6-2
 Women's Singles (Finals) —Mrs Butler beat Miss Woodcock, 6-4 6-4

Mahabaleshwar

Mahabaleshwar Club Tennis Tournament—

Women's Doubles —Mrs Shanks and Miss Maig (Scr) beat Mrs Broomfield and Mrs Maxwell (—4-6) 7-5 6-3
 Men's Singles —Chief of Jath beat Yuvaraj of Miraj Junior (—15-3), 6-4, 5-7 7-5

Men's Doubles —Crichton and Cawley-Way (—3-6) beat Sir Frederick Sykes and Morrison (—3-6), 1-6, 6-4, 6-0
 Mixed Doubles —Mrs Harley and Morrison (—15) beat Mrs Lane and Freke (—3-6), 7-5 2-6, 6-1
 Women's Singles —Lady Sykes (—15-3) defeated Mrs Shanks (—15-3), 6-3 6-5

Quetta

Quetta Club Tennis Tournament—

Women's Open Doubles (Finals) —Mrs E B Marsh and Mrs E W S Pratt beat Mrs T N Davidson and Mrs O Masters, 7-5, 6-2
 Men's Open Singles —Capt G E Fenwick beat Capt J I Knoll 6-4, 6-4
 Dr D S Jackson beat Capt G E Fenwick 6-0 6-1
 Men's Open Doubles (Finals) —Wing Commander Archer and Mr C S Harper beat Messrs C M DeSilva and S A DeSouza, 6-2, 6-1, 6-3
 Open Mixed Doubles (Finals) —Capt P G Long and Mrs E B Marsh beat Major R T E Wickham and Mrs M G Anderson 6-4, 7-5

Jubbulpore.

Nerbudda Club Tennis Tournament—

Mixed Doubles —Mrs Griffiths and Mr Frost beat Miss Phillips and Mr Eric Shaw 6-2, 6-3
 Men's Doubles —Roy and Naidu beat Nevasekar and Shaw 6-4 8-6 6-4
 Men's Singles —Roy beat Frost, 4-6 4-0, 6-4, 7-5

HOCKEY

Bangalore.

The Imperial Hockey Tournament—

Madras Port Staff 1 goal
 Madras Anglo Indian Sports Club Nil

The Gymkhana Hockey Cup—

Bangalore Indians 4 goals
 St Joseph's Boys Nil

Bombay

The Aga Khan Hockey Tournament—

Ajmere Loco Sports Club 3 goals
 Bombay Customs 1 goal

Calcutta

The Beighton Cup Tournament—

Calcutta Customs 4 goals
 Port Commissioners 2 goals

Gwalior

All India Scindia Gold Cup Hockey

Tournament—
 Customs Athletic Club Bombay 2 goals
 Jhansi Heroes Club Nil

Peshawar

The Sir George Ross Keppel Football

Tournament—
 Afghan Club Peshawar 4 goals
 Union Club, Peshawar 2 goals

Rawalpindi

The Rovers Challenge Cup Tournament—

Telegraph Recreation Club 2 goals
 Heavy Repair Workshop, Chakala 1 goal

Secunderabad.

The Fateh Maidan Hockey Cup—

The W M Hockey Club 1 goal
 The Jolly Eleven Nil

ROWING

The results of the Royal Connaught Boat Club Regatta at Poona were —

Novices Fours — $\frac{1}{2}$ mile Young Crew Army Signal School, beat Old Crew Army Signal School, by 3 lengths Time—3 mins 25 secs The Crews Young Crew G L Hildebrand (bow) A C K Maunsell, M J Kerslake, R H Molony (stroke) and A E E Pollard (Cox) Old Crew J H G Hoseason (bow), E G Dawes K J Gittings, M W Hope (stroke) and A N Barnard (Cox)

Challenge Fours — $\frac{1}{2}$ mile Royal Connaught Boat Club beat Bombay Gymkhana by a foot Time—4 mins 53 secs The crews R C B C —J B Church (bow) F M

Hill, R L. Brown, H P F Wolferstan (stroke) and G E H Philbrick (Cox) Bombay Gymkhana D G McCann (bow) J E A Low, F A I Richardson, S J Wheeler (stroke) and H A Moore (Cox) Cutter Race — $\frac{1}{2}$ mile D Company East Lancashire Regiment beat Royal Engineers by 3 lengths Time—4 mins 43 secs Mixed Double Sculls — $\frac{1}{2}$ mile J B Church Mrs Gaffney and Miss C Spring (Cox) beat H E Clements, Miss K B Hull and Mrs Wolferstan (Cox) by 5 lengths Time—1 min 53 secs Senior Sculls — $\frac{1}{2}$ mile H P F Wolferstan beat S J Wheeler by $\frac{1}{2}$ lengths Time—5 mins 17 secs

RUGBY

Bombay

All India Rugby Tournament—
Bombay Gymkhana
Duke of Wellington's Regt

29 points
3 points

International Match—

Scotland	22 points
England	9 points

SWIMMING

Bombay

The Merchants Cup—

The Netherlands India Commercial Bank Team

Karachi

The following are the results of the Karachi Boat Club Annual Swimming Regatta —

The Bollesu Cup $\frac{1}{2}$ mile —Flying Lieutenant J Wagner

The Bomer Cup, 100 yards —A M David son

The Mixed Relay Race —Mrs Price, Miss Kitty Milne A S Taylor J Lawrence

Men's Relay Race —Cockran, McCannell O Brian and A S Taylor

Ladies Challenge Cup 60 yards —Miss Peggy Milne

Men's High Diving —Major Sandford

Men's Spring Board Diving —Birale

Ladies Spring Board Diving —Miss Kitty Milne

Plunging —Harbord

Greasy Pole —Burnham

RACKETS

Mysore

All India Professional Championship—

Zen Khan (Blaikot) beat Abdul Majid (Peshawar)

Southern India Amateur Championship—

D C Naray Bahadur (Mysore) beat H B Scott (Secunderabad)

Bombay

Bombay Racket Championship—

J G Milne beat H F Milne

Inter School—

Tonbridge beat Eton

MISCELLANEOUS

Kadir Cup—Captain Richards on Manifest

Billiards, Poona—The Scissors Cup McCartney 250, Taylor 197

Who's Who in India.

ABDUL HAMID KHAN BAHADUR DIWAN, Bar-at-Law, C.I.E., O.B.E., Chief Minister Kapurthala State & 15 October 1881 m a daughter of Khan Sahib Shakh Amir-ud Din retired Extra Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab Educ. Government College, Lahore, State Magistrate, 1908, Judge 1909; Supdt of the Census Operations 1911 Head of the Executive and Revenue Depts as Masbir Mal, Fellow of the Punjab University Lately Member, Punjab Legislative Council, Chief Secretary March 1915 Chief Minister 1920 Khan Bahadur (1915) O.B.E. (1918) C.I.E. (1923) Appointed by the Government of India Chairman of the Banking Enquiry Committee for the Centrally Administered Areas 1920-30 Address Kapurthala

ABDUL KARIM, MAULAVI, B.A., M.L.C. Government pensioner and Member, Council of State Member Bengal Legislative Council since 1926 & 20 Aug 1893 m Avenha Khatun of Calcutta Educ Syhet and Calcutta Started as a teacher in the Calcutta Madrasah Assistant Inspector of Schools for Mahomedan education for about 15 years Inspector of Schools Chittagong Division for about five years Member, Council of State Publications History of India for Beginners in English Bengali, Hindi and Urdu Students History of India The Mahomedan Empire in India in Bengali Hints on Class Management and Method of Teaching in English and Mahomedan Education in Bengal (English) Address 18-1, Wellesley Square Calcutta

ABERCHROMBIE JOHN ROBERTSON, M.L.C., Merchant Director Wilson Latham & Co Ltd & June 11, 1888 m Rile Mande d of E W Collin late I.C.S. Educ Cheltenham Coll Came out to India as Assistant in 1910, joined I.A.E.O Feb 1915 Joined 18th K.G.O. Lancers in France May 1916 active service in France, May 1916—March 1918 and in Palestine March 1918—Feb 1919 Military Cross and mentioned in despatches Vice-President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1925 President 1930 Member Bombay Legislative Council 1925-26 and 1930 Address Central Bank Buildings Bruce Street, Bombay

ABHERDANANDA HIS HOLINESS SREEMAT SWAMI, PH.D. (New York) President, Ramakrishna Vedanta Society, Calcutta Spiritual Teacher Lecturer and Author & Oct 2 1866 Educ Calcutta University Disciple of Sri Ramakrishna Paramahansa and a spiritual brother of Swami Vivekananda a Trustee of the Belur Math and Ramakrishna Mission. Went to London in 1896 to lecture on Hindu Philosophy (Vedanta) In 1897 went to New York, U.S.A. and organized the Vedanta Society of New York. Lectured before educational institutions, societies and universities for twenty-five years in England, America and Canada. Returned to Calcutta in 1921 and established the Ramakrishna

Vedanta Society of which he has been President since and also of Ramakrishna Vedanta Ashrama at Darjeeling, of Ramakrishna Ashram at Salkes, D. Howrah, and of Ramakrishna Vivekananda Ashram at Murzarapur Publications Reincarnation, Spiritual Unfoldment, Philosophy of Work, How to be a Yogi, Divine Heritage of Man Self Knowledge (Atma Jnan) India and her People, Gospel of Ramakrishna Sayings of Ramakrishna Human Affection and Divine Love Great Saviours of the World The Doctrine of Karma, 'The Religion of the Twentieth Century' Lectures and Addresses in India, and a number of pamphlets in English and Bengali Founder and Editor of *Biswa-Bani*, an illustrated Bengali monthly Magazine of the R.K.V. Society Address 40 Beadon Street, Calcutta

ACHARYA, M.K., B.A., L.T. M.L.A. Public Worker and Journalist, & 1876 m Rukman Ammal, in 1894 Two sons Educ at the Madras Christian College Lecturer 1896 to 1902 Head Master 1902-1917 Independent political worker since 1917 Publications Portraits from Indian Classics A Hand Book of Morals "Kumuda" a drama, "Deasathia" a tragedy "Shri Krishna Karas Mrita", "The Basic Blunder in the reconstruction of Indian Chronology by Orientalists Indo Britanna, etc. elected as a Member to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the Chinglepet cum 8 Arcot Non Mahomedan Constituency in 1923 and 1926 Till 1928 a prominent Member of the Swaraj Party and the Congress Address 40 Lingha Chetti Street, Madras, B

AGLAND RICHARD DYKE, The Right Rev M.A., Bishop of Bombay, (1929) & 1881 Educ Bedford and Oxford Deacon 1905-Priest 1906, Curate St. Mary's, Slough 1906-10, & P & Missions Ahmednagar Kolhapur Dapoli Bombay 1911-1929 Address Bishop's Lodge, Malabar Hill, Bombay, B

ADVANI, MOTILAL SHOWKIRAM, Khaser I-Hind Gold Medal (1910) President Hylera bad Educational Society & 12 October 1868 m Margaret Annesley d. of the late Rev Charles Voysey Educ The Albert School and Presidency College, Calcutta Barrister (Inner Temple), 1892, Practised in Karachi 1892-1904, Assistant Judge, Hyderabad 1904, Acted as District Judge, Hyderabad 1905, Permanent District Judge, 1911 Served in Thana, Surat District Judge, Broach, 1917-1922 and District Judge, Nasik, until June 1924 Address No 6, Bungalows Cantonment Hyderabad Sind

AGA KHAN, AGA SULEMAN MAHOMED SHAH, G.C.I.E. (1902), G.C.S.I. (1911) G.O.V.O. (1928), K.C.I.E. (1908), L.L.D., Hon Camb

1876, Brilliant Star of Kannhar, 1900, 1st Class, has many religious followers in East Africa, Central Asia and India, head of Ismail Mahommedans, granted rank and status of first class chief with salute of 11 guns in recognition of loyal services during European War. *Publications* India in Transition. *Address* Aga Hall, Bombay

AGARWALA, LAHA GINDRARILAL B.A., Advocate, High Court Allahabad. Member, First Legislative Assembly 16th Feb 1878, LL B Vakil, High Court (Muttra) Educ. Agra College, B.S.M. London. Moved resolution in Legislative Assembly re Indian Governors Chief Justices, etc., 27th Sept, 1921 at Simla and Bill to remove inequalities between Vaidias and Barristers. Was Director, Moradabad Spinning and Weaving Mills for 10 years, and of Babrala Cotton Gln and Press Co., Ltd., for 6 years original member U P Chamber of Commerce, Secy U P Hindu Sabha. Elected Member of the first Bar Council, Agra Province President, Agarwal Seva Samiti (Social Service and Scouting) *Publications* An Article re use of aircraft during war in Legitimite de la Guerre Aerienne Proposed legislation for protection of Cows and Improvement of Cattle in India, Hindu Home and Temple in London, and Parallel Agra Tenancy Act 1926 Member Hindu Law Research Society, Member of Court, Benares Hindu University. *Address* 53, George Town, Allahabad

AGA SHAH BOOKH SHAH, Nawab Shah Bookh Far Jung Bahadur (1928) 1874, eldest s of Aga Akbar Shah g.s of H H the First Aga Khan m s d of Aga Shahabuddin Shah (1897) Educ. English and Persian Hon A.D.C. to H H the Nizam of Hyderabad 1918 Hon Private Secretary to H H the Aga Khan 1900 President Poona Suburban Municipality 1925 1928 and re-elected President 1928-31 Founder and President Servants of Islam Society Poona 1928, Director Queen Mary's Technical School, for Disabled Indian Soldiers, Kirkee 1928 Member of Committee, Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Poona, 1928 Fellow Royal Society of Arts (Hon.) 1927 President, Poona Dist Muslim Educational Society 1929-1930 *Address* 11, Connaught Road, Poona

AHMAD, DR. ZIA UDDIN, C.I.E., M.A. Ph.D. D.Sc. M.L.C. Pro Vice-Chancellor, Muslim University Aligarh 1878 Educ. Aligarh, Trin Coll Cambridge (St Isaac Newton Scholar), Göttingen (Ph.D.) and Allahabad (D.Sc.) Member of Calcutta University Commn. Pro Vice-Chancellor *Address* Muslim University, Aligarh.

AHMED, KAREED DIN M.L.A. Bar-at-Law and Advocate, Calcutta High Court, Landholder 1886 Educ. at the Malda Govt. High English School and at Magdalene College, Cambridge Called to the Bar in 1910 Founder of Bengal Jotedars and Ralyats Association and its Hon Secretary takes great interest in agriculture was elected Presdt, Bengal Agricultural Confce

in 1917, Director Darjeeling Himalayan Tea Co., Ltd., Calcutta, Organizer, Founder and President, India Seamen's Union, Calcutta 1922-27, elected its Patron, 1929 Elected member, Bengal Legislative Council in 1920 elected member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23 1924-26, 1927-30 re-elected again in 1930 from the Rajshahi Division Founder of Parliamentary Muslim Party in Indian Legislative Assembly, 1932 and its Chief Whip Member Central National Mahomedan Assoc., Calcutta Member Governing Body of Indian Nationalistic Society Calcutta Member, Democratic Party in Indian Legislature 1921-24 Vice President, Anjuman Wolzain, Bangala Member of the Royal Commission on Labour 1929 *Publications* Handbook of Equity, Roman Law etc *Address* 10, Hastings Street Calcutta Dshwanathpur kasant P O Malda (Bengal)

AHMED, KHAN BAHADUR NAZI AZIZUDDIN, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.S.O. Chief Minister Datta State 7 April 1861 Educ. at Gonda High School m s d of Mirza Mahomed Ismail, Subordinate Judge Gonda 1893 Served in the P.C.B.U.P. for 34 years during which time acted as Magistrate and Collector, Bulandshahr and Asst Director of Agriculture and Commerce U.P. was on deputation with His Majesty the late Amir of Kabul during his Indian tour services lent to Jharatpur State in 1910 for employment as Rty Member of Council of Agency transferred to Dholpur 1913 and retired from Government service in 1920 but continued to serve His Highness the Maharaja of Dholpur as Judicial Minister; appointed Chief Minister, Datta in 1922 Is member of the Court of the Delhi University & Aligarh University and Trustee, Agra College Member Senate of the Agra University, was Fellow, Allahabad University 1907-20 and Member, Royal Asiatic Society London State Scout Commissioner for Datta State President St John Ambulance Association and Red Cross Society Datta State Centre Awarded by the Grand Priory St John's Gate London an insignia on admission as an Associate Serving Brother of the Venerable Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem *Publications* Author of about 40 books in English and Urdu including life of H.M. King George V and H.H. the Prince of Wales Commentaries on Criminal Procedure Code and U.P. Land Revenue Act translated into Urdu at the request of Government of India proceedings of the War Conference, 1919 and History of Coronation Durbar, 1911 *Address* Datta

AIKMAN, DAVID WANS, C.I.E. (1912), Consulting Engineer to the Cawnpore Improvement Trust 8 December 1863 Educ. Cooper's Hill m Marion Drummond Stewart. Joined P.W.D. 1885 Retd. 1915 *Publications* Roorkhee treatise on water supply, Consulting Engineer for the Cawnpore Water Work, etc. *Address* Charville, 2, Simla, and 18, Clyde Road Lucknow

AINSOUGH THOMAS MARYLAND, O.B.E. (1925), M.Com., F.R.G.S. His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon & 1888 as Mabel d. of the late W. Lincoln of Kiy, Cambs., two s. one d. Educ. Manchester Gr. School, Switzerland and Manchester University in business in China 1907-12; Spl. Commissioner to the Board of Trade in China, 1914, Sec., Board of Trade Textile Committee, 1916, Sec., Empire Cotton Growing Committee, 1917, Expert Assmt. to Persian Tariff Revision Commission, 1920. Member of the Royal Asiatic Society Central Asian Society and Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts. *Publications* Notes from a Frontier. Address Bengal Club, Calcutta.

AIYANGAR, CHITLURU DURAI SWAMI B.A. B.L. High Court Vakil Chittoor and Member Legislative Assembly & 1873 Educ. Madras Christian College and Yaw College. School master for two years then Vakil from July 1899 occupied offices of President District Congress Committee Dist. Conference etc., President Taluk Board and Chairman Municipal Council, Chittoor, for some years President, Andhra Provincial Conference 1928 President, Postal and R. M. S. Union, Madras Province, 1929. *Publications* Katsa Land Act in Telugu, Sri Venkatesa of the First Arch. Gandhi Unveiled Address Chittoor

ALI A. F. M. ABDUL M.A. & 1884 Son of Nawab Bahadur Abdul Latif Khan, O.I.E. Educ. St. Xavier's, Dornon College, Calcutta. Founder of Moslem Institute, Calcutta. Founder and Editor of the Journal of the Moslem Institute. Joined Bengal Civil Service, 1906 placed on special duty Political Department, Bengal as Special Press Censor Sept. 1918 to March 1919 Police Magte, Alipore September 1921 to March 1922 Appt. Keeper of the Records of the Govt. of India and Es-Officio Assistant Secretary to the Govt. of India, April 1922. Secretary to the India Historical Records Commission Trustee and Honorary Secretary of the Indian Museum, Fellow, Calcutta University, Member of the Court of the Dacca University, Member, Executive Committee of the Council of Dufferin Fund Past President, Rotary Club of Calcutta. Member of the Executive Committee, District Charitable Society Governor of the Calcutta Blind School. Member Executive Committee of the Bengal Olympic Association, Member of the Executive Committee of the Bengal Flying Club Secretary, Calcutta Historical Society Vice-President, Calcutta Mahomedan Orphanage. Address 3, Turner Street, Calcutta.

ALI, KHAN SAHABUR MIR ASAD, Merchant Jagirdar & August 1878 m. to Lakshmi-Anisa Begum, d. of Nawab Ali Yaver Jung, Bahadur of Hyderabad (Deccan). Educ. Nizam Coll., Hyderabad. Hon. Magte, Madras, 1912. Member, Imperial Legislative Council, 1913-20;

Member, Legislative Assembly 1921-23. President, Dist. Political Confee of Pullampet, 1914. President, Dist. Political Conference Malabar 1918, President, Provincial Educational Confee, Poona, 1919, President, Madras Presidency Muslim League, 1917-20, President, Elect of All India Muslim Confee, Delhi, 1917. President, Usani Ayurvedic Confee, Hyderabad, 1922. *Publications* "Masaharat," Urdu translation of the *Use of Life* by Lord Avebury. Member Cosmopolitan Club retired from Public Life, 1927, visited holy places in Iraq and Persia in 1929. Address Banganapalle

ALIKHAN KUNWER HAJEE ISMAIL, M.L.A. Sales of Asrauli Estate (Bulandshahr) Chairman, City Board, Mussoorie & Dec 1897 m. d. of late Kunwer Abdul Shakur Khan, Chief of Dharmpore Educ. Persian and Arabic home, English St. Peter's College, Agra. Was elected a Member of the City Board Mussoorie, 1922. Junior Vice Chairman a year later. Attended Wembley (1924) Fellow of the British Empire Exhibition. Toured European countries Western Asia and Northern Africa (1924-25) Chairman Proposed High School Committee Mussoorie, (1925), General Secretary Reception Committee, All India Muslim Rajput Conference (1925), Vice-President and Honey Treasurer of the All India Muslim Rajput Conference. Elected Member of the United Provinces Legislative Council from the Bulandshahr District Mohammedan Rural Constituency (1926) Secretary, Ghana Khand High School Mussoorie (1927-29) President, Anjuman Islami, Mussoorie, (1928-29) Manager in-charge, Islami School Mussoorie (1929-30). Elected Member of the Legislative Assembly from the Meerut Division Mohammedan Rural Constituency, (1930) Member of the Governing Body the School of Agriculture Bulandshahr. President, Tilak Memorial Library, Mussoorie. Hereditary Darbari of the Government. *Publications* Talim-e-Niswan Muslim Rajputan-Hind Council Speeches, Presidential Address of Mussoorie Tanzim. Address Summer — Devnashiro House, Mussoorie Winter — Asrauli Estate, (Bulandshahr) L.P.

ALI, SHAUKAT Educ. M.A. O. Coll., Aligarh (Capt. Cricket XI) In Govt. Opium Dept. for 15 years Sec. and Organizer, Aligarh Old Boys Assoc. Trustee, M.A. O. Coll. Organized collection of funds for Aligarh University. Interested during the war. Prominent leader of the Khilafat movement, 1918-20, and of Non-co-operation movement. Sec. Central Khilafat Committee. Founder and Secretary of Khuddam-ul-Kaaba Society, Address: Sultan Mansion, Dongri Bombay

ALWAR, COLONEL H. H. RAJ RAJESHWAR RAJ RISHI SRI SEWAI MAHARAJ SRI JAY SINGHJI VIKRAMADRA SHEKHAR DRY, SRI MAHARAJ of G.O.B.L. (1924), G.C.I.E. (1916), Colonel in the British Army 1916 K.O.I.E. (1911) K.C.S.I. (1906), General-in-Chief of the Alwar State Forces,

maintains State Forces which served in operations for relief of Peking 1900 and in Great War represented India at the Imperial Conference, 1923 & 1892, Son of H H Shri Bawal Maharaj Sir Mangal Singh! Dev G.C.S.J. Address The Palace, Alwar, Rajasthan

ANAGARIKA DHARMAPALA, The, Teacher and Preacher of Buddhist Ethics and Higher Psychology, General Secretary, Maha-Bodhi Society, Editor, Maha-Bodhi and British Buddhism, Director General, Buddhist Mission in England & September 17, 1884 Leading a Brahmachari life since his boyhood Educated in several private schools in Colombo under Christian missionaries and under Buddhist Bhikkhus. Renounced home in his 20th year to work for the welfare of humanity and the Religion of the Lord Buddha Started the Maha Bodhi Society in May 1891 Head quarters at Buddhagaya, Gaya Sarnath, Benares, Calcutta, Colombo, Kandy, and London and New York. Travelled four times round the world. Was Buddhist special Delegate at the Chicago Parliament of Religions in 1893 Erected the first Buddhist Dharmasala at Buddhagaya and the first Buddhist Vihara in Calcutta, and is now engaged in the erection of a great Vihara, a Buddhist Cultural Institute at Sarnath, Benares. Propaganda in London Started the English "Maha Bodhi" and the Sinhalese weekly the "Buddhala Bandhaya" a popular democratic paper. In 1928 sent eight Sinhalese Samaneras (Buddhist Novices) to India to study Indian vernaculars for missionary work there. Protested against Government interference with exposition of Tooth Relic in Kandy. Publications Life of the Lord Buddha, What did the Lord Buddha Teach, Psychology of Progress, Repeating God of Horob Relationship between Hinduism and Buddhism, the Arya Dharma Address 41 Gloucester Road Regents Park London N W 1, 4A College Square, Calcutta, and Aloe Avenue, Colpetty Colombo

ANANTA KRISHNA AYYAR, The Hon ble Mr Justice Rao Bahadur C V, B.A. B.L. Judge of the Madras High Court Educated Madras Christian College and the Madras Law College Carmichael and Innes Prisoners in Law Apprenticed to the late Justice P.B. Sundara Ayyar Enrolled as a Vakil of the Madras High Court in 1898, Election Commissioner 1921-23 Government Pleader Madras 1923-27 Acted as a Judge of the Madras High Court in 1927 Appointed Advocate General, Madras in March 1928, Elevated to the Bench as a permanent Judge in December 1928, Member of the Law College Council from 1921, First Chairman of the Madras Bar Council Address Sweta Sadan No 1, Brodies Road Mylapore Madras

ANDERSON, Sir GEORGE, Kt (1924), C.I.E (1920), M.A. (Oxon.) Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, since 1920 & 15 May 1876, m to Gladys Alice Mooney Educ. Winchester College, University College Oxford, Triennial Educational Department, 1908-1910, Indian Educational Service, Professor of History Elphinstone College, Bombay Asst. Secretary, Department of Education,

Government of India Secretary, Calcutta University Commission, 1918-19 Member Enquiry Committee of the Muslim University Aligarh (Oct 1927) Member Education Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission (1928-29) Publications The Expansion of British India British Administration in India, Short History of the British Empire Address Lahore Punjab

ANDREWS, CHARLES FRANK, Professor in the International University of Rabindranath Tagore at Santiniketan, Bengal & 12 February 1871 Educ King Edward's School, Birmingham and Pembroke College, Cambridge Fellow and Lecturer of Pembroke College Cambridge 1899 Professor in St Stephen's College, Delhi, and member of Cambridge University Brotherhood, Fellow and some time member of Syndicate Punjab University from 1904 to 1913 since that date at Santiniketan, Bengal Publications "Christianity and the Labour Problem," "North India," "The Renaissance in India," "Christ and Labour," "The Indian Problem," "Indians in South Africa," "To the Students," "The Drink and Drug Evil" Correspondent, Manchester Guardian Cops Arges, Naval Advertiser Address Santiniketan Bolpur, Bengal

ANKLIKER JA-COL AMIR-UL-UMRA SAHABIR SIR APFAJIRAO SAHIB STOLZ DESHMUKH, SENA HARDOO SAN SHAI, K.B.E (1919), C.I.E (1918) Member of the Gwalior Government in Department of Revenue since 1915 and Vice-President of Council of Regency, (1925) & 1874 Educ. Gwalior, Sec. Secretary to the Maharaja of Gwalior 1897 m, the youngest daughter of the late Maharaja Jayajirao Sahib Scindia of Gwalior Address Gwalior

ANNESLEY, FRANCOIS CHARLES Merchant, Partner Killik Nixon & Co, Bombay & 8 March 1879 Educ at Birkenhead School, Cheshire Joined firm of Killik Nixon of Bombay in 1906 after being engaged in various firms in Liverpool and London from 1895 to 1902 when came out to Bombay to the firm of James MacIntosh & Co Address Pull Mill Bandra, Bombay

ARCOT, PRINCE OF, Sir GHULAM MAHOMMED ALI KHAN BARADUR, G.C.I.E (1917), K.C.I.E (1909) & 23 Feb 1882 m, father, 1908 Premier Mahomedan nobleman of Southern India, being descended from the former Muzumbar dynasty of the Nawabs of the Karnat. Educ Newington Court of Wards Institution, Madras Member of Madras Legislative Council, 1904-6 Member of the Imperial Legislative Council (Mahomedan Electorate) of the Madras Presidency, 1910-13, Member of the Madras Legislative Council by nomination, 1916 President, All India Muslim Association, Lahore, President South India Islamic League, Madras President of All-India Muslim League 1910 Address Amir Mahal Palace, Madras

AROGYASWAMI MUDALIAR, DWAN BABA DUA KATAPURAM NALLAKHERAJ, B.A. B.C.W., Rao Bahadur (1915) and Dwana Bahadur (1925) & 18th April 1870 Educ Madras Christian College and College of Engineering Madras Entered service under Madras

- Government Asst. Engineer in 1896 and retired as Superintending Engineer in 1925 Minister for Public Health and Excise (resigned in March 1928) *Address* Letch Castle, San Thome Mysore
- ASH HERBERT DUDLEY, A.M.I.E.E.**, Director, Turner House & Co., Ltd. & 1879, m. Madeline Edith Ash *Educ.* Halesbury College Attached 20th Lancers 1915-17, Staff Captain Indian Cav. Brigade, 1917-19 Twice mentioned in despatches *Address* C/o Turner House and Co., Ltd. Bombay
- ASTBURY, ARTHUR RALPH, C.I.E.** (1928) Secretary to Government (Electricity) & 5th June 1880 m. to Frieda Hildegard von Schomberg. *Educ.* Westminster and the Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill *Address* 58, Lawrence Road, Lahore and Tottenham Cottage, Stnals, E
- ASTON, ARTHUR HENRY SOUTHCOOTE, M.A.** (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law, (Lincoln's Inn) Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind & 4 July 1874 m. to Lilian, d. of the late Col. A. R. Savile *Educ.* Harrow School Balliol College Oxford Public Prosecutor in Sind, 1906, Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay 1906, Acting additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind, 1920-23 *Publications* Joint Editor, *Starling's Indian Criminal Law* (8th Edition) Editor (8th Edition) *Address* The Ridge, Bath Island, Karachi
- AYANGAR, VALANGMAN KRISHNASWAMI ARAYANUDHA M.A.** (1914), C.I.E. (1928) Secretary Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee & 15th December 1891 d. of Prof. K. R. Ramaswami Aiyangar, Prof. of Mathematics, Engineering College, Madras, *Educ.* Kumbhakam Government College and Madras Presidency College Office of the Accountant General, Madras, Personal Assistant to the Controller of Currency, Calcutta, Asst. Secretary, Finance Department Govt. of India, & Secretary to the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance, Under-Secretary to Govt. of India, Finance Department Member of the Joint Committee on the Reserve Bank of India Bill, Under-Secretary, Commerce Department, Govt. of India Officer on special duty Finance Department Govt. of India and Secretary Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee *Address* 26, Bund Garden Road, Poona
- BABER, SHUN SHEN JANG BARADOOR BANU**, General of the Nepalese Army, G.B.E. (Hon. Mil.) & 1918 K.C.S.I. (Hon.) & 1919, K.C.I.E. (Hon.) & 1918 Hon. Colonel, British Army (1927) & 27 January 1863 2nd s. of His late Highness Hon. General Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung G.O.B., G.O.M.G., G.O.V.O. etc., of Nepal and Her late Highness Rada Maharani Chandra Lokabhatika Laxmi Devi m. 1903 Deva Vajra Lakshmi Devi, 2 s. & 2 d. Director-General, Police Forces Katmandu 1903-1929 was present at the Delhi Coronation Durbar, 1903, visited Europe, 1908, was in charge of shooting arrangements during King George's shoot in Nepal Terai, 1911 attached to the Army Headquarters, India (March 1915 to February 1916) as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingents in India during the Great War (Despatches, specially,

thanks of Commanders-in-Chief in India, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., for Meritorious Service, received the 1st class Order of the Star of Nepal with the title of Supraditya Manyabara, 1915 that thanks of the Nepalese Government and a sword of Honour), European War (Waziristan Field Force, 1917) Despatches, special mention by Commander-in-Chief in India and Governor General in Council, the Nepalese Military Decoration for bravery, the British War and Victory Medals) at Army Headquarters India as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingent during Afghan War, 1919; (Despatches G.B.E., India General Service Medal with Clasp) Represented Nepal at the Northern Command Manoeuvres (Attock, Nov 1925) In memory of his son Bala Shum Shere supplied (1921) Pokhara a hill-station in Nepal, with pipe drinking water at a cost of over Rs 1,00,000 *Address* Beber Mahal Katmandu Nepal, was India

BAGCHI, SATBORANTRA, B.A. LL.D. Barrister-at-Law Principal, University Law College Calcutta & Jan 1882 *Educ.* Santipur Municipal School, Calcutta, St John's College, Cambridge B.A., Calcutta University, 1901, B.A. LL.B. Cambridge Dublin, LL.D., Trinity College Dublin 1907 Fellow Calcutta University, 1909 Tagore Professor of Law, 1915 called to Bar, Gray's Inn, 1907 *Address* Principal's Quarters Darbhanga Buildings University Law College Calcutta

BAIG, SIR ABAS ALI, K.C.I.E. (1917), K.C.S.I. (1912) B.A. LL.D. Fellow of the Bombay University m. 1st Ayesha d. of Shaikh Mira of Wai (died) one s. 2nd 1901 Alia, d. of Shaikh Ali Abdulla & s. *Educ.* Wilson College Dy. Educational Inspector, Hindustani Schools Bombay Presidency 1882, Dewan Janjira State, March 1886 to March 1890 admitted to the Statutory Civil Service 1890 Asst. Coll. and Magte, 1890-92, on special duty in the Junagadh State January to April 1898, off as Presidency Magte April 1898 appointed Oriental Translator to Government, June 1898, Reporter on the Native Press, Registrar of Indian Publications, Secretary, Civil and MH Examination Boards 1894-1906 appointed Dewan of Junagadh State, July 1906 to 1910, Tankdari Settlement Officer, July 1906 Member of the Council of India, June 1910-17, LL.D., Glasgow, 1912, Commissioner of Income-tax, 1912-17, Represented Bombay Univ. at the Congress of Universities of Empire, 1912 on Special Political duty in Egypt in connection with the war, 1914-15 Vice-President, Council of India, 1915-17 Revenue and Finance Member, Baroda, retired in 1921 *Address* Panchgani The Paragon, Clifton Bristol, England

BAJPAT, GIRJA SHANKAR B.A. (Oxon.), B.Sc. (Allahabad) C.B.E. (Civil), 1922, C.I.E. 5 July 1923, I.C.S., Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands & 2 April 1891 *Educ.* Muir Central College, Allahabad and Martin College, Oxford Appointed to the I.C.S. in November 1915, Asst. Magistrate and Collector, United Provinces, 1915-1919 Under-Secretary to Government, United

- Provinces, 1920-21 Private Secretary to the Rt. Hon V S Srinivasa Sastri and Secretary for India at Imperial Conference 1921 and at Conference for Limitation of Armaments, Washington 1921-22, on deputation to the dominions of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand to investigate the status of Indians resident in those territories, 1922 Under Secretary to the Government of India, Dept. of Education Health and Lands 1923 officiating Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1924 Secretary to the Indian deputation to South Africa, 1925-26 Deputy Secretary to the Government of India June 1926 Address Pentland Sims
- BAJPAL, PANDIT SANKATA PRASADA** Rai Bahadur B.A., Zemindar and Banker b Nov 18 1886 m Shrinati Sumitran Devi Educ. Canning College, Lucknow Ewing Christian College Allahabad and University School of Law Allahabad Elected Member Benares Hindu University in 1917 Elected Hon Secy, Kheri Dist Board, 1918, appointed Hon Magistrate, 1918 Elected Chair man, Lakhimpur Municipality 1919 and Member of the Imperial Legislative Assembly 1920 Address Lakhimpore, Kheri (Oudh)
- BAKER, JOHN ALFRED, C.I.E** Chief Engineer, P W D Central Provinces b 14 May 1882 m Dorothy Austine Frideaux Educ Royal Indian Engineering College Cooper's Hill Government Service since 1904 Address Nagpur, C.P.
- BALKRISHNA, DR. M.A., Ph D, F.S.S** F.R.E.S., Principal and Prof. of Economics, Rajaram College and Inspector of Secondary Education Kolhapur b 22nd December 1882 m. Miss Dayabai Malasy, B P N A Educ Govt. High School, Multan, D A V College and Government College, Lahore School of Economics and Politics London Was Principal and Governor of Gurukul University, Haridwar for one year Vice-Principal for six years and Professor of History and Economics for 11 years Became Principal Rajaram College, 1922 Director of Economic Bureau, President, Kolhapur Scout Association, Chairman, Secondary Teachers Association, President, Technical School Col Woodhouse Orphanage A V Free School; Member, State Panchayat Publications (in English) Commercial Relations between India and England (1924) The Industrial Decline in India, Demands of Democracy (1925) Hindu Philosophers on Evolution (Shiva) the Great (in Hindi) Seven books on History, Economics, Politics and Religion, History of India (in Marathi) Address Shahupuri, Kolhapur
- BALRAMPUR, MAHARAJA PATTABHAWI PRASAD SINGH SAHNS**, minor under guardianship of the Court of Wards, United Provinces b 2 Jan 1914 Address Balrampur
- BANATVALA, COL SIR HORMANSEN EDULJEK** Kt. (1920), C.S.I., 1917 I.M.S. (ret'd.) b 20 Oct 1859 First Commission, 1884, military duty until 1893, served Burma 1896-99, Medal with 2 clasps, Lunah Expedition 1891-92 Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons, Assam, 1914-19 Address Mount Villas Bandra, Bombay
- BANERJEE, MAHENDRANATH, C.I.E** (1921) B A (Cal), M R.C.S. (England) L.S.A. (London) Prince Carmichael Medical Coll Calcutta since 1916 b Sept 1854, Educ. Frey Coll St Xavier's Coll and Medical Coll, Calcutta, Edinburgh Univ., and King's Coll, London Resident Medical Officer, R. Free Hospital London 1883-85 Lecturer of Medicine Calcutta Med Sch 1890-1915 Additional Member, Imp Leg Council 1918, Senior Physician Albert Victor Hospital, 1900-19 Consulting Physician since 1919 Member of the State Med Faculty of Bengal Fellow and Member of Senate of Calcutta Univ Member of Sanitary Conference, Simla, 1919, President, Ayurvedic Committee lately appointed by Government of Bengal Address 22, Theatre Road, Calcutta
- BANERJEE, RAI BAHADUR SARAT CHANDRA** M.A., B.L., J.L., C.I.F. Advocate High Court Calcutta b 8rd October 1870 Srimati Usha Devi Educ. Presidency College Calcutta and the Metropolitan Institution (Law) Lecturer in Mathematics, Physics History and Political Economy Free Church of Scotland Institution Duff College 1892 Vakil High Court 1893-1907 Legal Assistant Legislative Department Govt of India 1907-14 President Calcutta Improvement Trust, 1914-1920 Address 20 Sasitalla Road Narikeldanga Calcutta
- BANERJI SIR ALMOND RAJESWAR Kt** (1925), I.C.S. C.S.I. (1921) C.I.E. (1911), b Bristol 10 Oct 1871, m 1898 d of Sir Krishna Gupta Educ. Calcutta University, Balliol College, Oxford M.A. 1892 Entered I.C.S. 1893 served as district officer in the Madras Presidency Diwan to H H the Maharaja of Cochin, 1907-14 reverted to British service 1915, Collector and District Magistrate Cuddapah services placed at the disposal of Government of India, Foreign Department for employment as Member of the Executive Council of H H the Maharaja of Mysore March 1916 Officiated as Dewan of Mysore, 1919 Retired from the I.C.S. Diwan of Mysore, 1922-25 Foreign Minister, Kashmir 1927-29 Awarded I Class title 'Rajamantradhurina' of Gandabherunda Order, with Khilats by H H the Maharaja in open Durbar Oct 1923 Address C/o Coutts and Co 440 Strand, London, W C 2
- BANERJI, SUKUMAR, B.A.**, Assistant Commissioner of Police in charge of North Suburbs, Calcutta b 5 October 1880 m to Subhasini eldest d of late Kumar Satyewar Ghosal of Bhukatesh Raj Educ St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, Law class Government College, Krishnagar Bengal Police Training School, obtained First Prize in Law in the Final Examination of the Police Training School. Joined Calcutta Police in 1907, has been on several occasions especially mentioned in the Annual Administration Reports of the Calcutta Police. Address Police Headquarters, Lal Bazar, Calcutta.
- BAPNA WARS-ED-DOWLA RAI BAHADUR S M.**, B.A., B.Sc., LL.B. Prime Minister to His Highness the Maharaja Holkar b 24th April 1882 m Shreemati Anand Kumari, d of the late Mehta Bhopal Singh, Dewan of Udaipur Educ. at Maharaja High School, Udaipur.

- Govt College, Ajmer, and Muir Central College, Allahabad. For about a year practised law in Ajmer Merwar, served in Mewar for about a year and a half as Judicial Officer, appointed District and Sessions Judge in the Indore State in Jan 1907. In 1908 was appointed Law Tutor to H. H. Maharaja Tukojirao Holkar III, appointed His Highness Second Secretary in 1911 and First Secretary in 1913, appointed Home Minister in 1915 retired on special pension in April 1921, joined Patiala State as Minister and remained there till August 1923, rejoined Holkar State Service as Home Minister in 1923 soon after appointed Deputy Prime Minister and President of the Appeal Committee of the Cabinet. In February 1924 was appointed Prime Minister and President of the Cabinet. Address: Indore, C. I.
- BARIA, MAJOR (HON.) HIR HIRSHAN MAHARAJA SHRI SIR RAJGITSINGJI, RAJA OF K.C.S.I. (1922) b 10 July 1886, two s one d. Educ. Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Imperial Cadet Corps Dehra Dun, and in England. Served in European War, 1914-15 and in the Afghan War, 1919. Received a salute of eleven guns. Address: Devgad, Baria, (Baria State Rajy.)**
- BARKER, JOHN STAFFORD M.V.O. (1911), P.W. Member and Chief Engineer Holkar State b 6 Sept 1879 as Mary Gertrude only d of the late H. L. Moysey, I.S.O., Ceylon. Civil Service. Educ. Bedford School and Royal Military Academy Commissioned in Royal Engineers, 1898 retired as Lt Col March 1923. Electrical Engineer Delhi Durbar 1911, Chief Engineer, Holkar State 1912 to 1915, 1919-1922 and since February 1923. Served in Mesopotamia 1915 to fall of Kut-el Amara, April 1916, mentioned in despatches for defence of Kut-el Amara. Was C.B.E. Quetta for three and a half years before retirement from the Army. Address: Indore, Central India.**
- BARNE, REV. CANON GEORGE DUNFORD, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1923) O.B.E. (1916), V.D. (1924), Principal, Lawrence Royal Military School, Secawar, and Chaplain, Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment Canon of Lahore Cathedral b May 6, 1879 as Dorothy Kate Alverman. Educ. Clifton College and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Asst. Master, Summerfields, Oxford, 1902-06. Curate of Christ Church Simla, 1906-10. Chaplain of Sialkot, 1910. Chaplain of Hyderabad, Sind, 1911, and Asst. Chaplain of Karachi, 1911-12. Address: Secawar, Simla Hills.**
- BARODA, H. H. MAHARAJA GANAKAR SRS SATYAJI RAO III, G.O.B.I. (1891) G.O.B.E. (1919), L.L.D. (1924), Benares Hindu University, Sans. Khaskhel Samahar Bahadur Farmand I Khan-i Dowlat-i Ingilishia b 10th March 1863 as 1st, 1880, Chinnabai Sahab of the house of Tanore (d 1885), 2nd, 1885, Chinnabai Sahab II of the house of Dewas C.I. 4 s 2d of whom 12 1d survive. Educ. Maha raja's School, Baroda. Succeeded 1875. Invested with powers 1881. Publications: "From Caesar to Sultan", "Famine Notes", "Speeches". Address: Baroda.**
- BARRON, CLAUDE ALEXANDER, C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. (1911) C.V.O. (1922) F.R.G.S. Revenue Minister, Bahawalpur State b 22 December 1871 s of Col. W. Barron, B.S.C. m 1912, Ida Mary s d of Major-General Sir R. H. Ewart, K.C.M.G., C.B. one s Educ. Grammar School and University Aberdeen. Clare College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1890. Chief Secretary, Punjab Government 1912-16, Chief Commissioner, Delhi, 1916-24. Financial Commissioner, Punjab, 1924-27. Address: Bahawalpur, Punjab.**
- BARTHE, ET REY, JEAN MARIE, Bishop of Parais since 1914 b. Longman, Tarbo 1849, Educ. St. Pe. Seminary Bishop of Trichinopoly, 1890-1914. Address: Shembaganur, Madras Presidency.**
- BARUARAI BHARADUR DEVICHARAN, B.A., B.L. M.L.A., The Planter b 1894 Educ. City College, Presidency College and the General Assembly's Institution, Calcutta. Joined the Bar in 1885 and taking to tea plantation and having acquired 8 tea gardens at Jorhat retired from the Bar in 1917, Secretary, Jorhat Sarawati Sabha for nearly 1 1/2 years since 1890. Elected member of the Indian Legislative Assembly 1921. Hon. Magistrate Jorhat Bench. Address: Jorhat, Assam.**
- BATLEY, CLAUDE, A.R.I.B.A. Professor of Architecture, Bombay School of Art, also Member of Messrs. Gregson, Batley and King, Chartered Architects b Oct. 1879 Educ. at Queen Elizabeth's School, Ipswich. Articled in Ipswich, Practised in Kettering, Northants and in London up to 1918 and in Bombay thereafter. Publications: Sanitary articles and papers both in England and India on architectural subjects. Address: School of Art, or Chartered Bank Building, Bombay.**
- BEADON, DR. MARY, M.B.B.S. (Lond.) Kaiser I Hind Second Class (1920), Principal Lady Hardinge College, New Delhi w to R. C. Beadon, K.C.B.G. Educ. at London (Royal Free Hospital) School of Medicine for Women. Joined W.M.S. in 1914 in charge Dufferin Hospital, Lucknow 1909-1913. Superintendent Women's Medical School, Agri, 1913-1920. Superintendent Government Victoria Hospital, Madras and Lady Willington Medical School for Women, Madras 1921-1920, Principal Lady Hardinge Medical College, New Delhi, June 1890. Address: Lady Hardinge College, New Delhi.**
- BEAUMONT, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE JOHN WILLIAM FEMER, M.A. (Cambridge) King's Counsel, 1890. Chief Justice of Bombay b 4th September 1857 as Mabel Edith s of William Wallace (deceased) Educ. Winchester and Pembroke College Cambridge. Called to Bar by Lincoln's Inn 1901, practised at the Chancery Division. Address: Coleborne Court, Barkness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.**
- BEAZLEY, JOHN GODFREY, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1922), b 9th February 1886 as Roberts, 3rd s of the late David Mitchell, Esq., J.P., of Palomont, Shillingbury. Educ. Rugby and Trinity College Oxford, Arrived in Punjab 1908 and served as Asst. Commissioner and Deputy**

- Commissioner, Colonization Officer Lower Barf Doab Colony, 1918-20 Additional Dy Secretary Government of India, Department of Commerce 1920-21 Offg Director of Industries, Punjab 1922-23 Secretary to Government Punjab Transferred Departments 1924-28 Offg Chief Secretary to Government Punjab 1928-29 Publications Municipal, Law and Practice in the Punjab The Punjab Colony Manual (with T. H. Puckle, I.C.S.) Address Punjab Secretariat, Lahore
- BEDI RAJA SIE BABA GURBUX SINGH** Kt & 1916, K.B.E. (1920) C.I.E. 1911 Hon Extra Asst Commissioner in the Punjab & 1961 A Fellow of the Punjab and Hindu Universities was a delegate to the Indo-Afghan Peace Conference in 1919 Address Kallar Punjab
- BELI ROBERT DUNCAN** (I.E. (1910) Chief Secretary to Government of Bombay & 8 May 1878 Educ. Heriot's School, Edinburgh and Edinburgh University m. Jessie d. of D. Spence Esq. Appointed I.C.S. Bombay 1902 Secretary, Indian Industrial Commission 1915-17 Controller, Industrial Intelligence 1917-18 Controller, Oils and Paints 1918-19 Director of Industries, Bombay 1919-24 Secretary to Government, Development Department and Commissioner Bombay Suburban Division, 1924-30 Address C/o Grindlay & Co. Bombay
- BELVALKAR SHRIDH KRISHNA** M.A., Ph.D. (Harvard Univ.), I.E.S., Professor of Sanskrit, Deccan College, Poona & 11 Dec 1881 Educ. Rajaram College, Kolhapur and Deccan College, Poona and at Harvard, U.S.A. Joined Bombay Educational Department 1907 Prof. Deccan College since 1914 one of the principal founders of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute and at present its Hon. Secretary. Also Hon. Secretary Poona Sanskrit College Association and Joint Secretary All-India Oriental Conference Publications: 'History of Systems of Sanskrit Grammar', Edition and translation of Bhavabhuti's 'Later History of Rama' in the Harvard Oriental Series English translation of Kavyadarsa Critical edition of Brahmasutra-bhashya with Notes and translation Basu Mallik Lectures on Vedanta Philosophy, Calcutta University 1925 and (in collaboration with Prof. Banerjee) History of Indian Philosophy, Vol. 2 (out of the 8 projected) several papers contributed to Oriental Journals or presented to the Oriental Conference, and other learned Societies Address: Bivakumja, Bhambarua Poona, No. 4
- BENARES H. H. SIE PRANSHU NARAYAN SINGH, MAHARAJA BHADUR OF** Lt. COL. L.L.D. G.C.I.E. (1896), G.O.B.I. (1921), & 20 November 1858 & uncle 1889 Address Fort, Ramnagar, Benares State
- BENJAMIN, VEN T. KURUVILLA B.A.** Archdeacon of Kottayam since July 1922 Formerly Incumbent of Pro-Cathedral Kottayam 1895-1922 Acting Principal, C.M.I. Kottayam 1912-13 Surrogate, 1922 Bishop Commissary, 1923 Publications (in Malayalam) Notes on the Epistles to the Hebrews Notes on the Epistles to the Thessalonians Devotional Study of the Bible Editor of Treasury of Knowledge Family Bread Address Kottayam
- BENNETT GEORGE EMMET** M.Sc., M. Inst. C.E., M.I.M.E., Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust & 1884 m. Frances Sophia Bennett Educ. Stockport Grammar School, Manchester University Assistant Engineer (Bridges), G.I.P. 1910-1916 Port Engineer Chittagong 1916-1919 Ex Engineer Calcutta Port Trust, 1919-24 Senior Executive Engineer, Calcutta Port Trust, 1924-26 Deputy Chief Engineer Bombay Port Trust 1926-30 Chief Engineer 1930 Address Bombay Port Trust, Bombay
- BENZIGER RT. REV. ALOYSIUS MARY, O.O.D.** Bishop of Quilon since 1905 & Einsiedeln Switzerland 1864 Educ. Frankfurt Brussels Downside Came to India, 1890 Bishop of Tabre 1900 Assistant to the Pontifical Roman Court, 1922 Address Bishop's House Quilon, Travancore
- BERKELEY HILL, LA. COL. OWEN ALFRED HOWLAND** M.A. M.D. Ch.B. (Oxon), M.R.C.S. (Eng.) L.R.C.P. (Lon) I.M.S. Medical Superintendent European Mental Hospital Ranchi & 22 Dec 1879 m. Kunhi many d. of Kellary Ramnath Educ. at Rugby School Universities of Oxford and Gottingen and University College Hospital London Entered Indian Medical Service in 1907 Served throughout Great War (East Africa Campaign), Mentioned in Despatches Publications: Numerous articles in scientific journals Address Kanke (P.O.), Ranchi Bihar and Orissa
- BERIHOUED EDWARD HENRY B.A. (Oxon)** 1898 Member Council of State and Commissioner of Bihar and Inspector-General of Registration, Bihar and Orissa & 13 Sept 1876 m. Phyllis Hamilton Cox Educ. at Uppingham and New College Oxford Asst. Magte. Joint Magte. and Collector in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa since 1900 Address Latna
- BESANT, ANNIE**, President, Theosophical Society and of National Home Rule League author and lecturer on religious philosophical, political and scientific subjects & 1 October 18-7 d. of William Page Wood and Emily, d. of James Morris m. 1867 Rev. Frank Besant (d. 1917), Vicar of St. Mary, Littlemore legally separated from him 1873 once one d. Educ. privately in England, Germany France, joined the National Secular Society 1874 worked in the Free Thought and Radical Movement led by Charles Bradlaugh, M.P., was co-editor with him of the National Reformer Member of the Fabian Society Member of the London School Board 1887-90, joined the Theosophical Society in 1889 became a pupil of Mme. Blavatsky elected its President in 1907, 1914 1921 and 1928 Founded 1898 the Central Hindu College at Benares, 1904, the Central Hindu Girls' School, Benares is on Court Council and Senate of Benares Hindu University and on Council and Senate of the National Univ., given Hon. D.L. Benares Hindu Univ., 1921 in recognition of unique services, Elected President of the Indian National Congress, 1917-18 Secretary of All Parties Conference (Auxiliary Madras) Editor of The Theosophist, monthly The Adyar Bulletin, monthly, and Editor of New India, daily and weekly Address Adyar, Madras

BRABHA, HORMASJI JHAWAIR, M.A., D Litt
J.P. C.I.E. Hon. Pres. Magis. Director of
Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co.
Member of Council of the Indian Institute
of Science Bangalore. Deputed as a delegate
to the Congress of Imperial Universities 1926
by the Universities of Bombay and Mysore.
b 27 June 1852 m. Miss Jerud Edaljee Bati
wala Educ. Elphinstone College and in Eng-
land Asst. Professor, Elphinstone College,
1874-76, Vice-Principal and Professor of Logic
and Ethics Central College, Bangalore 1876
Principal, Maharaja's College, Mysore, 1884,
Education Secretary to Government, Mysore
1890 Inspector General of Education in
Mysore 1895 1909, Manir-ul Talim (Mysore)
1909 Pub. Special Report on Manual
Training in Schools of General Education
Report on the Education of Parsi Boys 1920
a Visit to Australian Universities 1923, a Visit
to British Universities 1926 Modern Crema-
tion and Parnes, 1922 Address Malakoff
Lodge Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill
Bombay 6

BHABHUN SINGHI BAHADUR, COLONEL
MAHARAJ SRI SIR, K.C.S.I., b 15th
September 1879 Educ. Mayo College Ajmer
Appointed Companion to H.H. the Maharaja,
1895, and accompanied His Highness in his
Indian Tour in 1896 Appointed Member of
State Council 1898 and was from time to
time Personal Secretary to His Highness
Senior Member of Council and Secretary for
Foreign and Political Department, Mahkma
Khas Foreign Member of Council Political
Member Vice-President of State Council
and the last Cabinet Is Hon. Col. of the
Saddi Light Infantry and Personal A.D.C.
to the Maharaja Publications Bhairavbilas
and Baskhinoth Address Bikaner

BRANDARI, SRI GOPAL DAS, KT, RAJ
BAHADUR (1907), Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal
(1918), M.B.E. (1919), C.I.E. (1921),
M.L.C. (1924) Advocate High Court b Jun
1859 Educ. Government College, Lahore-
elected Member, Amritsar Municipal Com-
mittee, 1889 1902 Non-Instituted member, 1902,
to the present date. Chairman, Finance
Committee for 30 years First non-official
President, Municipal Com., elected March
1921 elected second time June 1922
Member, Sanitary Board Punjab, 11 years
Member All India Sanitary Conference
Punjab, Madras, and Lucknow Special
Comm. twice, Lahore Conspiracy cases, 1916
17 Member Imperial Police Selection Board,
October 1922 President, Hindu Sabha,
Amritsar His Majesty's Guest, Delhi Durbar,
1911 Member Executive Committee D.A.V.
College Lahore Chairman, Board of Directors,
Punjab National Bank Member and Punjab
representative, Imperial Malaria Conference,
September 1908 President Managing Coun-
cil, Hindu College Amritsar, Provincial
Durbar, 1912 15, elected for the third
time President Municipal Committee, Amrit-
sar, May 1925 Publications Malaria
Booklet, 1908 Town-planning, Milk Sani-
tary Conditions in boys' and girls' schools in
India, etc Address President, Municipal
Committee Amritsar

BHARATPUR, MAHARAJA OF, HIS HIGHNESS
SRI MAHARAJA BRIJENDRA SAWAI BRIJENDRA
SINGH BAHADUR, BAHADUR TUNO b 1st
December 1918 s. of Ident. Col. His Late
Highness Maharaja SRI KISHEN Singh BABA
DUA K.C.S.I. Address Bharatpur Raj-
putana

BHARGAVA, RAJ BAHADUR, PANDIT JAWAHAR
LAL, B.A. LL.B. Advocate, High Court, La-
hore b 1st Oct 1870 m. s. of L. Madan Lal,
Bhargava of Bewari Educ. Shra M.B. School,
Bewari M.B. School Lahore Mission Coll.,
Lahore Government Coll. and Law School
President, Bar Assocn, Hissar, got Durbar
Medal and War Loan Medal acted as Sec-
retary, India War Relief Fund The Aeroplane
Fleet Fund, King Edward Memorial Fund
was elected member Punjab Legislative
Council, 1916 20 and Legislative Assembly
1921-23 Life member St John Ambulance
Association and Chairman, District Centre
at Hissar Address Hissar (Punjab)

BHATE, GOVIND CHIMRAJ M.A. (Bom)
b 19 Sept. 1870 Widower Educ. Deccan
College Professor in Ferguson College
Poona, from 1895 Publications Principles
of Economics Distant Travels, Lectures on
Sociology, Carlyle Three Philosophers, Philo-
sophy of the Fine Arts (All in Marathi)
Speeches and Essays (in English) Kant and
Shankaracharya (in Marathi) Address
Mahad District Kolaba

BHAVNAGAR, H. II MAHARAJA KRISHNA
KUMAR SINGHI, MAHARAJA OF, b 19th May
1912, s. father Lt-Col H. H. Maharaja Sir
Bhavsinhji Takhtsinhi, K.C.S.I., July
1919 Educ. Harrow England. Address
Bhavnagar Kathiawar

BHOPAL, H. H. ALEXANDER SAULAT NAWAB
FATEKHARUL MULK SIR MOHAMMAD HAMID-
UL-KHAN, NAWAB OF G.C.I.B. (1922) C.S.I.
(1921) O.V.O. (1922) b 9th Dec 1894 is
the ruler of the second most important Moha-
medan State of India m. 1905 Her Highness
Maluona Sultan Shah Banoo Begam Sahiba
succeeded in 1926 mother Her Highness
Nawab Sultan Jaham Begam, G.C.S.I. G.C.I.E.
O.J. G.B.E. Has three daughters the oldest
of whom Nawab Goshare Taj Alida Sultan
Begam is the heiress presumptive Address
Bhopal, Central India

BHOEN SIR JOSEPH WILLIAM, K.C.I.E. C.B.E.
(1920) C.I.E. (1925) I.C.S. Member
Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of
Industries and Labour, b 6th April 1878,
m. to Margaret Wilkie Scott M.B. Ch. B.
(St Andrews) M.B.E. Educ. Deccan Col-
lege Poona, and University College
London Under Secy Govt of Madras 1916
Dewan of Cochin State, 1914-1919,
Dy. Director of Civil Supplies, 1919 Secre-
tary to the High Commr for India, London,
1920, As. High Commr for India in the
United Kingdom 1922-1923 Secretary to
Government of India, Department of Educa-
tion, Health and Lands, 1924 and Ag. Member,
Viceroy's Executive Council November 1926
to July 1927 Secretary to Govt of India,
Dep't of Education Health and Land Records
(on deputation with the Statutory Commis-
sion on Indian Reforms, 1928-30 Address
Windcliffe Simla and c/o The National
Bank of India, Madras

BHUTTO KHAN BAHADUR SIR SHAK NAWAZ
O.B.E. (1919) K.I.R. (1924), C.I.E. (1925) Kt.
(1930), President, District Local Board
and M.L.C. Bombay Council Chairman
Co-operative Bank, District Larkana,
First Class Special Magistrate and Chairman,
Bombay Provincial Committee, Zamindar
Landlord and President, Sind Mahomedan
Association, 5 1st March 1888 Educ
Sind Madrasah and St Patrick High School
Karachi Address: Bhutto Colony, Larkana

BIKANER, MAHARAJAH OF, MAJOR-GENERAL
H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR
NARENDRA SHIVOMANI MAHARAJAH SRI SIR
GANGA SINGHJI BAHADUR G.C.S.I. cr 1911,
G.C.I.E. cr 1907, K.C.S.I. cr 1904 K.O.
I.E. cr 1901 G.C.V.O. cr 1910 G.B.E.
(Military Division) 1921 K.C.B. cr 1918
A.D.C., Grand Cordon of the Order of the
Nile, cr 1918, Hon LL.D. Cambridge
and Edinburgh, Donat of the Order of St
John of Jerusalem in England, son of
Maharaj Sri Lal Singhji Bahadur and adopted
son of his own elder brother His late Highness
Maharaj Sri Durgar Singhji Bahadur
born 3 October 1880 educated at the Mayo
College Ajmer m 1897 is one of the Ruling
Princes of India (succeeded 31st August 1887)
and is entitled to a salute of 19 Guns Two
sons, one daughter one grandson one
grand-daughter Invested with full
ruling powers, 1898, granted Hon Commission
of Major in the British Army, 1900, and
attached to 2nd Bengal Lancers, promoted,
14-July, 1909-Col, 1910 Major-General, 1917
served with British Army in China in command
of Bikaner Camel Corps, 1901, (medal dec
patches, K.C.I.E.), served European War
1914-15 in France and in Egypt (despatches
France and Egypt K.C.B.) Major-General
1914 Bronze Star Grand Cordon of the Order
of the Nile G.B.E. (Military Division) Award
ed gold medal (1st Class) of Kaiser i Hind for
public service in India during Great Famine
of 1899-1900, attended the Coronation of
King Edward VII 1902, and of King George
V 1911, Hon A.D.C. to H.R.H. the
Prince of Wales, 1902 A.D.C. to H.I.M.
the King Emperor since 1910 Was selected
as one of the three Representatives of India
at the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference,
1917 Received the Freedom of the Cities
of London, Edinburgh, Manchester and
Bristol Was selected again as one of the
two Representatives of India at the Im
perial War Cabinet and the Peace Conference
1919 Elected Chancellor of the Chamber
of Princes, 1921, and re-elected in 1922
and continued as such in 1923 and 1924
Represented the Ruling Princes of India for
the third time at the Assembly of the League
of Nations, 1924 Is a Patron of the Benares
Hindu University and Sri Bharat Dharm
Mahamandal, Benares a Vice President
of the East India Association London,
the Royal Colonial Institute, London, the
Indian Gymkhana Club, London, the Indian
Army Temperance Association, Simla,
a member of the General Council of
the Mayo College, Ajmer and of the Managing
Committee, Mayo College, General Council,
Daly Coll, Indore, the first Member of the
Indian Red Cross Society, the Benares Hindu

University Court Is a Freemason, Past
Master of Lodge Rajputana, 'Abu a past Dy
Dist. Grand Master of the Dist. Grand Lodge
Bombay, Founder and Scribe E of the Royal
Arch Chapter 'Sir Ganga Singh,' Abu
holds the rank of the Past District Grand
Scribe Nehemiah in the Dist. Grand Chapter
of Bombay Mem of Royal Arch Chapter
Ajmer and the Phulkian Lodge, Faisla
Haw Apparent Captain Maharaj Kumar Sri
Rajul Singhji Bahadur, C.V.O. b 7 Septem
ber 1902, second son Maharaj Sri Bijoy Singhji
Bahadur b 29 March 1909 Grandson
Bhanwarji Sri Karni Singhji Bahadur b
21 April 1924 Address Bikaner
Rajputana

BILIMORIA, ARDASHER JAMSETJEE B.A.
b 18 September 1864 Educ Chandanwady
High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay
Joined Messrs Tata in 1884 Retired
1921 Address C/o Dr Modi, Coopersage, Fort,
Bombay

BILIMORIA, SIR SHAPORJEE BOMONJEE
Kt. (1928) M.B.E. J.I. Partner in the
firm of S. B. Bilimoria & Co Accountants
and Auditors b 27 July 1877 m Jirbal, d
of Dilraj N Dalal (1906) Educ St Xavier's
College Honorary Presidency Magistrate
Member Auditors Council Bombay Member
of the City of Bombay Improvement Trust
Committee Vice-President Indian Merchants
Chamber 1928-27 President Indian Mer
chants Chamber 1927-28 Member Govern
ment of India Back Bay Inquiry Committee,
1927-28 President Indian Chamber of
Commerce in Great Britain 1928-20 Ad
dress 14 Cuffe Parade Colaba Bombay

BINNING, SIR ARTHUR WILLIAM Kt. (1916)
Merchant in Rangoon b 6 August 1881
s of Robert Binning Glasgow unmarried
Educ Glasgow Academy Address Rangoon

BINKING, DOUGLAS BETH, M.A., LL.B.
Barrister b 29 Nov 1869 m. Mrs Berne
Educ Glasgow Academy Glasgow and
Cambridge Universities Practised in the
Bombay High Court for 32 years. Publications
The Little Hill Station and numerous
articles. Address High Court Bombay

BISWAS CHAND CHANDRA, J.S. of late Anantosh
Biswas. Public Prosecutor 24 Parganas,
M.A. B.L. Advocate Calcutta High Court
b April 21 1888 m Sm Subashini Biswas
d of Mr S. C. Mallik. Educ Hindu School,
Presidency College, Ripon Law College En
rolled Yakkil High Court, April 18 1910,
Advocate, November, 1924, Ordinary Fellow
Calcutta University and Member of the Syn
dicate, 1917-22, again from 1922, member of
Dacca Board of Secondary Education 1921
22, again 1928-29 Professor University Law
College, 1918-21, Commissioner Calcutta
Corporation, 1921-24 and again Councillor,
Calcutta Corporation since 1925 Member
Calcutta Improvement Trust since 1923,
Secy, Bhawanipore Bistapayan Association,
Founder Secy, South Suburban College
1916-21, Secy, South Suburban School,
Main and Branch, and St. Boniface, Mitter
Girls School Member of Governing Bodies of
University Law College, Ripon College, An
antosh College Member of Committee of Indian
Association, was member of Council and for a
short time Secretary, National Liberal League

- Bengal. Unsuccessfully contested in Liberal interests once for Indian Legislative Assembly (1920), and twice for Bengal Legis. Council (1924 and 1926), from Calcutta constituencies. Address 58, Puddupukur Road, Bowbazar, Calcutta.
- BLAIR, ANDREW JAMES FRASER** Founded the Eastern Bureau, Limited, Calcutta, 1912, late Editor and Managing Director. The Empire Commerce. The Empire Gazette (daily and weekly newspapers published in Calcutta) & Dingwall, Ross-shire, 20 September, 1872, & of late Andrew Blair, Rector, Dingwall Burgh School, and Mary Ann Campbell & of late Thomas Duff Glasgow m. 1900, Constance, & of Thomas Ibbotson, one & one & of late Glasgow High School. Engaged in journalism since 1890. Retired as Asst. Editor, *The Statesman*, 1930. Address Bengal Club, Calcutta.
- BLATTER, TERN RAY** ESTABLISHED S. J. Ph. D. & 15 Dec. 1877. Educ. in Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France, England. Joined the Society of Jesus in 1896. Professor of Botany, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, since 1903. Principal of the same College from 1919-1924, Fellow and Syndic of the Bombay University since 1919. Publications: Bibliography of Indian Botany, The Ferns of Bombay, Natural Orders in Botany, The Palms of British India and Ceylon, The Flora of Aden, The Flora of the Indian Desert, Flora Arabica Flowering Season and Climate, Contributions to the Flora of Baluchistan, Biologie der Palmen der Alten Welt, Revision of the Bombay Flora, Flora of the Indus Delta, Beautiful Flowers of Kashmir, numerous botanical papers in English and German Scientific Journals. Address Panchgani.
- BLENKINSOP, EDWARD ROBERT KAY**, C.I.E. (1911), Settlement Commissioner Jaipur, 1922 & 15 May 1871, & of Col. Blenkinsop, m. Florence Edith, & of late Sir Stanley Linsay, K.C.B.I., three & Educ. St. Paul's School, Christ's College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S., 1890. Settlement Office, 1897, Deputy Commissioner, 1902, Kaiser-i-Hind Medal, 1903, Commissioner of Excise, 1906, Chief Secretary to Chief Commissioner, 1912 & Commissioner 1916. Address Jaipur, Rajasthan.
- BLUNT, LINDEN**, Solicitor & 29 Dec. 1876 m. Kathleen, 2nd & of the late Dr. Thornton of Margate. Educ. Rugby. Senior partner in Crangle Blunt and Cores. Address 50, Peckham Road, Bombay.
- BOAG, GEORGE TOWNSEND, M. A.** (Cambridge), C.I.E. (1928), I.C.S. Additional Secretary to the Government of Madras & November 12 1884. Educ. Westminster (1897 to 1903) and Trinity College, Cambridge, (1903 to 1907). Passed into the I.C.S. in 1907 and joined the Service in Madras in 1908. Address Madras City, Madras.
- BOILKAU, COLONEL COMMANDANT GUY HAMILTON, C.B.** (1918), C.M.G. (1917), D.S.O. (1915), Chief Engineer, Western Command & 27 Sep. 1870, m. Violet Mary (Ferguson). Educ. Christ's Hospital, R.M.A., Woolwich. Active Service W. Africa, 1895, Chitral Relief, 1895, China, 1899, Great War France, 1914-19, Afghan War, 1919. Address Quetta.
- BOMBAY, BISHOP OF, See Acland, Rt. Rev. Richard Dyke**
- BOSE, SIR RUPN KRISHNA, K.C.I.E.** (1920) Kt. & 1907 C.I.E., 1898 M.A. Advocate in the Central Provinces and Vice-Chancellor of the Nagpur University & 1851. Address Nagpur, C.P.
- BOSE, SIR JAGADIS CHANDRA, Kt.** & 1917, C.I.E., 1908, C.S.I., 1911, M.A. (Cambr.), D.Sc. (Lond.), LL.D., F.R.S., Professor Emeritus of the Presidency College, Calcutta, Founder Director of Bose Research Institute, & 20 Nov. 1858, Educ. Calcutta, Christ's College, Cambridge, Delegate to International Scientific Congress, Paris, 1900, scientific member of deputations to Europe and America, 1907, 1914 and 1919. Published series of papers on Electric waves and other electric phenomena. (Proc. Roy. Society) Member, Committee of Intellectual Co-operation, League of Nations. Publications: Response in the Living and Non-Living, Plant Response, Electro-physiology of Plants, Irritability of Plants, Life Movements of Plants, Vols I and II, Life Movements in Plants, Vols III and IV, The Ascent of Sap, The Physiology of Photosynthesis, Nervous Mechanism of Plants, Motor Mechanism of Plants, Plant Autographs and their Revelations, Tropic Movement and Growth of Plants. Address Bose Institute Calcutta.
- BOSE, SIR KAILAS CHUNDER, RAI BANADUR, Kt.** & 1916, C.I.E., 1910, Kaiser-i-Hind, 1909, O.B.E. & Decr. 25 1850. Educ. Calcutta Training Academy, Calcutta University and Medical College Fellow, Calcutta University, Vice-President, Indian Medical Congress, Fellow, E. Institute of Public Health, Member, British Medical Association, ex-Member of the Corporation of Calcutta and Hon. Presidency Magistrate, connected with many literary and scientific societies of India and England and most of his contributions to the Medical Journals have been reproduced in the English and American Press. 2nd & of late Babu Madhusan Basu. Address 1, Sukra Street, Calcutta.
- BRADFIELD, KENNET WILLIAM CHAMBER, Lieut. Colonel, M.B. M.S., F.R.C.S.** O.B.E. (1915), C.I.E. (1928) & May 23 1880 m. Margaret Anne Bernard. Educ. King Edward's School, Birmingham, St. Mary's Hospital and St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London. Address Madras.
- BRAY, SIR EDWARD HUGH, Kt.** & 1917, Senior Partner, Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co., President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce, Member of Imperial Legislative Council. Controller of Contracts, Army Headquarters & 15 Apr. 1874, m. 1912, Constance, & of Sir John Graham, 1st Bt. Educ. Charterhouse. Trinity College, Cambridge. Address Gillander House Calcutta.
- BRAYNE, ALBERT FREDERICK LUCAS, M.A.** (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. 1923, Indian Civil Service, Financial Adviser, Military Finance & 1 April 1884 m. 1909 Mary, & of James Thomson, M.D. Irvine, Ayrshire. Educ. Irvine, Royal Academy, Glasgow University, Oxford (Trinity College). Appointed I.C.S., Bombay, 1908, Assistant Collector

Satara 1906-1913 Superintendent, Land Records, 1913-1916, Under Secretary and Deputy Secretary to Bombay Government Revenue and Financial Departments 1916-20. Subsequently Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India and in 1922-23 attached to the Income Committee on Reorganisation. Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs, 1923-24 Ctg Secretary, Finance Department, 1926-27, also Army Department, 1928. Address Finance Department, Government of India

BRAYNE, FRANK LUGARD M.C. (1918), Deputy Commissioner Jhelum Punjab b Jan 6, 1882 m Iris Goodve Goble 1920 Educ Monkton Combe School and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge Joined I.C.S., 1903 Military Service, France, Palestine etc 1916-19 Publications Village Uplift in India (1928) Socrates in an Indian Village (Oxford Univ Press), The Remaking of Village India (being the second edition of Village Uplift), 1929 (Oxford Univ Press) Address Jhelum Punjab, and Great Ryburgh Norfolk

BRAYSHAY, MAURICE WILLIAM, M.Sc. (Leeds) A.M. Inst. C.E. Member Railway Board b 7 March 1883 Educ. Ripon Grammar School, 1895-1900, and Leeds University, 1900-1903 Training in Royal Dockyard Chatham 1903-5 Appd. Asst. Engineer, Indian P.W.D. (Railways) 1905 Asst. Engineer, Eastern Bengal Railway, 1905-09 Assistant and Executive Engineer under Sir Robert Gales on the construction of the Sara Bridge over the Ganges, 1909-15, Assistant Agent, North Western Railway, 1915-17 Dy Controller Indian Munitions Board 1917-18 Assistant Secretary Railway Board 1918-24 Dy Agent, B & C I Railway, 1924 Member (acting), Railway Board, 1929 Address Delhi & Simla

BROWN, THE REV ARTHUR HERBERT, M.A. (Cantab.), B.Sc. (London), C.I.E. (1926) Missionary (Wesleyan Methodist) b 17 May 1862 m R. Gertrude Parsons, M.A. d of T. L. Parsons, Esq., Four Oaks, Warwickshire in 1908 Educ Stationer's Company's School, London, Kingswood School, Bath (1888-1901) Trinity Hall, Cambridge (Scholar) Entered Wesleyan Methodist Ministry and joined Wesleyan College, Bankura in January 1905 became Principal in 1917 Nominated Fellow of Calcutta University, 1921, General Superintendent, Wesleyan Mission in Bengal, 1924-29 Publications. Translation from Bengali of The Cage of Gold by Rita Devi Address Wesleyan College, Bankura, B. N. R.

BROWNE, DENNIS ROBERT HOWE, O.B.E. (1919), A.K.C. (Lond.), M.I.E. (Ind) I.S.E., Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government Public Works Dept., Bombay b 19 Dec 1879 Educ Malvern Coll., and Kings Coll., London Was with British Westinghouse Elec. and Manufacturing Co in U.S.A. and England, 1901-02 appointed to Indian Public Works Department, Oct. 1903, served as Asst. Engineer and Executive Engineer in various districts in Bombay Presidency and Sind, on famine duty in United Provinces,

1913, Under-Secretary to Govt. P.W.D. Bombay, 1916, joined I.A.E.O., Aug 1916, Mesopotamia, Sept. 1916 to June 1919, Asst. Director of Irrigation, M.E.F. and Lt. Colonel, attached E. E., Executive Engineer, Karachi, 1920-21, Superintending Engineer Bombay Dev. Directorate 1922-24, Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation, 1924-25 Chief Engineer Roads and Buildings and Joint Secretary to Government, P.W.D. Dec 1925, Secretary to Government, March 1929 Publications Bombay P.W.D. Technical papers, 1913-14 Address Public Works Department Secretariat, Bombay

BUCK SIR EDWARD JOHN O.B.E. (1918), O.B.E. (1918) Kt (June 1929) Reuters Agent with Government of India and Member, Associated Press of India, late Vice Chairman, Alliance Bank of India, Director, Associated Hotels of India, Pelman Institute (India) and Borooah Timber Co b 1892, m Annie Margaret, d of late General Sir E. M. Jennings K.C.B., Educ St John's College Hurstpier point Was in business in Australia Assistant and Joint Secretary, Countess of Dufferin's Fund for 28 years Hon. Sec., Executive Committee Our Day in India 1917-28 Publications Simla, Past and Present (two Editions) Address North Bank Simla

BUCKLAND SIR PHILIP LINDSAY, Kt., or 1926 The Hon. Mr. Justice Buckland, Judge High Court, Calcutta since 1919 Educ Eton and New College, Oxford m Mary, d of Livingstone Barclay Called to the Bar Inner Temple 1896 Practised in High Court, Calcutta, Publications Text Book on the Indian Companies Act, 1913 Address Bengal Club Calcutta

BUNBURY, EVELYN JAMES, B.A. (Oxon.), M.C. J.F., Hon. Presidency Magistrate, General Manager, Messrs Forbes, Forbes Campbell & Co, Ltd Bombay b 31 Oct, 1889, m 11 Oct 1928 Educ The Oratory School, Queens College, Oxford, and Cam Univ France Joined Forbes Forbes Campbell & Co Ltd and came to Bombay in 1915, served with Grenadier Guards in 1917 and 1918 in France and Germany Address Mount Ida Cambells Hill, Bombay

BUNDI H. H. MAHARAO RAJA, SIR RAGHUNATH SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.C.B.I., 1919, K.C.B.I., or 1897, G.C.I.E. or 1900 G.O.V.O. or 1911, & 26 Sept 1869 S 1889 Address Bundi, Rajputana.

BURDWAN, SIR BIJAY CHAND MANTAB MAHARAJADHIRAJA BAHADUR of G.C.I.E. or 1924, K.C.B.I. or 1911, K.C.I.E. or 1909 I.O.M. or 1909, F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.N.B.A., M.R.A.S. Hon. LL.D. Camb and Edin 1926 & 19 Oct 1881, a Member of 3rd Class in Civil Division of Indian Order of Merit for conspicuous courage displayed by him in the Overton Hall, Calcutta, 7 Nov 1908 adopted by late Maharaja Jadhiraia and succeeded, 1907, being installed in independent charge of zamindari, 1903, management in intervening years carried on by his father, the late Raja Bani

Bhargava Kapur two a two d Burdwan the senior Hindu House in Bengal) ranks first in wealth and importance among the great Bengal semindaris. Has travelled much in India made a tour through Central Europe, and visited British Isles in 1906 when he was received by King Edward a Member of Imperial Legislative Council 1909 12 Bengal Legislative Council, 1907 18, temp Member of the Bengal Executive Council 1918 Member of the Bengal Executive Council 1919 24 Vice-President Bengal Executive Council, from March 1922 to April 1924 Member of the Indian Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924 Member of the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee 1924-25 a nominated member of the Council of State, 1928 Delegate from India to the Imperial Conference, London 1926 when he was received by King George V Received the Freedom of the Cities of Manchester Edinburgh and Stoke-on-Trent 1926 Trustee of the Indian Museum 1908 President, Agri Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, 1911 and 1912, President of the British Indian Association Calcutta 1911 18, again from 1926 to 1927 Trustee of the Victoria Memorial Calcutta since 1914, Chairman Calcutta Imperial (King Emperor George V and Queen Empress Mary) Reception Fund Committee 1911 12 President of the Bengal Volunteer Ambulance Corps and of the Bengalee Regiment Committees during the War Publications Vijaya Ghika, and various other Bengali poetical works and dramas Studies Impressions (the Diary of a European Tour), Meditations etc. *See* Maharajahdhrja Kumar Sahab Lday Chand Mahatab BA Dewan Raj of the Burdwan Raj since 1927, Manager of the Burdwan Raj Wards Estate since 1930, Private Secretary to the Maharajahdhrja Bahadur at the Imperial Conference, London, 1926 b 14 July 1905 Address The Palace, Burdwan Bijay Manzil Alipore Calcutta, The Retreat, Kurseong Bengal, Rosebank, Darjeeling Mosapher Manzil, Agra, U P etc

BURLEY, DR GEORGE WILLIAM Wh Ex 1906, B.Sc (Engineering) (London) 1921, D Sc (London), 1927, M I Mech E 1923, M I E, 1923 M.A.S. Mech E 1924 Professor of Mechanical Engineering Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Matunga, Bombay b 1885 m Ella Elizabeth, s A Harry Furton Educ Sheffield University College and Sheffield University (Applied Science Department) Asst Engineer Yorkshire Electric Power Co Engineering Research Student Sheffield University, Lecturer in Engineering and Head of Machine Tool and Cutting Tool Research Departments, Sheffield University Technical Manager, Guy Motors, Wolverhampton and Lecturer in Electrical Engineering Wolverhampton Technical College Publications (Books) Lathes their Construction and Operation, The Testing of Machine Tools Machine and Fitting Shop Practice Principles and Practice of Toothed Gear Wheel Cutting (Papers) On Machine Tool Design before the Sheffield Society of Engineers and Metallurgists, on Cutting Tools before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, and on Automatic Machine Tools and Mass Production before the Institution of Engineers (India) Technical

Article Upwards of 200 on various Engineering subjects in the Technical Press of England, America and India Address V J T Institute, Matunga, Bombay

BURRELL, FRANK SAVILLE, M.A., CIE Indian Educational Service, Prof of Philosophy, Allahabad University, b 11 Dec. 1871 m Ethel Marion Jane Bliton Educ Leeds Grammar School and Queen's College, Oxford Assistant Master in various English schools Appointed to the Indian Educational Service in 1904 and held the posts of Headmaster Inspector of Schools, Principal of Queen's College Benares Asst Director of Public Instruction, U P Prof of Philosophy, University of Allahabad Publications Articles on Plato's Republic in Mind Address G/o Messrs Thos Cook and Son Berkeley Street, W 1

BURT, BRUCE CRUICKSHANK CIE, MBE B.Sc (London), I.A.S. Agricultural Expert, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research b April 20, 1881 m 1908 Educ Univ Coll London Assistant Lecturer, Liverpool University 1902-4 Trinidad British West Indies 1904-7 Entered the Indian Agricultural Service January, 1908 By Director of Agriculture United Provinces 1908-21 Director of Industries United Provinces (in addition) 1912-15 Secretary Indian Central Cotton Committee 1921-22 Director of Agriculture, Bihar and Orissa 1922-23 Address Rock House Simla, and Imperial Secretariat, New Delhi

BUTLER, HUB CRUICKSHANK MONTAGU K C S I CB CIE, CVO, CBE M.A. I.O.S. Governor of Central Provinces (1925) b 19 May 1873 m Ann, d of the late Dr George Smith CIE, Educ. at Hallsbury and Pembroke Coll Cambridge, Fellow 1895, Hon Fellow 1925 Served in the Punjab as Asst. Commr 1894, Junr sec to Fin Commr, Nov 1900, Asst. Sett'l Officer, 1902 Sett'l Officer, Kotah State 1904 special duty under For Dept 1908, ditto under Financial Dept., 1909 Deputy Commr Lahore district, 1909 Dy Sec to Govt of India (Home Dept.), 1911 special duty as Jt Sec to Royal Comm on the Public Services in India, 1912-15, Deputy Commr, Attock District, 1915-19, ditto Lahore District, 1919 President, Punjab Legis Council, 1921, Sec to Govt. of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1922 President, Council of State, 1924 Address Governor's Camp G.P.

BYRT, ALBERT HENRY Special Correspondent for Times of India and Times in Delhi Simla b 18 March 1881 m Dorothy Muriel, only d of Mr and Mrs Stafford Thorne, Kingston-on-Thames Educ Morgans, Bridgewater Articled to editor, Bath Chronicle and afterwards went to Surrey Advertiser Joined editorial staff of Times of India 11 June 1904 Assistant Editor 1911, Correspondent at Government of India head quarters since 1923, Acting Editor October 1925-February 1927 Address Imperial Delhi Gymkhana Club, and United Service Club, Simla

BYRAMJEE JEEJEEBHoy, Sir, Kt (1928), eldest son of Rustomjee Byramjee Jeejeebhoy Landlord and Merchant, large landed proprietor owning 9,000 acres in Salsette, b 28th Feb 1881 m Jeebai Jammajee Cursetjee, grand daughter of Sir Jammajee Jeejeebhoy, 2nd Bart. Educ. St Xavier's School and College, Bombay J P (1908) Hon Pres Magte. 1908-1915 Delegate Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1908-1925), Chairman Standing Committee of Bombay Municipal Corporation (1924), Member Bombay Municipal Corporation from 1914, Member Board of Film Censors from 1924 Member Govt of India Committee for Conditional Release of Prisoners 1924 Chairman Byramjee Jeejeebhoy Parsi Charitable Institution President 32nd Bombay Parsi Pioneers Boy Scouts and Vice President Bombay Presidency Released Prisoner's Aid Society Donated a sum of Rs 200,000 for the foundation of an Hospital for Children it being the first of its kind in India Chairman of the Governor's Hospital Fund Bombay Sheriff of Bombay for 1927 Address, The Cliff, Ridge Road Bombay

CAIRNS JAMES OBF (1919), J.P., M.A. MD, Ch.B. (Glas) D.P.H. (Camb) Chief Medical Officer North Western Railway b 12th July 1880 Educ University of Glasgow House Surgeon House Physician Glasgow Royal Infirmary and Victoria Infirmary, Glasgow Asst to Professor of Anatomy, Glasgow University, Resident Physician, Russell and Knightswood Hospitals Glasgow, Sanitary Officer 34th General Hospital Major R.A.M.C. (Temp) Dy Assistant Director Medical Services (Sanitary) 8th Lucknow Division Senior Assistant Health Officer Bombay Municipality Principal Medical and Health Officer G.I.P. Railway and Major Auxiliary Force Medical Corps Address C/o The Agent, North Western Railway, Headquarters Office, Empress Road Lahore

CALCUTTA, BISHOP OF, MOST REV FOSS WESTCOTT, D.D. b 28 October 1863 s of the Rt. Rev B F Westcott (late Bishop of Durham). Educ Cheltenham and Peterhouse, Cambridge Joined the S.P.C.K. Mission Cawnpore, 1889 Bishop of Ootya Nagpore, 1905 Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan in India, 1918 Address Calcutta

CALVERT, HUBERT BSc (Lond) C.I.E. (1925), I.C.S. b 30 Nov 1875 m Olanias a of late Edward O'Brien, I.C.S. Educ Univ Coll and St Thomas Hospital London and King's Coll Cambridge Entered I.C.S. 1897 arrived India 1898 Asst Commr and Deputy Commr Special Duty in Western Thibet, 1906 Registrar, Co-operative Societies 1916 to 1925, Member Legislative Assembly 1923-26, Member Royal Commission on Agriculture 1926-1928 Commissioner Rawalpindi Division, Chairman Committee on Co-operation in Burma, 1928-29 Financial Commissioner, Development, Punjab 1929 Publications 'Laws and Principles of Co-operation' (3rd Ed 1926), 'The Wealth and Welfare of the Punjab' (1922), 'Co-operative Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab'

(Agric Jour of India), Progress in the Consolidation of Holdings in the Punjab (Proceedings Indian Economic Assn.) Agricultural Co-operation in India and The Higher Finance of Agricultural Co-operation in India (International Review of Agricultural Economics) Agricultural Co-operation in the Punjab 'The Reconstruction of the Punjab' The Size and Distribution of Agricultural Holdings in the Punjab pamphlets and various articles on economic subjects in the Bengal Economic Journal Indian Journal of Economics Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, etc Address Civil Secretariat Lahore Punjab

CAMPBELL THE HON MR JUSTICE ARCHIBALD B.A., Puisne Judge High Court, Lahore b 18 Jan 1877 m Violet youngest d of the late Sir Cecil Beadon K.C.S.I. Lt-Governor of Bengal Educ Harrow and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge Entered I.C.S. (Punjab) 1901 Asst Commr, Registrar Chief Court 1912 Offg Dist and Sessions Judge 1918, Addl Judge High Court 1921, Permanent Judge, 1925 Address Lahore

CAREY, SIR WILLOUGHBY LANGRIS Kt (1924) Senior Partner Carey and Daniel formerly Senior Resident Partner Bird & Co and F W Hollings & Co b 12 Oct 1875 m Elizabeth Georgina Nott (nee Blackley, Esq. Wellington (N.Z.) came to India, 1901 Vice President Bengal Chamber of Commerce, 1922 Resident 1923 Bengal Legislative Council, 1924 Panel of Dy Presidents, 1923-24 Sheriff of Calcutta, 1924 Director Imperial Bank of India, 1922-24, President 1924 Calcutta, Trustee of Victoria Memorial and Racial Distinctions Committee, 1922 Member, Legislative Assembly 1924-25 Address Bengal Club Calcutta

CAROE ORIEL FIELDS B.A. (Oxon) Solicitor b 23 Aug 1878 Educ Private and Univ College Oxford Address 4, Pall Hill, Bandra

CAREY, SIR HUBERT WINCH, Kt (1925), Managing Director, Balmer Lawrie & Co, Ltd b 1877 m to Evelyn Margaret Bruce elder d of Herbert Johnston, Esq, W S Edinburgh Educ The Abbey, Beckenham Kent Tea-planting in Assam, 1898 1901 thereafter joined Balmer Lawrie & Co, Calcutta became senior resident partner 1916, Pres of European Association 1922-23 Address 7 Allpore Park Calcutta

CASSELLS, GENERAL SIR ROBERT ARCHIBALD KCB (1927), C.S.I., D.S.O. ADC G.O.C. in Command Northern Command (1890) b 15 March 1875 m Miss F E Jackson (1904) Served in the European war, including Egypt and Mesopotamia Commanded Peshawar District 1926-1927, Adjutant-General in India, 1928-29 Address H Q Northern Command, Rawalpindi and Murree

CATER, ALEXANDER NORMAN LEY, C.I.E. (1930), Agent to the Governor General in Madras States. b 15 Jan 1880 Educ Wellington College, Christ's College, Cambridge Entered I.C.S. 1904. Address The Residency, Trivandrum

CATRY DE HECTOR, O C., Catholic Bishop of Lahore, since March 1923 b 1889 Belgium *Educ.* Seraphic School, Bruges Joined the Capuchin Order at Enghien, 1907 ordained priest 1914 came to India, 1920 *Address* 1 Lawrence Road Lahore

CHAMAN LALL DIWAS, M.L.A., Member Legislative Assembly, since 1925 b 1902 *Educ.* at Convent of the Sacred Heart, Murree Gordon Mission College, Rawalpindi, Private Tutor at Fiskestone, London and Paris Joined the Middle Temple in 1910 finished his Bar Final in 1914, took Honours Degree, in Jurisprudence from Jesus College, Oxford 1917 spent 1918-1919 touring England in connection with the Home Rule Deputation headed by Mr Tilak was appointed General Editor of *Coterie*, a London quarterly of Art and Literature returned to India in 1920 joined the staff of the *Bombay Chronicle* as Asst Editor founded the All India Trade Union Congress in 1920 *Address* Lahore (Punjab)

CHAMNEY, Lt-Col HENRY, C.M.G., 1900, Principal, Police Training College, Surdah b Shillalah, co Wicklow m. 1st, 1907, Hon Cecilia Mary Harcourt (d 1908) *Order of 18th Lond. Triangles*, 2nd, 1913, *Alor*, d of Col W. R. Bellingham of Castle Bellingham, co London *Educ.* Monaghan Diocesan School Served South Africa, 1900 first as Major Commanding Lumsden's Horse, and later with South African Constabulary joined Indian Police, 1909 accompanied the relief column to Manipur in 1891 *Address* Police Training College Surdah, Rajshahi, Bengal

CHANDA KAMINI KUMAR M A (1886), B.L. M.L.A. Advocate, High Court, Calcutta b Sept 1862, m. Chandraprabha Chaudhuri *Educ.* Presidency Coll., Calcutta Formerly a member of the Assam Council and Governor-General's Council and later of the Legislative Assembly Fellow, Calcutta University *Publications* Presidential Address, 1st Surma Valley Conference, 1906, Presidential Address, Special Session, Bengal Provincial Conference, 1919 Presidential Address, All-India Postal and R.M.S. conference, 1924 Chairman, Reception Committee, Literary Conference, 1914-1915 and 1928 Chairman, Municipality Silchar, Chairman, Silchar Co-operative Town Bank *Address* Silchar, Assam

CHANDAN SINGH, BIRADAR Chief of the Punjab, member of Kapurthala ruling family, b 1888, s of Kanawa Sonhet Singh, *Educ.* Jullunder, Chief College Government College Lahore Member, Council of State, 1924 *Address* Changanjli Castle Jullunder City, Chadwick Sims W

CHARKHARI, H. H. MAHARAJA DITRAJ, SRINAND-UL-MULK MAHARAJA ABUDDAN SINGH DEO BAHADUR b Jan 1908 b 1920 *Educ.* Mayo Coll., Ajmer invested with full Ruling Powers on December 6th, 1924 *Address* Charkhari State, Bundelkhand

CHATTERJEE, SIR ATUL CHANDRA, K.C.S.I., (1930) K.C.I.B. (1925), High Commissioner for India (1925), b 24 Nov 1876 m 1 Vina

Mookerjee (deceased) (2) Gladys M Broughton O.B.E., D.Sc. *Educ.* Harrow School and Finsbury Coll. Calcutta, and King's Coll., Cambridge, Entered I.C.S., 1897 Served in U.P. Special Inquiry into Industries in U.P. 1907-08, Registrar, Co-operative Societies, U.P. 1912-16, Revenue Sec U.P. Govt., 1917-18 Ch. Sec U.P. Govt., 1919, Govt of India delegate to International Labour Conf., Washington, 1919 and Geneva, 1921, 1924, 1925 1930 President, International Labour Conference 1927 and to League of Nations Assembly 1925 Representative of India on Governing Body, International Labour Office, Vice President of the Economic Consultative Committee of the League of Nations has been Member of Imperial Economic Committee since 1925, Indian Government Delegate to London Naval Conference 1930 Member Munitions and Industries Board, 1920 Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries 1921 Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in Charge of Industries and Labour Member of the Legislative Assembly 1921 24 *Publications* Note on the Industries of the United Provinces (1909) *Address* India House Aldwych, W C 2

CHAUDHAI, SIR MAHADEV BHASKAR K.C.I.B. or 1917 O.S.I., 1911 B.A., LL.B., b 15 Sept 1857, m Anandibai only d of Parashram S Gupta 1870 *Educ.* Government High School, Poona, Deccan College, Poona Assistant Master Elphinstone High School Bombay, 1879-83 Vakil High Court, Bombay, 1883 Govt Pleader High Court, Bombay 1906 Acting Punes Judge High Court Bombay 1908, Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bombay 1910 12 and 1915 17, Member of the Public Services Commn., 1918-15 Chancellor, Indian Women's University, 1920, Vice-Chairman and Chairman, Deccan Education Society 1927 President of Commission to try Election petitions at Belgaum and Dharwar, 1924 to try election petitions at Solapur and Ahmednagar, 1927 *Address* 7, Finance Office Road Poona

CHAUDHARI, JOGESH CHANDRA B.A. (Oxon) M.A. (Cal), Bar-at-Law b 28 June 1893 m Sarasulba Devi 3rd d of Sir Surendranath Banerjee *Educ.* Krishnagar Collegiate School Presidency College, Calcutta, St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and New College, Oxford For some time Lecturer of Physics and Chemistry at Vidyasagar College, Calcutta Editor Calcutta Weekly Notes since 1934, Organizing Secy., Indian Industrial Exhibitions in Calcutta in 1901 1902 and 1906-7 Member, Bengal Council, 1904-7 Member, Legislative Assembly 1921 1923, Fellow of the Calcutta University 1927 *Publications* Calcutta Weekly Notes *Address* 8 Hastings Street, and "Devadwar" 24, Balgange, Circular Road Calcutta.

CHAUDHRI LAL CHAND HON LIEUTENANT TERN HON. RAO BANARUD, B.A. LL.B. O.B.E. b 1882 m Shrinakshi Sankhla Devi, belonging to a Sikh Jat Family of Ferozpur Dist *Educ.* St Stephen's College, Delhi Joined Revenue Department, 1904, took LL.B. degree 1912 and practised as lawyer at Bahadur

elected Vice Chairman District Board 1914-17
elected Punjab Council 1916, nominated
Council of State, 1922. Presided All India
Jat Maha Sabha 1918 (elected) Manager of
High School for sons of Soldiers and
recruiting officer during War Minister
Punjab Government 1924) Revenue Member
Bharatpur State 1924 and President State
Council 1925-1927 Has taken to practice as
an Advocate of the Lahore High Court at
Rohtak Address Rohtak

CHETTY R K SHANMUGHAM B A B.L.
Lawyer and Member Legislative Assembly
b 17 Oct 1892 Educ The Madras Christian
College. Elected as a member of the Madras
Legis Council in 1920 was appointed
Council Secretary to the Development Minister
in 1922 In Oct 1922 was deputed by the
Madras Govt to report about measures of
Temperance Reform in Bombay Bengal and
the United Provinces Elected in 1923 as
member Legislative Assembly Visited Eng-
land in May 1924 as one of the members of the
Deputation sent by the National Convention
of India visited Australia as Indian represen-
tative on the Delegation of the Empire Par-
liamentary Association in September 1928
was re-elected uncontested to Legis Assembly
in the General Election of 1930 Chief Whip of
the Congress Party in Legislative Assembly
was nominated by the Government of India
as Adviser to the Indian Employers Delegate
at the Eleventh Session of the International
Labour Conference held at Geneva in June
1928 Again in 1929 was nominated a second
time to represent the Indian Employers in the
12th International Labour Conference at
Geneva was appointed a member of the
Central Banking Inquiry Committee (re-
elected to the Assembly in 1930 without
contest Address Howard St Ry
Courts Chombitor

CHITWOOD GENERAL SIR PHILIP WARDLE
7th Bt or 1790 (C B (1840) (C B (1918)
A C M G (1917) (C B (1914) D S O (1900)
A D C General 1927 Commander in Chief
in India (November 1930) b 21 September
1869 s s of Lieut Col Sir George (Chit-
wood 6th Bt and Alice d of late Michael
T Russ Bangalore Staffedshire, m 1890
Heater Alice (widow) d of late Col Hon
Richard Stapleton (otton one s one d
Educ Eton. Entered Army 1889, Capt
1897 Major 1901 Lieut Colonel, 1909
Col 1912 Brig General 1914, General 1926
served China Hills Burma 1892-3 (wounded
with clasp) s Africa 1899-1902 (despatches
twice Queen's Medal 5 clasps King's Medal
2 clasps, D S O) European War 1914-18
commanded 5th Cavalry Brigade, 1914-15
(wounded C B) 2nd Cavalry Division
1915-1916 (promoted Major General for dis-
tinguished service) commanded Desert
Corps Egypt, 1914-17 (K C M G) com-
manded East Force 1917 commanded 20th
Army Corps, 1917-18 capture of Jerusalem
and campaign in Palestine and Syria (des-
patches eleven times) 1914 Star, British
General Service Medal and Allied Medal
A C B Commander Legion of Honour Croix
de Guerre Grand Officer Order of the Nile,

1st Class Order of the Sacred Treasure (Japan)
promoted Lieut General, (1918) Military
Secretary War Office, 1919-20 Deputy
Chief of the Imperial General Staff 1920-22,
Adjutant General to the Forces 1923-23
Commander in Chief Aldershot Command
1923-27, (Chief of General Staff India, 1928-
1930 Address Simla and Delhi

CHIDAMBARAM CHETTYAR M C T M.,
Banker b 2nd August 1908 m G
Valluvar Educ Madras Christian Coll
President Sir M C T Muthiah Chettyar's
High School Lumawalkin Madras
Director The Indian Bank Ltd, Madras
Stock Exchange The Little Oriental Bank
and Mercantile Ltd The United India Life
Assurance Company Ltd Madras Member
South India Chamber of Commerce Madras,
Member Madras Race Club Gymkhana Club,
Madras Cycling Club (conspicuous Club
Address Thilford House Vepery Madras,

CHINYO SILVIA MERRILL, J P and Hon
Nightmare Merchant Managing Director in the
firm of F M Chinoy & Co Ltd b 16th Febru-
ary 1885 m Miss Sherilanoce Lodhaboy El-
malin Educ Burma New High School and
Public School College, founded the well known
firm of Automobile Distributors and Engi-
neers the Bombay Garage now situated
at Mohar Buildings Bandstand Chowpaty
Mainly responsible for the Wireless Indus-
try in India Director of the Indian Radio
Telegraph Co Ltd Address Carmichael
Road Cumballa Hill Bombay

CHINTAMANI, CHINRAVOORI YAJNESWARA,
Chief Editor of The Leader of Allahabad
b 10 April 1890 m Srinivas Krishna Venem-
ma Educ Maharaja's College, Vizianagaram,
Editor of The Leader Allahabad, 1909-20
Member C P Legislative Council 1910-1923
and again since 1927 Delegate
of the Liberal Party to England,
1919 General Secretary National Liberal
Federation of India President Ibid, 1920
Minister of Education and Industries U P
1921-23 Publications Indian Social Reform
1901 Speeches and Writings of Sir Pherozeshah
Mehta 1905 Address Gauri Nivas, 17
Hamilton Road Allahabad

CHITNAVIS, SIR SHANKAR MADHAV, KT.
(1926) B.A., Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal
(1901), Imperial Service Order (1914),
President, C P Legislative Council. Dec.
1 1863 m Parvatibai Educ Free Church
Mission School Nagpur, and then at
Fiphinstone College Bombay Appointed
Probationer for Civil Service under the Statu-
tory rules 18 July 1885, confirmed as Assistant
Commissioner 5th Oct 1887, appointed
Deputy Commissioner, December 1888, a
member of the Indian Factory Labour Com-
mission, 1907-08, officiated as Divisional
Commissioner 1909-10, retired from Service
1st March 1916 was Minister to C P Go-
vernment from 18 Dec 1920 to 27 March
1924 Address Near Mental Hospital,
Nagpur, O P

CHOKSY, SIR NASARVANJI HORMASJI, Kt (1928) C.I.E. 1922, Khen Bahadur (1897), Chevalier of the Crown of Italy (1899), Modérateur Epidémie Republique Française (1904) M.D. (Hon. Cause), Friburg, F.O.P.S. (Bombay), L.M. & S. Bombay, 1884. Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1912-1930, President, College of Physicians, and Surgeons, Hon. Secretary Governor's Hospital Fund for Bombay and the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association Bombay Presidency Branch, b 7 Oct 1861, m. Sarnal Maneekjee Jhaveri, Educ. Elphinstone High School and Grant Medical College Medical Superintendent Asworth Leprosy Asylum 1890-97, Medical Superintendent of Arthur Road Plague and Infectious Diseases Hospital (1889-1921) and Maratha Plague Hospital (1902-1921) Publications Numerous Publications on Plague Cholera Malaria Fever Leprosy, Special reports connected with these subjects, etc Address 64 Wodehouse Road, Colaba.

CHRISTOPHERS, BREYER COL RANDEL RICKARD, M.B., C.I.E., O.B.E., K.C.P., I.M.S. F.R.S. Director Central Research Institute First command dated 1st Sep 1902 on special duty under Director General I.M.S. 1905-1904 Superintendent of the King Institute of Preventive Medicine and Prof. of Hygiene and Bacteriology, Medical College Madras 1904, on special duty under Sanitary Commissioner with Government of India for inquiry into blackwater fever in the Doon December 1907 to January 1909, Assistant to Director Central Research Institute, Kasauli 1909 Director Central Research Institute Kasauli Dec. 1914 C.I.E. 1916 on Military duty from January 1916 to October 1919 O.B.E. June 1918, Director Nala Azur Commission, January 1925, Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli June 1925. Address Central Research Institute Kasauli.

CLARKE, WALTER DOUGLAS MONTGOMERY H.M. Trade Commissioner Bombay b 3rd March, 1880 m. Joylyn d. of late J.F. Baker, Esq., Christ Church S.E. one daughter Educ. High School, Kelso and Trinity College Glenalmond. In business in Burma and India, 1911-1921, joined Indian Army Reserve of Officers 1915 served with 33rd Dogra, Mohmand campaign, 1915-16 appointed Asst. Cable Censor, Madras, 1916 and Deputy Controller (Hides), Indian Muntions Board Bombay 1918-19, Hon. Secretary Coochin Chamber of Commerce and Member, Oochin Harbour ad hoc Committee, 1921 Address Royal Bombay Yacht Club Bombay.

CLAYTON HUGH BYARD, C.I.E. (1924), I.C.S. On Special Duty in General, Ecclesiastical and Marine Department, Bombay b 24 Dec 1877 m. Annie Blanch Nepean Educ. St. Paul's School Wadham College, Oxford 1st Class Hon. Mods 1st Class LL. Hum. Came to India 1901 served in Bombay Presidency employed in Military Intelligence Branch of War Office 1914-19 Municipal Commissioner 1919-1923 Address The Secretariat Bombay.

CLOW, ANDREW GORELAY, M.A. J.P., F.R.S. C.I.E. (1922), Indian Civil Service, Secretary, Labour Commission (1929) b 29

April 1890, m. Ariadne Mavis Dundordale 1925 Educ. Merchiston Castle School Edinburgh, St. John's College Cambridge Served in U.P. as Asst. Collector Assistant Settlement Officer and Settlement Officer 1914-20, Controller, Labour Bureau Govt. of India, 1920-23, Chairman Seamen's Recruitment Committee, 1922 Secretary, Workmen's Compensation Committee 1922 Under-Secretary to Government of India 1923-4 Adviser and delegate International Labour Conference, Geneva 1921 and 1923, Dy. Secretary to Government of India Department of Industries and Labour 1924-7 Member, Legislative Assembly 1923, 1925-27 Member Council of State 1928-9, Member Royal Commission on Labour in India 1929 30 Publications Indian Factory Law Administration (1927) The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act (1924) Indian Factory Legislation a Historical Survey (1927), etc Address 9 Hastings Road New Delhi.

LOCKE, SIR HUGH GOLDING Kt (1929) Chartered Accountant Partner A.F. Ferguson & Co. Chartered Accountants, Bombay, Karachi Indore Delhi Simla, Rawalpindi Lucknow and Lahore b 1st June 1882 m. Winifred Florence d. of A.E. Cunningham late of Karachi Educ. at Marlborough School London Joined A.F. Ferguson & Co., Bombay in Feb 1907, represented Bombay Chamber of Commerce on Bombay Improvement Trust 1919 and Bombay Municipality 1919-28 Member, Legislative Assembly from 1924, Public Accounts Committee 1924-27, Railway Finance Committee 1926-28 Hon. Presidency Magistrate, 1924, President Bombay Chamber 1928 Publications A Summary of the Principal Legal Decisions affecting Auditors Address A.F. Ferguson & Co. Apollo Street, Bombay.

COLLINS GODFREY FERDINANDO STRATFORD, M.A. O.B.E. (1919) C.I.E. (1931) I.C.S. Home Secretary, Government of Bombay b 3rd November 1888 m. Joyce d. of G. Turville Brown, Esq. Educ. Charterhouse and Christ Church Oxford Asst. Collector 1912 Forest Settlement Officer 1920-22 Revenue Settlement Officer 1924-26, Registrar Co-operative Societies, 1926-27 Collector and Dist. Magistrate 1923-1926 and 1928-29 House Secretary, 1929 Address Grindlay & Co. Bombay.

COLVIN, GEORGE LUTHERBINDER C.B. (1919), O.M.G. (1918), D.S.O. (1916); Commandants of the Order of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus (Italy) 1920 A.D.C. to H.M. King (1928) Agent East Indian Railway b 27 March 1878 m. Katherine Mylne d. of James Mylne of Edinburgh Educ. Westminster Joined E.I. Railway 1898, served in Army (France and Italy) during war 1914-1918 Hon. Brigadier General in Arm. Director, of Development Ministry of Transport London, from 1919 to 1921 Rejoined E.I. Ry. in 1921 as Agent Address Bengal Club, Calcutta.

CONNOR, LIEUT. COLONEL SIR FRANK POWELL, Kt (1928), D.S.O., F.R.C.S. L.M.S., Professor of Surgery, Medical College Calcutta b 1877 m. Grace Ellen Lee d. of late E.O. Lees Educ. St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London

- Indian Army Civil in Bengal.** War service in France and Mesopotamia (mentioned in Despatches four times, D.S.O. Brevet Lieut. Colonel) Consulting Surgeon, Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force *Publications* Surgery in the Tropics (Churchill) and various surgical articles in Medical Journals *Address* 2 Upper Wood Street Calcutta
- CONTRACTOR, MISS NARAJIBI DURABI B A**
J P Hon Presidency Magistrate Member of the Committee of visitors for the Cama and Allibless hospitals Lady Superintendent Chanda Ranji High Girls School Bombay *Educ* Wilson College Bombay First Indian Lady Fellow in Arts in the Bombay University (1922) an extensive traveller throughout India Burma and Ceylon and in China Japan United States of America and Europe *Publications* Contributions on topical educational and social subjects in English and Gujarati in periodicals and newspapers published in Bombay *Address* Harding House Gowalla Tank Road Bombay
- COOKE, Major-General ALBERT FOTHERGILL A.B.E. (1924), C.B. (1919) (S.I. (1921) D.S.O. (1917) I.A.** Commanding Sind Majputana District from April 1924 to 13 Nov. 1921. m. 1923 Harriet Mary Hornby *Educ.* All Hallows School Hoxton, B.M.C. Sandhurst First Commission 1892. Joined Indian Army 1893, Captain, 1901, Major 1910, Brevet Lt Col, 1912, Substantive Lt-Colonel 1910, Lt Col, 1917, Substantive Colonel, 1917 Temporary Major-General (1918) Substantive Major-General (1921) served Chitral, 1895 (medal and 1 clasp), Tirah, 1897 (2 clasps) Waziristan, 1902 (clasp) Tibet Expedition and March to Lhasa 1904 (medal and clasp), European War from Jan 1915 to October 1917 (despatches seven times C.B., D.S.O., Lt Col) several years on Staff Appointments in India including 4 years as Dy Adjutant-General in India and officiating Adjutant General from March to Sept 1920 Military Secretary Army Headquarters, 1922-24 *Address* C/o Messrs Gindlay & Co Bankers
- COPPEL, Rt Rev FRANCIS STEPHEN, B.C.,** Bishop of Nagpur, since 1907 & Les Gets Savoy 5 Jan 1897 *Educ* College of Evian University of France, Lyons, B.A., B.Sc. Entered Congregation of Missionaries of St Francis de Sales, Annecy, France, 1890 sent to India for mission of Nagpur, 1892 for fifteen years attached to St Francis de Sales College, Nagpur, as professor and principal *Address* Nagpur
- COPPINGER, COLONEL WALTER VALENTINE, M.D. (Dublin) F.R.C.S.L. D.S.O. (1917), C.I.E. (1930),** Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, Central Provinces & Berar, m. Miss M. M. O'Kelly *Educ.* Belvedere School, Dublin and T. Q. Dublin Civil Surgeon, Bengal, 1903 Prof. of Ophthalmic Surgery, Medical College, Calcutta, 1919-1929 *Address* Nagpur, Central Provinces
- CORBETT GREGORY LATHAM, M.A. (Oxon) C.I.E. (1921),** Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India & 9 Feb 1881 m. Gladys Kate d. of late George Bennett, Esq., Little Walsington Manor Glos *Educ* Bromley Grove School, Hertford Coll., Oxford, 1st Class Hon Mods (1902), 1st Class Lit. Hum (1904) Passed into I.C.S., 1904, Asst Commissioner, C.P., 1905-09, Settlement Officer Saur, 1910-16, Dy Commissioner C.P., 1916-18, Dir of Industries and Dy Secretary, C.P., 1918, Dy Secretary Com. Dept., Government of India, 1919-21, on deputation, South and East Africa, 1920, Washington Disarmament Conference, 1921, Fiji Islands, 1925, Director of Industries and Registrar Co-operative Credit Societies, C.P., 1928 Off. Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1923-24 *Address* Commerce Department, Government of India Delhi and Simla
- COTTELLINGAM, JOHN PRADASA RAO, M.A., F.S.I.,** Retired Principal of Wardlaw College Bellary 1891-1918 & 9th Dec 1890 m. Miss Padmanji, d. of the Rev. Dada Padmanji of Bombay *Educ.* Madras Christian Coll. Asst. Master, London Mission High School, Madras Headmaster Wesley Coll., Principal, Hindu Coll. Cuddalore, 1899-1901 Member, Bellary Dist. Board and Taluk Board since 1895, Vice-President Dist. Board 1901-4 Member, Bellary Municipal Council since 1893, 1 read, District Educational Council, Bellary 1921-24 Represented Indian Christian Community and Madras Presidency on the Legislative Assembly, 1921-23 *Address* Rock Cottage Bellary
- COUTERELL, CELIA BERNARD CIE, I.C.S.** Member Board of Revenue Madras 1928, m. 1922 *Educ.* St Peter's School, York Mall College, Oxford Entered I.C.S. 1898 has served in the Madras Presidency, since 1899 Deputy Commissioner Salt, and Akbari Dept., 1906, Private Sec. to Governor of Madras 1912-15 Secretary to Government 1920-28, Commissioner of Excise Ag. Chief Secretary to Government May 1930 *Address* Madras
- COLLIER, CHARLES WILLIAM EGERTON CIE** (1920) Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1928 & 1874 *Educ.* Eton and Univ. Coll. Oxford I.C.S. 1897 District work in Madras until 1907 when appointed Asst. Director of Statistics, Calcutta, Off. Dir.-Genl., Commercial Intelligence, 1908-10, Off. Dir. of Industries Madras, 1909-10, Dy Secy to the Govt of Madras, 1911-12, Dy Secy Govt of India, 1913-15, Collector of Customs, Calcutta, 1916-21, Director of Industries Madras 1921 A.G. Madras States 1928-29 *Publications* Review of the Trade of India, 1908 and 1910, Calcutta Chatterbox, 1918, Handbook of Commercial Information, 1919, 2nd Edition 1924 *Address* Brodie Castle, Adyar, Madras
- COYBROUGH, ANTHONY CATHCART, C.B.E. (1918), M.A. B.Sc. O.E., M.L.E.E., M.I. MACH., E., M.I.E. (Ind.),** Director, Messrs Mather and Platt, Ltd & 10th Feb 1877 *Educ.* Glasgow University Joined Mather and Platt, Ltd in 1898 as apprentice subsequently became General Manager, Electrical Department and in that capacity travelled widely on the Continent went to India and South Africa and eventually returned to India to establish Mather and Platt's own office in Calcutta, Bombay and other centres for the control of their

- business from Mesopotamia to the Straits, has travelled in China, Japan, United States of America, Australia and Egypt. During war service was sent to Govt of India under Munitions Board, was Controller of Priority and later Controller of Munitions Manufacture. *Publications* Pamphlets on Technical and Economic subjects. *Address* 7, Haro Street, Calcutta.
- COUSINS, JAMES HENRY**, Doctor of Literature of Keiojuku University, Japan, (1922) Principal, Brahmavidya Ashrama (School of International Culture), Adyar Madras. *Address* Margaret E Cousins, B Mus J P (1908) *Educ.* at various schools in Ireland and partly in Trinity College, Dublin (Teachers Course). Private Secretary to Lord Mayor of Belfast, Asstt Master, Belfast Mercantile Academy, Asstt Master, High School Dublin, Reporter to Royal Academy of Medicine in Ireland, Demonstrator in Geography and Geology, Summer Course, Royal Coll of Science, Ireland, Asstt Editor, New India, Madras. Principal, Theosophical College, Madanapalle, Fellow and Prof of English National University, Adyar University Extension and Post Graduate Lecturer, Calcutta University, Benares Hindu University Mysore University Visiting Lecturer, Tagore's Vidyasagar, Bengal, Registrar, The Theosophical World University, Adyar Centre, Organising Secretary, The Theosophical World University Association (India) Genl Editor, Theosophical World University Text-books, a co-founder of the Irish Literary and Dramatic Revival (1900, etc.), poet, dramatist, critic, educationist, philosopher. *Publications* (Prose) A text-book of Modern Geography, The Wisdom of the West, The Basis of Theosophy, The Renaissance in India, The Kingdom of Youth Footsteps of Freedom New Ways in English Literature Modern English Poetry The Cultural Unity of Asia, The Play of Brahms, Work and Worship, The New Japan, The Philosophy of Beauty, Heavens Essays, Samadarsana, (Poetry) Ben Madigan, Sung by Six, The Bleached King, The Voice of One, The Awakening, The Bell Branch, Eblain the Beloved, Straight and Crooked, The Garland of Life, Ode to Truth Moulded Feathers The King's Wife (drama) Sea-Change, Surya Gita, Forest Meditation, Above the Rainbow A Theban Banner. *Address*—Theosophical Cal Society, Adyar Madras.
- COUSINS, MRS MARGARET E**, Bachelor of Music (Royal University of Ireland, 1902), Honorary Secretary, Women's Indian Association and Hon Magistrate, Madras. *Educ* b 7 Nov 1878 in Dr J H Cousins, *Educ* Dublin and Londonderry. Solo pianist before marriage, afterwards became interested in reform movements in addition to music, Secretary Irish Vegetarian Society, Hon Treasurer and foundation member of Irish Women's Franchise League, a militant suffrage society in which she worked for seven years and suffered imprisonment twice in the cause. Left Ireland 1918, spent two years in Liverpool, came to India in Oct 1915. *Publications* articles in many newspapers and magazines, author of "The Awakening of Asian Womanhood". *Address* Lead beater Chambers Adyar, Madras.

- CRAIK, SIR HENRY DUFFIELD, Bt B A, (OXON)** C.B.J. (1924) Ag Finance Member Excmtee Council, Punjab. b 2nd January 1876 *Educ* Eton and Pembroke Coll Oxford. Joined I.C.S. 1899 and served in the Punjab and with the Government of India in various capacities since then. Succeeded to baronetcy 1929. *Address* Civil Secretariat Lahore.
- CRAIK, SIR JAMES, K.C.B.T. (1929) C.B.J.** (1922) C.I.E. (1917) Home Member Govt of India since July 1927. b 1877 in to Evelyn d. of the late Hon Charles Brand. Educated at George Watson College Edinburgh Edinburgh University and Balliol College (Oxon), Assistant Collector Sind, Manager of Encumbered Estates, Sind, Assistant Commissioner in Sind, Deputy Municipal Commissioner, Bombay. Private Secretary to H.E. the Governor of Bombay. Sec to Govt of Bombay, Home Dept. Secretary to the Govt of India, Home Dept., Acting Home Member Government of India. 1926 *Address* The Secretariat, Delhi or Simla.
- CROFT-HWAITE, REV CANON ARTHUR**, Exhibitioner of Pembroke College Cambridge B.A. (Sen Opt), 1892 Delhi Durbar Medal 1911, Kuluani Hind Medal 1st Class, 1925 Missionary S.P.G. b 2 Nov 1870 in to Kate Louisa Harlow. *Educ* at St Peter's School York and Pembroke College, Cambridge Missionary, S.P.G. and Vice Principal Christ Church College Cawnpore 1893-1900 Principal 1910-1912 Fellow of Allahabad Univ 1905 Hon Fellow 1913 Chaplain of Moradabad and Head of S.P.G. Mission 1900-10 and 1912 to present date, Canon of All Saints Cathedral Allahabad, 1921. *Publications* The Lessons of the Rig Veda for Modern India, "Patriotism", Theosophy Commentary on II Corinthians in The Indian Church Commentary Series Taswirun par sawal o jawab "Du a—ki kitab par sawal o jawab, "Asha-i Rabbani ki farth par sawal o jawab". *Address* S.P.G. Mission Moradabad U.P.
- CLMING, JHN HON SIR ARTHUR HERBERT, KT** (1928) Judge High Court Calcutta, b 24 Nov 1871 in, Beryl Christian Austen. *Educ* Westminster School Orisk College, Oxford. Appointed to Indian Civil Service 1893 came to India, 1894 served as Assistant Magistrate Bengal, Dy Commr Assam Dist and Sessions Judge Eastern Bengal and Assam officiated as Legal Remembrancer, Bengal, officiated as Judge, High Court, from 1916 apptd Judge High Court, Nov 10, 1921. *Address* 2 Allpur Park Calcutta.
- CUNNINGHAM, (HONORARY, B.A. (OXON), C.I.E.** O.B.E. I.C.S., Private Secretary to Viceroy b 23 March 1888 in K M Adair. *Educ* Fettes Coll, Edinburgh. Magdalen College, Oxford I.C.S. 1911 Political Department since 1914 Served on N.W. Frontier 1914 25 Counsellor British Legation, Kabul, 1925. 6 Private Secretary to H.E. the Viceroy since 1926. *Address* Viceroy's Camp, India.
- CUTTER, C. A., M.B.E.**, Landlord Hon Magistrate Rangoon, b 1st January, 28 Nov 1862, in Janet d. of Dr Bayter M.D., was Hon Sec Burma "Our Day" Fund Burma War Fund Rangoon Rivercraft Committee and Rangoon Improvement of

- Shipping Committee during the war. *Publications* Essays on Commercial Subjects. *Address* Riverside, Kalay Burma
- DADABHOY, Sir MANEJI BYRAMJI** C.I.E (1911), Kt (1921) A.C.I.E (1925) Member, Council of State & (Bombay 30 July 1925 m 1894, Bal Jerbanoo, O.B.E. & of Khan Bahadur Dadabhai Pallonji of the Communist Party. *Educ* Proprietary High School and St Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Middle Temple 1884, called to Bar, 1887. Advocate of Bombay High Court, 1887. Member Bombay Municipal Corporation 1889-90, Government Advocate Central Provinces 1891, President, Prov Industrial Conference, Raipur 1907. President, All-India Industrial Conference, Calcutta, 1911, Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1908-12 and 1914-17 a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920-30) Elected to the Council of State 1921 and nominated 1925 Member Federal Commission appointed by Govt of India 4th 1921 Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance 1925-28 Member Municipal Board Nagpur for 39 years Managing Director Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co Ltd. Benar Manufacturing Co Ltd. Model Mills, Nagpur Limited, and C.P. Contracting and Mining Syndicate. (Chairman) Irony Manganese Ore Co Ltd. Proprietor Bellapur, South, Ghugus and Pimona Raju Collieries numerous Manganese Mines in the Central Provinces and Benar and Behar and Orissa. Several Gin and Press Factories in different parts of India. *Publications* Commentary on the Land Laws of the Central Provinces, and Commentary on the Central Provinces Tenancy Act. *Address* Nagpur, C.P.
- DAGA RAI BANADUR SETH SRI BHISSEERDAS, Kt** (1921), Senior Proprietor of the firm of R. Bai Bahadur Banshal Abetchand Banker Govt. Treasurer landlord merchant millowner and mineowner Director Central Bank of India, of Model Mills, Nagpur and of Benar Manufacturing Company. Badnera, Chairman, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Company. Life Member of the Councils of Dufferin Fund and member of the Legislative Assembly of the Bikaner State and Member of the Indian Red Cross Society, & 1877 m Krishna Bal. *Educ* privately Second Class Taxim, Bikaner State. *Publications* Sir Kasturchand Memorial Dufferin Hospital at Nagpur and frequent contributions on public charity. *Address* Nagpur (C.P.) and Bikaner, (Rajputana)
- DALAL, ARDESHIR BYSTONJI BA (BOYBAT) M.A., (CAMBRIDGE)** I.C.S. Municipal Commissioner, Bombay & 24 April 1884 m to Manakbal Jamnaji Ardeshtir Wadia. *Educ* Kiplingstone College Bombay St John's College, Cambridge Assit., (Collector) Dharwar, Coimbatore, Bijapur, Superintendent Land Records Belgaum Collector, Ratnagiri and Panh Mahals Deputy Secretary Govt of Bombay, Revenue and Finance Departments Actg. Secretary, Govt of Bombay Finance Department, Ag Secretary Govt of India Education, Health and Land Departments. *Address* Municipal Commissioners Bungalow Carmichael Road, Bombay

- DALAL, Sir BARFOR JAMSHEDJI, Kt** (1920), B.A., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law Chief Justice, Kishinir State & 21 Jan 1871 m to Ayes, & of the late Keshori Valli of Surat. *Educ* at home Kiplingstone College Bombay Exeter Coll. Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1st. Magis, Allahabad, 1894. Jist and Sessions Judge 1899 Judicial Commissioner Lucknow 1921 Judge, High Court 1925 1931 Member of every Commission appointed in U.P. under the Delance of India Act. *Address* (to Lloyd) Bank Ltd, Bombay
- DALAL, BARDAR SRI BOMANJI ARDESHIR, Kt** (1927), First Class Bardar Zamindar, and Merchant, Member of the Legislative Assembly since January 1921 & 18 April 1884 m & of Dinshawjee Pdeu Broach and Bombay m Bai Navabaji Bomanji Dalal Owns 3500 acres of land colonizing six thriving villages in out of the way places in Panh Mahals and Gackwar Frontier on West and South of his estate. *Address* Bardar Residency
- DALAL, Sir DADIBA MERWANJEE Kt** (1924) C.I.E (1921), Stock and Finance Broker, & 12 Dec 1870 m 1890, & a three & *Educ* in Bombay Gave evidence before the Chamberlain Currency Commission (1913) Member of the Committee on Indian Exchange and Currency (1919) and wrote minority report, Chairman Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee, Bombay (1921) Member of Council of the Secretary of State for India 19 Nov 1921 to 25th Jan 1923 Delegate for India at international Economic Confere Genoa and representative for India at the Hague (1922) Member of the Income Committee, 1922-23, Delegate for India at the Imperial Economic Conference (1924) High Commissioner for India in the U.K., 1925-34. *Address* 1 Varine Lines Bombay
- DARLEY, Sir BERNARD DOUGLAS, Kt** (1928) C.I.E (1919) Chief Engineer P.W.D. United Provinces & 24 Aug 1880. *Educ* T.C. Dublin and Choppers Hill A.M.I.C.E. Irrigation work in P.W.D. since 1903. *Address* Lucknow, U.P.
- DAS, BRAJA SUNDAR, B.A.**, Member, Legislative Assembly Zamindar and Proprietor of a press and cultivation & 7 July 1886 m to Linsundar 4th & of Rai Sudas Charn Nalk Bahadur Pdeu Ravenshaw Coll and Presidency Coll, Calcutta Took part in Utkal Union Conference since its beginning in 1904 and Secy. for two years, Vice-President, Utkalashikya Samaj, President, Oriya People's Association, Vice-President Oriya Assocn, and Ramkrishna Sevak Samaj, was President of Central Youngmen's Association, Member, Sakhiyoga Temple Committee, was Member of Cuttack Municipality and District Board, Member, Bihar and Orissa Council, 1916 1920, Fellow of Patna University and member of the Syndicate, *Publications* Editor of the Oriya Monthly Mukhen and of the only English Weekly in Orissa 'The Oriya'. *Address* Cuttack
- DAS, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BANADUR DEWAN BHARAN, C.I.E.**, C.B.I. & Jan 1865. *Educ*, at Punjab Government College, Lahore; Private Secretary to Raja Sir Ranj Singh, C.B.I., 1889-

1898, Mily Seery to the Com in-Chief, Jammu and Kashmir 1898-1900, Mily Seery to H H the Maharaja, 1909-14, Home Minister to H H the Maharaja, 1914-18, Rev Minister, 1918-1921 and Chief Minister March, 1921-April 1922 Retired from Service Address Jammu and Kashmir

DAS, MADHU SUDAN, C.I.E b 28 April 1848 Educ Calcutta University M.A., B.L., M.B.A.S., F.N.B.A. Represented Orissa in Bengal Legislative Council four times Fellow of Calcutta University, elected by Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa to Imperial Council 1913 nominated to Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa Minister (Local Self Government) Bihar and Orissa since Jan 1921 elected by Municipalities of Orissa to his present seat in Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council Is the proprietor of Utkal Tannery and of the Orissa Art Ware Px President of All India Indian Christian Conference was first Minister of Local Self Government in Bihar and Orissa resigned office two years later Advocate Patna High Court Address Cuttack, B N Ry

DAS, PANDIT NILAKANTHA, M.A., writer of books for children on new lines b August 1884 m Srimati Radhamani Debi (1905) Educ Puri Zilla School, Ravenshaw College Cuttack and Scottish Churches College, Calcutta Founded with Pt Gopabandhu Das and others the residential open air private school at Satyabedi on a new line was Resident Head Master there for 8 years worked in connection with Puri Famine in 1919, apptd by Calcutta University for Post Graduate Professorship in 1920 and non co operated in 1921 Started Congress organisation and a National High School at Sambalpur, and edited "The Soba" In 1921 became Dist Congress Secretary, Puri and Prov Congress President, Utkal 1922 Imprisoned for four months and fined Rs 200 in 1923 elected to the Assembly from Orissa in 1924 and again in 1927 Publications Prasaayin (a kavya in six cantos) Konarke (a long poem kavya) Mayadebi (a kavya in 6 cantos) Kharabela (a historical kavya in 25 cant) Dasa Nayaik (a long poem kavya), Aryajloan, (Aryas life, a critical treatise on Aryan civilisation) many other books for children Address P O Sakhipogal Dist Puri (Orissa)

DAS, THE HON MR JUSTICE PROFULLA BANJAN, Judge, High Court, Patna, 1919 b 28 April, 1881 Educ St Xavier's College, Calcutta m. Dorothy Mary Evans, 1904 Address All Mahul, Patna.

DAVISON DEXTER HARRISON, Doctor of Dental Surgery b 28 Sept 1869 m Margaret St Clair Educ Chicago University Address Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Apollo Bunder Bombay

DE, KIRAN CHANDRA, A.B., C.I.E, I.C.S., b Calcutta, 19 January 1871 Educ Presidency College, Calcutta, St. John's College Cambridge Registrar of Co-operative Societies, also Finlay Officer, 1905, Magistrate Collector Rangpur, 1911 Member of Bengal District Administration Committee, 1913 Press Censor, Bengal, 1914 Secretary

to Government to Bengal, General Dept. 1915 Commissioner of Chittagong Division, 1916-21 Member of the Legislative Council, of the Governor General of India, 1920, Commissioner of Burdwan Division, 1922, Commissioner Presidency Division 1923 Member of the Board of Revenue Bengal 1924-28 Member of the Council of State, 1928 retired from Indian Civil Service Dec. 1928 Chairman, Bengal Banking Inquiry Committee from August 1 1929 to May 1930 Address 1 Dumdum Road, Cossipore, Calcutta, Brookside Shilling

DEHLAVI, THE HON SIR ALI MAHOMUD KHAN Kt, Bar-at Law (1898), President, Bombay Legislative Council b 1874 Educ Bombay and London Practised in Gujarat and Sindh Started a paper called *Al Haq* in the interests of Hind Zeminat and edited it for three years Dewan at Mangrol (Kathiawar) and Palanpur acted as Judge of the Small Causes Court, Bombay, Minister for Agriculture, 1924-27 Publications History and Origin of Polo Mendicancy in India Address Saddar House Surat

D MELLO, RIGHT REV MONSIGNOR JOHN OFFICER M. VICAR, Church of Our Lady of Victories Mahim Bombay b 15 Oct 1878 Educ at St Teresa School Gurgaum St Xavier's High School and College Bombay, Papal Seminary, Kandy Assistant Parish Priest at Rosary Church, Maragon Parish Priest at Kandi at Culvern Gora Chaplain at Umerkhal Bombay Address Church of Our Lady of Victories Mahim, Bombay

DE MONTMORENCY, SIR GEORGE FITZGERVEY K.C.S.I. K.C.I.E, K.C.V.O., C.B.E I.C.S., Governor of Punjab (1928) b 28 Aug 1876 Educ Malvern Pembroke College Cambridge Entered I.C.S. 1899 Deputy Commissioner, Lyalpur, 1907, Settlement Officer, Chenab, 1907, Junior Secy to Financial Commissioner 1911 on special duty in connection with transfer of capital to Delhi, 1913, Personal Assistant and Dy Commr till 1918, Dy Secretary, Foreign and Political Dept, Govt of India, 1920-21, Chief Secretary to H R H the Prince of Wales during the Royal Tour in India Chief Secretary to Punjab Government, Private Secy to the Viceroy 1921-22, Member, Punjab Executive Council, 1926-28 Address Lahore and Simla

DENHAM WHITE, ARTHUR, Lt COL I.M.S., M.B.B.S. (Hons), Lond 1904, M.R.C.S. L.R.C.P. (Eng) 1905 F.R.C.S., Civil Surgeon, Allpore, Calcutta b Feb 26 1879 m E Gratton Geary (nee Davie) Educ Malvern College and St. Bartholomew Hospital, Gold Medalist Netlev Entered I.M.S. 1905 Resident Surgeon Medical College Hospital, Calcutta also Eden Hospital and Presidency General Hospital, active service in Mesopotamia, 1915-18, Off. Professor of Surgery, Medical Course in 1922, Civil Surgeon, Darjeeling 1919-1922, Civil Surgeon, Allpore, 1923. Publications Monograph on delayed Chloroform Poisoning, Monograph on Toxic Effects of Organic Arsenic. Address 23, Allpore Park Calcutta.

DILNING HOWARD, BA (Cantab) C I F,
F C S, Additional Secretary to the Govt of
India, Finance Department b 30 May
1885 m Margery Katherine Wemyss
Brown Educ Clifton College and Jesus
College Cambridge 10th Wrangli Indian
Civil Service Assistant Collector Bombay
Presidency Under Secretary Finance Depart-
ment of India Joint Secretary of Babington
Smith Currency Commission Deputy Control-
ler of the Currency Bombay and Controller
of the Currency Address Imperial Secre-
tariat, New Delhi

DIBAT RAMRAO PILLAI JP b 18th March
1876 m to Laxmi eldest d of late N
J Mankar once Chf Translater Bombay
High Court Educ Iphinstone High
School and Wilson College Joined the
Municipal Commissioners Office in 1899
subsequently taken up as an Asst in the
Municipal Corporation Office where he rose to
be Secretary to which he was appointed in
January 1925 Address Bhimbal Kanes
Building 263 Chattri Road Curganna Bombay

DISHMUKH, GOPAL VINAYAK I M & S
(Bombay) F R C S (Lond) M D (Lond)
Consulting Surgeon and Physician b 4th
Jan 1881 m Annapurambai d of Dishmukh
of Wan Educ Morris Coll Nagpur Grant
Medical College, Bombay King's College
and the London Hospital Medical College
London House Surgeon to Jordan Lloyd
Professor of Surgery in Univ of Birmingham
at Queen's Hospital Hon Major at Lady Har-
dinge Hospital during war and Surgeon at J
J Hospital and Professor of Operative Surgery
at Grant Medical College (1920) Professor
of Surgery at Government's Sudderdas
Medical College and Hon Surgeon at King
Edward Hospital Member Bombay Munici-
pal Corporation from 1922 and President
Bombay Municipal Corporation 1928 Publica-
tions Some papers on Abdominal Surgery
publications on Social Reform Improving
the Position and Status of Hindu Women
Address Chhatpati Bombay

DISHMUKH RAMRAO MAHADEVRAO DA
LL B Bar at Law b 25 November 1891
m Shashikuma Raje d of late Sardar Radham
of Gwalior Educ at Cambridge President
All India Marathi Conference, Belgaum 1917
practised at Amravati in 1918 and at Nagpur,
1919-20 elected to C P Legislative Coun-
cil in 1920 for Amravati West Constituency
elected to All India Congress Committee in
1921, elected to Legislative Council in 1923
as Swarajist, President of the Maharashtra
Conference at Satara in 1925, elected first
Chairman of District Council Amravati 1926,
resigned his membership of the Legislative
Council in October 1926 elected to the
Legislative Assembly in February 1928
elected to the C P Council for Amravati Central
Constituency as Responsivist in November
1928 Minister to C P Government 1927-
1928 Resigned the Ministry in August 1928
took office again in August 1929 Resigned
Ministership in July 1930 in consequence of
Bharat Responsivist Party joining Forest
Satyagraha Address Secretariat Nagpur
C P and Amravati (Bharat)

DISHPANDI SHANTARAM RAMKRISHNA, BA,
Bour 1st Class Honours B Litt (Oxon)
Diploma in Economics and Politics and in
Educational Theory and Practice (Oxon)
Senior Investigator Labour Office, Secretariat,
Bombay b 14th May 1890 m Miss Leela
Raje Educ Iphinstone High School and
Wilson College Bombay and University of
Oxford Appointed Senior Investigator
Labour Office 1924 succeeded as Director
Labour Office 1927 at the time to the Royal
Commission on Indian Labour 1929 Publica-
tions Some Village Studies written in
collaboration and published in the Indian
Journal of Economics 4 Vols 14th Band
Khar Bombay -1

DISHKACHARI, SIR TIFUMALJI DIWAN
BARADARAJ (1923) BA B L resident
of a Bar at High Court Advocate
1 Sep 1886 m cousin d of Diwan Bahadur
T M Rangachari Educ Iphinstone and
Presidency Colleges was Member, Madras
Local Council President District Board
Trichinopoly for three terms till 17 April 1926
Member of the Legislative Council for two
terms till 19-4 Member, Civil Justice Com-
mittee India till 1925 Member, Madras
Lancency Committee 1927-28 Address
Venkata Park Reynolds Road Canton-
ment Trichinopoly

D) VADHAR GOPAL KRISHNA, MA C I F,
(Kaiser-i Hind Gold Medal in 1920) Pres-
ident, Servants Society b 1871 m Dwarakabai
Sahani of Poona (decd) Educ New
English School Poona, and Wilson College,
Bombay M A Bombay University, 1904
Served as Principal of the Aryan Education
Society's High School in Bombay was
Examiner of the Bombay University for
Matriculation and M.A examinations in
Marathi for more than five years Joined
the late G K Gokhale in his public work
1904, and was first member to join Servants
of India Society, 1905 awarded Kaiser-i Hind
Silver Medal in 1914 Worked as Vice
President of the Servants of India Society
for 8 years since 1923 and is again re-elected
Vice President of the Society for 8 years
more He has been ever since its beginning
the Head of Bombay Branch Toured
in England and on the Continent in 1918 as
member of Indian Press Delegation He
is the founder and Hon Organiser and
General Secretary of the Poona Servants
Society started in 1909 and now Hon
General Secretary of the National Social
Conference Provided over the Provincial
Social Conference in 1920 at Solapur and over
the National Social Conference in 1924 at
Lucknow Organiser of the Mahabharat
Fund 1921 and South Indian and Malabar
Flood Relief Fund in 1924 Organised a Fund
on behalf of the Servants of India Society
for the relief of the flood-stricken in Gujarat
Kathawar Baroda Sind and Orissa in 1927
served as member of Committee on Co-opera-
tion appointed by Mysore Government and the
Government of Madras Gave evidence
before the Royal Commission on Agriculture
as President of the Provincial Co-operative
Institute, Bombay has worked on several
Committees appointed by Government
For two years before retirement was the

- elected President of the Bombay Central Co-operative Institute of which for more than five years he had been Vice President. Director Provincial Co-operative Bank. Has published several pamphlets on Co-operation, Female Education and Moral Reform. Chairman Executive Committee of the Deccan Agricultural Association has undertaken Village uplift work at Akhedshivapur fifteen miles from Poona on Mahabaleshwar Road. Member of the Advisory Board of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, Simla. Member of the Indian Central Banking Inquiry Committee. Simla. Chairman Council of the Aryan Education Society Bombay. In June 1927 was unanimously elected President of the Servants of India Society, Poona. Address Ghirgaum, Bombay.
- DIFF GEORGE GOODART C.I.E. (1928)** Secretary and Chief Engineer P.W.D. Bengal. b 13 September 1876 in Fife. May Day Educ. Bedford School and Royal Indian Engineering College Coopers Hill. Assistant Engineer P.W.D. 1st Oct 1899. Executive Engineer July 1907. Superintending Engineer July 1915. Chief Engineer and Secretary, April 1921. Address Writers Buildings Calcutta.
- DHAI BAKSHI RAOSHIBH SINGH RAO BHADUR (1912), C.I.E. (1923)** C.S.I., Retired President of State Council Bharatpur. b 1863. Educ. privately. Sardar holding a hereditary jagir, Sardar allowances etc. from the State. Entered Bharatpur State service at an early age promoted a Member of the Council of Panchayat of Sardars in the time of His late Highness Maharaja Jaswant Singh Sahib Bahadur, subsequently appointed Dhau and Guardian to His late Highness Maharaja Shri Kishan Singh Sahib Bahadur. Was a member of Indian Students Advisory Committee for Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara. Address Bharatpur.
- DHRANGADHRA, H. H. MAHARAJA SRI SRI GHANESHWARJI, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. MAHARAJA RAJ SARKH b 1889** Son father 1911 Educ. in England with private tutors under guardianship of Sir Charles Ollivant. Address Dhrangadhra Hathlawar.
- DHURANDHAR, RAO RAHADEY MAHADEV VISHWANATH A.M. b 4th March 1871** m (arranged) 4th daughter of Madhwaraj Rao Educ. Rajaram High School Kolhapur and at the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. Appointed as a painting master on the staff of the School of Art then as Head Master in 1909 to 1918. Acted as Inspector of Drawing and Craft Work. Donor Presidency, in 1918 and 1919 and again in 1920 and in 1925. Retired as Personal Assistant to the Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, in March 1928 and was re-appointed as Visiting Professor of Painting, was selected to decorate the Hon. Law Member's room, Imperial Secretariat, New Delhi, Chairman of the Boards of Examiners, Government of Bombay Art Examinations, one of the Trustees of the Prince of Wales Museum of Western India, Bombay. Publications (1) Deccan Nursery

Jales (2) "Stories of King Vikram S.M. Edwards (J.C.S.I.) Byways of Bombay Otto Rothfeld a (I.C.S.) Women of India and several other Marathi Gujarathi Hindi and Mythological books for Messrs Macmillan & Co. Oxford University Press Longmans Green & Co. and several other Indian publishing firms. Address Shree Amba Sadan Prabhu Nagar Khar, Bombay No 21.

DICK, GEORGE PARTS, C.I.E. 1918 Bar-at-Law Member of C.P. Legislative Council 1921 and of each preceding Council. Govt Advocate C.P. b 1866 m. Edie Geraldine Newman Educ. Dulwich College called to Bar Middle Temple 1889 Advocate of Calcutta High Court, 1898 of the Judicial Commissioner Court Nagpur, 1891, Lecturer in Law to the Morris College Nagpur until 1924. President New English High School and President Nagpur Civil Station Municipal Council for years. Member of the Legislative Council before the Reforms and continuously to date. Publications Fit and His Fortunes. Address Nagpur, (1).

DINAJPUR LITFUTWANT MAHARAJA JASADISH NATH RAY RAHADEY b 1894 s by adoption to Maharaja Sir Girja Nath Ray Bahadur, K.C.I.E. m 1916 Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta. President, Dinajpur Landholders Association, later Chairman, District Board and Municipality Dinajpur. Member Bengal Legislative Council. Vice President British Indian Association. Member Bengal Landholders Assn., Asiatic Society of Bengal, East India Assn. London Calcutta Literary Society North Bengal Zamindars Assn. Bangiya Sahitya Parishat Board and Transport Development Association. Received King's Commission in Jan 1924. Address Dinajpur Rajbati, Dinajpur 90A Bakulbagao Road Calcutta.

DONALD, DOUGLAS C.B.J. (1921), C.I.E. Commandant, B.M. Police and Samana Rifles. b 1865, Educ. Bishop Cotton School, Simla, Joined the Punjab Police Force at Amballa 1888, transferred to Peshawar, 1899, appointed C.B.M. Police, Kohat, 1899 served Miran-zai Expeditions, 1891, on Samana posts and Tirah, re transferred to Kohat 1899 on special duty to raise Samana Rifles. Address Military Police, Kohat.

DORNAKAL, BISHOP of since 1912, Rt. Rev. VEDANAYAKAM SAMUEL AKARIAH 1st Indian Bishop, Hon. L.L.D. (Gentab), b 17 Aug. 1874 Educ. O.M.S. High School, Mangalore, C.M.S. College, Tinnevely, Madras Christian College. One of founders of Indian Missionary Society of Tinnevely 1908. Hon. Secretary 1903-9, Hon. Gen. Secretary of National Missionary Society of India 1908-9, visited Japan as Delegate of World Student Christian Federation, 1907, and its Vice-President, 1909-11. visited England as Delegate to World's Missionary Conference 1910. Head of Dornakal Mission 1909-13. Publications Holy Baptism, Confirmation, First Corinthians India and Missions. The Acts of the Apostles, The Life of Christ according to St. Mark. Address Dornakal Singarent Collieries, Deccan.

DCBEY DOMI LALL, M.A. (Allahabad) Ph.D. (London) Professor of Economics Meerut College b Sept 1897 Educ. Astra College (1916-1922) and the London School of Economics and Political Science (1928-1930) Professor of Economics Meerut College since 1923 Publications Indian Economics (1927) and The Indian Public Debt with a foreword by Sir George Schuster (1930) Address Meerut College Meerut

DUFF, REGINALD JAMES J.P. Hon. Privy Councillor Magistrate General Manager, New India Assurance Company Ltd. Bombay b 11 July 1884 m. Olivia A. Lockhart Educ. Whitgift Grammar School North British and Mercantile Insurance Co. Ltd. London and Bombay Address Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay

DUGGAN, JAMES FINLAY WILSON, O.B.E. D.O. (Oxon) F.R.C.S. (Edin) F.R.C.S. (Lond) F.R.C.S. (Ireland) J.P. Ophthalmic Surgeon in charge Sir L. T. Ophthalmic Hospital and Professor of Ophthalmology Grant Medical College Bombay b 8 April 1884 m. Miss Parikh Educ. Bombay Oxford Vienna and London Was Tutor in Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to War Hospitals and Ophthalmic Surgeon, Farns General Hospital Bombay in Private Ophthalmic Practitioner Fellow of the Bombay University and Honorary Privy Councillor, Bombay Publications Papers on Spring Catarrh Anterior Keratitis Gonorrhoea and allied diseases of the eye Artificial Eye Traumatic papilla Squint cases and Sub Conjunctival Injections in the eye A familiar group of the Sclerotics Deep Infiltration Anaesthesia in Ophthalmic Operations A family of Anhidria A case of Rhinospiridium Knealyi A family with Bile Sclerotics Milk Therapy in eye diseases Intravenous injections of Mercurochrom in suppurative eye conditions Two cases of Quinine Amblyopia with unusual Ophthalmic microscope pictures Address The Lawn side, Harkness Road, Malabar Hill Bombay

DUFFIN, THE REV. JOSEPH S.J. Ph.D. D.D. Principal, St. Xavier's College Bombay b March 18 1885 Educ. the Gymnasium Wehrhach Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, St. Joseph's College Turnhout Belgium Manresa House, Beauchamp London, St. Mary's Hall Stonyhurst, Imperial College South Kensington, St. Mary's Theological Seminary Kurseong India Gregorian University Rome Campion Hall, Oxford Professor at St. Xavier's College Calcutta 1910-1911, Professor at St. Xavier's College Bombay, 1918-1921, Principal of St. Xavier's College Bombay, from 1924 Address St. Xavier's College, Cruckshank Road, Bombay

DUNI CHAND, LALA B.A. Licentiate in Law Honours in Persian and Literature, (1893) Member, Legislative Assembly, Vakalat and Public Work b 1873 m. Shrimati Bhagdevi Educ. Forman Christian College and Oriental

Coll., Lahore Practised at the bar until 1921 Entered public life and took part in various activities of the Arya Samaj since 1899, was Manager of Anglo-Sanskrit High School Ambala, from 1906-1921 Member, Managing Committee D.A.V. College resumed practice in 1923, presided over All India Sud Conference in 1917, been a member, All India Congress Committee since 1920 was convicted and sentenced to six months imprisonment in 1922 under Criminal Amendment Act, presided over Punjab Provincial Conference held in Rohtak in 1923 was 5th member of the Second Legislative Assembly Suspended practice in 1930 Nominated Member Working Committee of All India Congress Committee Elected President Punjab Provincial Congress Committee Aug 1930 Address Kripa Bhavan Ambala

DUNN, CUTHBERT TINDSAY, M.C. Col. I.M.S. I.R.I.P. V. S. (Lah.) J.P.H. (Lond) (1911) (1924), Sri Lanka Order of St. Savva, 4th Class (1920) Director of Public Health United Provinces b 17th May 1875 m. to Janet Foyan Dalziel Educ. Dollar Academy and Edinburgh University South African War 1914-1916 to August 1902 Entered I.M.S. 1st September 1902, Tibet Campaign, 1904 Civil Employ Punjab 1905 to 1910 on plague duty Deputy Sanitary Commissioner U.P. 1910-1914 War services 1914 to 1919 Three times mentioned in despatches Director of Public Health, U.P. 1919 to date Publications Jimlan Hygiene and Public Health Dunn and Pandya 1913 Various papers in scientific journals The Chemistry and Bacteriology of Public Health, Dunn and Pandya 1920 Address Lucknow

DUFF AMAR NATH L.A. B.L. M.L.A., of late Mr. Durga Dass Dutt and Srinati Jugai Mohini Dutt Advocate Calcutta High Court b 18 May 1876 m. Srinati Tincari Ghosh 1897 daughter Sandhyabara born 1902 son, Asok Nath b 1905 Educ. Salkia A.S. School Howrah Alipon and Municipal School Calcutta Metropolitan Institution and Presidency Coll was Chairman, Local Board Member, District Board Secretary, People's Association District Association Central Co-operative Bank Ltd. Burdwan elected Member, Court of the University of Delhi and elected Member, Indian Legislative Assembly was President Bengal Postal Conference and All India Telegraph Union and of the Shuddhi Conference and President Arya Samaj and was editor of monthly magazine Alo Address Rurki Aloy, Amlahpur P.O. and Puriachal, Burdwan

DUNN, JAMES EDWARDS, M.A., I.C.S. (1929) I.C.S. Commissioner, Central Provinces Joined I.C.S. in 1902 and arrived in India in 1903 Asst. Commissioner Registrar to the Judicial Commissioner's Court and Settlement Officer from 1908 to 1915 3rd Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, 1916 Deputy Commissioner 1917 Commissioner of Settlement and Director of Land Records, C.P. 1922 and Commissioner 1929 Address Nagpur, Central Provinces

EASTLEY, CHARLES MORTIMER J.P. Solicitor and Notary Public b 2 September 1890 m Esme Beryl Chester Winton. *Educ* Fagnton Devon, England La Villa Onchy Louanne Switzerland Dr F Schiller Altes 5 Coburg Germany. Served in the Great War from 1914-1919 as Lieut R.F.A. (1 F) in India, as an Observer and Pilot in R.F.C. and as a Pilot in the R.A.F. against the Mohmands on the N.W.F. in 1916 against the Marri in Baluchistan in 1917 against the Turks at Aden in 1918, against the Afghans in 1919. *Address* C/o Little & Co, Solicitors and Notaries Public, Central Bank Building Bombay

IWDANK ROBERT BENSON B.A. (Oxon) B.L.S. (1924) I.C.S. Secy to Govt of Bombay, General Department, b 22 Oct 1888 m Frances Helen d of Rev W F Simpson of Calbeck, Cumberland. *Educ* Queens Coll, Oxford Asst Coll and Asst Pol Agent, 1907, Registrar of Co-operative Societies Bombay, 1912-20 Secretary to Imperial Committee on Co-operation, 1920-24 Deputy Secretary to Govt of India successively in Commerce, Rev and Agric, P.W.D. and Education Health and Land Departments, 1924 Secretary, Colonies Committee, London 1925. *Officiated as* Private Secretary to H. E. Lord Reading Secretary Back Bay Enquiry Committee 1926 Delegate of the Government of India in East Africa, 1927-28. *Publications* Bombay Co-operative Manual and Indian Co-operative Studies. *Address* Secretariat, Bombay

FARIDKOT H. H. FARZAND I SAADAT NISHAN HAZRAT KADIR ALI HINDI BANG, RAJA HAN INDAI SINGH FARIDKOT b 1915 m in 1919 rules one of the Sikh States of the Punjab. *Address* Faridkot Punjab

FARHAN, ARTHUR COURTNEY M.A., B.A. (1911) F.R. Hist. Society, Professor of History Deccan College Poona b June, 1890. *Educ* Trinity Coll, Dublin. *Address* Deccan College, Poona

FATEH ALI KHAN, HON. HAJEE, NAWAB KILASHAH, O.L.E. b 1892 S to headship of Kilashahes, 1896. Placed himself and his great clan at disposal of Government for Chitral campaign, and induced many of tribes across border to adopt attitude of pacific non intervention. For this service, received 8,000 acres of land in Chenab Canal Colony for settlement of his followers, has served on Punjab Legislative Council, representative of Punjab at Bannu Conference, 1897, Life President of Anjuman-e-Islamia Lahore, and Imamia Association of Punjab, a Councillor of Attobiam Chiefs College, Lahore. Fellow of Punjab University. Trustee of Allgarh College, *How* s Nisior Ali Khan. *Address* Attobiam Chiefs Coll, Lahore

FAWCUS, GEORGE ERNEST M.A. (Oxon) (C.L.E. 1927), O.B.E. (1928), V.D. (1923) Director of Public Instruction Bihar and Orissa. b 12 March 1885 m (1911) Mary Christine, d of the late Walter Dawes J.P. of Eves, Sussex. *Educ* Winchester College and New College, Oxford. Joined the I.C.S. 1909, Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa, since 1917. *Address* Patna, B.I.E.

FAZULBHOY CURRIMBHOY, Sir (1913) O.B.E. (1920), Merchant and Millowner b 4 Oct 1872 m Bai Sakinabai, d of the late Mr Databhoj Ebrahim. *Educ* privately Municipal Corporation for over 21 years Chairman, Standing Committee (1910-11) President, 1914-15 Represented Bombay Millowners' Association on Bombay Prov Council, 1910-12 and Bombay Mahomedans on Imperial Legislative Council, 1918-16 represented Bombay Corp on Board of the Prince of Wales Museum of W India, now a nominated Member by the Government. Hon. Secretary Bombay Presidency War Relief Fund. Appointed by Government Member of various Committees and Commissions Chief being the Weights and Measures Committee, Committee on the education of Factory Employees, and the Commission for Life Saving Appliances, invited by Government to be one of the three delegates from India to the International Financial Conference at Brussels convened by the Council of the League of Nations 1920. Conferred with many of the principal industrial concerns in Bombay, and a Member of the Local Board of the Imperial Bank of India Chairman Indian Merchants Chamber and Bureau 1914-15. An active Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners Association being Chairman 1907-8. A keen advocate of education, particularly of Mahomedans Member of the Anjuman-e-Islamia Bombay, a Trustee of the Aligarh College, a Vice President of the All India Muslim League, a Member of the Committee of the Muslim University Foundation Association Sheriff of Bombay, 1926. *Address* Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill Bombay

FAZL I H. SAINI, THE HON. MIAN SIR, B.Y. (1925) K.C.I.E., B.A. (Punjab) M.A. (Lancaster) Bar-at Law (Grat. s Inn) Member of the Governor General's Executive Council (Department of Education, Health and Lands) since 1st April 1930 b 14 June 1877 m eldest d of Mian Nur Ahmad Khan. *Educ* Christ's College Cambridge Practised in Sialkot, 1901-5 in the Punjab High Court, Lahore, 1905-20, Presdt, High Court, Bar Association, 1910-20, Professor and Principal Islamia College, 1907-8 Secretary Islamia College, 1908-18, Fellow, Punjab University 1909-1920 Sydnin Punjab University, 1918-1921 represented Punjab University on Legislative Council, 1917-20 President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference 1922, started Muslim League, 1905 Title of K.B. 1917 President, Punjab Prov Conference 1910 elected to Punjab Legislative Council, 1920 Appdt Minister of Education, Punjab, 1921, re-elected unopposed to Punjab Legis Council 1923 re-appointed Minister of Education Punjab, 1924 Temp additional Member of H.E. The Governor General of India's Council, Aug 1925 Re-appointed Minister of Education Nov 1925, Appdt Revenue Member, Punjab, 1926 Leader of the House in the Punjab Leg Council July 1926 to March 1930 Member of the Indian Delegation to the League of

Nations 1927 Temporary Member, Governor General's Executive Council (Dept. of Education Health and Lands), Aug 1929 *Address* The Retreat Simla 6 King Edward Road, New Delhi

FILOSE, Lt Col. CLEMENT, M.V.O. Military Sec to Maharaja of Gwalior, since 1901, & 1853 *Educ.* Carmelite Monastery Clon dakin, Carlow Collge. Entered Gwalior State service, 1872, Lt Col 1903 Assistant Inspector-Gen Gwalior Police and General Inspecting Officer 1893-97, A-D C to the Maharaja Scindia 1899-1901 *Address* Gwalior

FORSTER, MARTIN ONSLOW, Ph D (Wurtzburg), D Sc (London) F I C, I R S (1905), Director Indian Institute of Science Bangalore (1922) & 1872 *Educ.* Private schools, Finsbury Technical College, Wurtzburg Univ. Central Technical College, South Kensington Asst Prof of Chemistry, Royal College of Science, 1902-13 Director Siltov Institute of Industrial Chemistry, 1918-22 Hon Secretary, Chemical Society, 1904-10, Treasurer 1915-22 Longstaff Medalist, 1916, President of Chemistry Section British Association 1921, President Indian Science Congress 1925 *Publications* Contributions to Transactions of the Chemical Society, *Address* Hebbal Bangalore

FOLQUIER, Rt Rev Eugene Charles Vicar Apostolic of Northern Burma and Titular Bishop of Corymbus, since 1900 & 1868 *Address* Mandalay

FOWLER, Gilbert John D Sc, F I C, I R S hon 1 & 1868 *Educ.* School School Sonner set Owens College Manchester, Manchester University For 20 years in service of Rivers Committee of Manchester Corporation Responsible for treatment of the sewage and trade-effluents of Manchester. Pioneer of *Activated Sludge* process of sewage purification. World wide reputation as sanitary expert Consulted by City of New York, Chio Shanghai and Hankow. First visited India in 1900 on special duty for Government of Bengal purification of jute mill effluents. From 1916 to 1924 Professor of Applied Chemistry and later of Bio Chemistry at the Indian Institute of Science Bangalore. During the war was Consulting Adviser to the Government of India on the production of acetone, used in the manufacture of cordite. Was appointed Principal of the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute Cawnpore, in July 1927. Retired in November 1929, after assisting in framing a policy for the conduct of the Institute accepted by Government. Has been President of the Indian Chemical Society, is Honorary Corresponding Secretary for India of the Institute of Chemistry of Great Britain and Ireland and Honorary Corresponding Member of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society. Has published many scientific papers and discourses. *Address* Central Hotel, Bangalore, 8 India

FREKE Cecil George, M A (Cantab), B Sc (Lond) F R S I C S, Special Officer Govt of Bombay, Finance Dept April 1929 & 8 Oct 1887 m Judith Mary Marston. *Educ.* Merchant Taylor's School, London, St. John's College, Cambridge Entered L O S 1912

Under Secretary, Government of India, Commerce and Industries Department 1919 Director General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics 1921-1926 Deputy Secretary, Government of Bombay, Finance Department 1925-1929 Offg Finance Secretary 1929-30 *Address* Secretariat Bombay

FULBERTON REAU-ADMIRAL ERIC JOHN Arthur C B (1930) D S O (1915) R N M A (hon) Commander in Chief East India Station & 1878 m 1908 Hon Dorothy Silver 2nd d of First Lord Fisher. In command Monitor Mervin Humber Mersey during engagement with right flank German Army on Belgian Coast 1914 (Promoted Captain Dec 1914 despatches) in command in shore operations against German cruiser Königsberg Ruffel River Africa, 1916 (despatches D S O) despatches for subsequent operations on coast of G P A, commanded battleship Orion Grand Fleet, 1916-18 in charge Naval Officers (Cambridge University 1919-21) Captain of the Fleet H M S Queen Elizabeth Atlantic Fleet August 1921-23 Commodore Royal Naval Barracks, Chatham, 1923-1925, Rear Admiral 1926, Naval Secretary to the 1st Lord of the Admiralty 1927-29 *Address* H M S Kinghampton Resident Naval Officer Colombo, Ceylon.

FYSON, Philip Furlay M A (Cantab) F I S, Principal I R S Coll Madras & 1877, m Diana Ruth Wilson 1914 *Educ.* Loretto School Sidney Sussex College, (Cambridge) (Scholar) Professor of Botany Presidency College, Madras 1914-1921 *Publications* Flora of the Nilgiri and Palney Hills top Botany for India *Address* Presidency College House Madras

FYZEE I SHAMIN 4 Artist b 19 Dec 1890 m Atiya Begum B Fyzee sister of Her Highness Nazli Bialya Begum of Janjira *Educ.* School of the Royal Academy of Arts, London and privately with John Sargent, B A and Sir Solomon J Solomon B A London Exhibitor at the Royal Academy Annual Exhibitions, privately at the Gallery George Petit in Paris (couple) and Arthur Tooth's in London Knottlers Anderson's New York and at the Palace of Fine Arts in San Francisco. In 1925 the National Gallery of British Art acquired two paintings for their permanent collection now hung in the Tate Gallery, Milbank In 1926 and 1927 painted the first dome in the Imperial Secretariat in New Delhi For several years Art Adviser to H H the Gaekwar of Baroda *Publications* History of the Bene Israelites of India *Address* 'Awan-Rih at Ridge Road Malabar Hill Bombay

GAJENDRAGADKAR, ARNAVATHAMA BALA CHARYA M A, Ph D M R A S Professor of Sanskrit, Kiphinstone College, Bombay & 1 Oct 1892. m Miss Kamaulabai Shalgram of Satara. *Educ.* Satara High School Satara and the Deccan College Poona Stud First in the First Class in B A., and carried off many prizes and scholarships during the College and University Career Appointed Assistant to Professor of Sanskrit at Kiphinstone Coll Sept. 1915, Lecturer 1917, apptd Prof. of Sanskrit, Kiphinstone College, in 1920. Holds the rank of Lieutenant

ant and commands C Company of the 1st Bombay Battalion, University Training Corps (ITC) Publications Critical editions of many Sanskrit classics for the use of University students which include Kalidasa's *Ritusamhara* Kalidasa's *Shakuntala*, Bana's *Harsacharita* Dandin's *Dashakumara Charita* Bhattacharya's *Venisamhara* Anandabhattas *Tarka-sangraha* etc Address Maharaja Building, Bombay 4

GANDHI, MANMOHAN PURUSHOTTAM, M.A., F.R. Econ. S. F.S.S. Secretary, Indian National Committee, International Chamber of Commerce Secretary Indian Chamber of Commerce Calcutta Secretary Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry 1929-30 India Secy Indian Port Trustees' Association, Calcutta Secretary Swadeshi Prachar Samiti Calcutta Secretary, Bengal Telephone Subscribers League Registrar, Indian Chamber of Commerce Tribunal of Arbitration, Calcutta, Secretary Board of Control to the East India Jute Association, Calcutta s of late Purushottam Kahanji Gandhi of Limbdi, (Kathilwar) b 6th November 1901 m 1926 Rambhagauri d of Sukhlal Chhaganlal Shah of Wadhwan Joined Government of Bombay, Labour Office as Statistical Assistant 1926, Indian Currency League Bombay, as Asst. Secretary 1926, Indian Chamber of Commerce Calcutta 1926 Publications *A Mercantile Machine for India*—a paper read before the Indian Economic Conference, 1926 *Foreign capital in India*—a joint paper read before the Indian Economic Conference 1926 *Modern Economics of Indian Taxation*—being the Sir Manubhai Mohta Prize Essay 1924 *The Indian Cotton Textile Industry Its Past Present and Future 1930*, with a Foreword by Mr G. D. Mills, M.L.A. thoroughly revised and enlarged edition of author's Bombay University Ashburner Prize Essay 1926 (The Book Company College Square, Calcutta Address c/o Indian Chamber of Commerce, 13, Canning Street Calcutta, India

GANDHI, MOHANLAL KARANMOHAN Bar-at-law (Inner Temple) b 2nd October 1869 *Advocate* at Rajkot Bhavnagar and London Practised law in Bombay Kathilwar and South Africa Was in charge of an Indian Ambulance Corps during the Boer War and the Zulu revolt in Natal During the great war raised an ambulance corps and conducted a recruiting campaign in Kaira district Started and led the Satyagraha movement (1918-19) and the non-cooperation campaign (1920) in addition to associating himself with the Khilafat agitation (1919-21) Has championed the cause of Indians abroad, notably those in South and East Africa Sentenced to six years simple imprisonment in March 1922, released Feb 4th 1924 President of the Indian National Congress, 1923. Inaugurated campaign for breach of the Salt Laws April, 1930 Interned 6th May 1930 and released 26th January 1931 Publications *Indian Home Rule* *Universal Dawn*

Young India, Nava Jivan (Hindi and Gujarati) Address Satyagrahshram, Sabarmati B B & C I Railway

GANDHI NAGARAJ PURUSHOTTAM M.A. B.Sc. A.R.S.M., D.I.C., F.G.S., M. Inst. M. M. University Professor and Head of Department of Mining and Metallurgy Benares Hindu University Benares, India, s of late Purushottam Kahanji Gandhi of Limbdi (Kathilwar), b 22nd December 1886; m 1906 Bhivkumar d of Sheth Bhander Lalchand Banpur Secy Bahaddur College Junagad Wilson College, Bombay Imperial College of Science and Technology, London Joined Messrs Tantal Brns as Mining Engineer in Burma in 1915 joined Tata Iron & Steel Co 1916 was appointed General Manager of Messrs Tata Sons Ltd in Tavoy (Lower Burma) where wolfram and tin mining was carried on during the Great War joined Benares Hindu University as University Professor of Mining and Metallurgy in 1919 Address Benares Hindu University, Benares India

GANGARAMA KARLA RA. CIE (June 1930) I. A. & A. S. Controller of Civil Accounts b 9 May 1877 m to Bhagyabharati Wanchoo of Lahore and Delhi Educ Central Model School Lahore and Government College Lahore Entered the service of Government of India as Assistant Examiner of Public Works Accounts 1898 rose to the rank of Accountant General 1921 Accountant General Central Provinces, New Delhi 1925 1928 Director Railway Audit New Delhi and Simla 1929-30 Controller Civil Accounts New Delhi and Simla 1930 appointed to officiate as Auditor General from September 1930 to January 1931 Publications Several departmental orders manuals and reports Address New Delhi and Simla

GANGULI SUPRAKASH nephew of the poet Dr Rabindranath Tagore Artist M.E.A.S. F.B.S.A. (London) Curator, Museum and Art Gallery Baroda b 8th May 1886 m Schimati Tanujabala Devi grand daughter of the late C. K. Tagore Education Doveton College Calcutta subsequently visited Europe chiefly for the study of Fine Arts and Archaeology With the idea of gaining a wider knowledge in the above subjects he held a temporary post in the Imperial Archaeological Survey under late Dr B. B. Spooner Dy Director General of Archaeology in India Here he spent about 6 years doing the work of photographing and listing of the Ancient Monuments in the Provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa Assam and Chota Nagpur and of studying ancient Indian Sculptures in the Indian Museum Calcutta and branches Publications *None* Under preparation 1 A monograph on Rags and Raginis with 36 colour reproductions of old paintings 2 A monograph on Rajput and Kangra Paintings with 12 illustrations 3 Influence of Japanese Art on the Modern Bengal School 4 A short history on the art of brocade weaving in Gujarat 5 Mohani textiles 6 Lacquer-work in India. Address Pushpabag, Baroda.

GARRETT JOSEPH HIGH B.A. (Cantab.)
C.S.I. (Jan 1881) Commissioner Northern
Division Bombay Presidency & 22 June
1884 Educ. Highgate School and Gonville
and Caius College Cambridge. Served in
Bombay as Asst. Collector and Magistrate and
Asst. Settlement Officer. Dept. Commissioner
of Salt and Excise Northern Division Dec
1919 Off. Collector and District Magistrate
and Political Agent Jan 1921 Off. Collr.
and Political Settlement Officer June 1923
and again June 1925 continued in 1926
Off. Commissioner March 1927 and again
February 1928 Address Madurai, Madras
hid

GEDDIS ANDREW J. P. JAMES LINTAY & Co
Limited & 11th July 1888 m Jean Balkis
Gunn & of Dr Gunn George Square Edin-
burgh Educ. George Watson's College
Edinburgh Joined James Finlay & Co Ltd
Bombay 1907 Chairman The Finlay Mills
Ltd, The Surya Mill Swan Mills Ltd, Gooli
Mohar Mills Ltd Director Bank of India
Chairman, Bombay Millowners Association
1920 Millowners Association a representative
on Port Trust & J. P. Railway Advisory
Committee also Director East India Cotton
Association Address Sudama Villa Nepan
Sea Road Malabar Hill

GENYINGS JOHN FREDERICK, Bar at Law
(Middle Temple, 1911) Director of Infor-
mation and Labour Intelligence Bombay
and Acting Commissioner of Workmen's
Compensation & 21 Sept 1885 m Lillith
& of J. Wallis Esq. of (roydon) & &
and Aldburgh "Infolik Educ. Ask
Hatcham and Dulwich Interned
journalism in 1902 and served on the
Editorial Staffs of the Morning Leader
Star, Daily Mail and Daily Telegraph Arms
(25th Buffs. and R. (A.), 1915 1919 War
Office M.I. 7 b Propaganda Section from
Aug 1916 to Feb 1917 Director of Informa-
tion Dec 1920 Ag. Director of the Labour
Office in addition July 1925 to March 1928
Since that date in charge of combined
offices as Director of Information and
Labour Intelligence Address Secretariat
Bombay

GHOSAL MRS (SRIMATI) SWARNA KUMARI
DAVI & of Maharshi Debendra Nath Tagore
and sister of Sir Rabindranath Tagore &
1867 m late J. Ghosal, Amindar Before
twenty published a novel anonymously soon
after became editor of 'Bharati' (first women
editor in India), a Bengali magazine which
she still conducts Address Old Ballygunge
Road Calcutta

GHOSH THE HON. MR. JONATHAN CHARU CHAN
Barr. Judge Calcutta High Court, since
July 1919 & 4 February 1874 Educ.
Presidency College, Calcutta m. NIRMAL
NOLAN, d. of the late Provost Chunder Bose
Vakil, Calcutta, 1898 Called to the Bar in
England, 1907 Address High Court,
Calcutta

GHUZNAVI THE HON. ALHAJY SIR ABDEL
KERIM ABU AHMED KHAN Kt., (1928),
M.L.C., Zemindar and Landowner, Member,

Executive Council Government of Bengal &
2, August 1872 m Lady Saidonnessa
Khanum 1894 Educ. St. Peter's School Ex-
mouth Devonshire Messrs Wren and Gurney's
Institution London Universities of Oxford
and Tena (& many) Returned to
India 1894 and settled on his estates handed
down by his ancestors Fatehbad Khan
Ghuznin Lohani brother of Osman Khan
Ghuznin Lohani the last independent Afghan
Chieftain of Bengal Represented the whole of
E. B. & Assam in both Muslim & Hindu
Interests in the old Imperial Legislative
Council (1899-12) Represented the whole
of Bengal in Modern Interests in Viceroy's
Council (1913-16) Was sent on a political
mission to the Court of ex King Hussein of
Hedjaz as well as to Palestine and Syria to
inquire into the question of Pilgrim Traffic
(1913) Entered Bengal Legislative Council,
1921 and 1926 Appointed Minister Govern-
ment of Bengal in 1924 and 1927
Appointed Member Executive Council
Bengal Government April 1929 Address
North House, Dikdura Myrmensingh Writer's
Buildings, Calcutta

GIDHOUR MAHARAJA BAHADUR CHANDRA
MOHAPSHWAN PRASAD SINGH MAHARAJA
BAHADUR OF GIDHOUR & 1890
Has been a Member of District Board,
Monthly Vice-Chairman, Local Board and
an Honorary Magistrate with independent
powers (to try cases singly) Member of
Legislative Council Bihar and Orissa since
1920-1926 Ldu Vice-President, Bihar Land-
holder's Association Patna President Divi-
sional Landholders Association Bhagalpur
President Baitiyani Temple Committee
and scheme of Management Ascended the
Gadd on 21st November 1923 Title of
Maharaja Bahadur made hereditary in 1877
has a Son and heir-Maharaj Kumar Chandra
Gidhor Singh Address Srivillas Gidhour
in first Munshyr No 3 J. Hungerford Street
Calcutta

GIDIFY HENRY ALBERT JOHN Lt.-COL
I.M.S. (retired) F.R.C.S. F.R.S. D.O.
(Oxon) F.R.S.A. (London) D.P.H. (Cantab.)
J.P. M.L.A. Ophthalmic Surgeon & 9 June 1873
Educ. at Calcutta Edinburgh R. College
University College Hospital, London, Cam-
bridge and Oxford Post Graduate Lecturer,
in Ophthalmology Oxford University (1911)
Entered I.M.S. 1898 Served in China Expe-
dition 1900-01, N.E. Frontier, 1913 N.W.
Frontier, 1914-15 (wounded) Publications
Numerous works on Ophthalmic Surgery
President-in-Chief Anglo-Indian and Domi-
ciled European Association, All-India and
Burma Leader of 1925 Anglo-Indian
Deputation to England Accredited leader of
the Domiciled Community in India and
Burma, Member of Legislative Assembly
Assistant Commissioner Royal Commission
on Labour in India Address 87 A Park
Street Calcutta

GILBERT LODGE, CAPTAIN EDWARD MORTON,
F.S.I. F.I.A. F.A.I. M.P.L. J.P. & 23
Jan 1880 m. May & of Thomas Spencer Esq.
of Norwood, London, & R. Educ. at Sydney,
N. S. Wales, Australia Private practice

- London 1903-1914 Royal Engineer April 1915—May 1920 then retiring to Reserve with rank of Captain, Asst. Land Acquisition Officer, Bombay, May Nov 1920 Land Manager, Development Directorate Nov 1920 to Dec. 1920 Address Churchgate Street.
- GILROY Lt COL PAUL KNIGHTON M C,** (1917) M D, F R O S I M S Superintendent St George's Hospital, Bombay b June 7 1885 m Miss W H Walker Educ Cambridge (Belwyn Coll.) and St George's Hospital Hyde Park Entered I M S Jan 23, 1910 Address 10 Rocky Hill Flats, Lands End Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay
- GINWALA SIR PADAMJI PESTOJI, KT** (1927) B A (Hist Tripos, Cambridge) Barrister at Law, Economic Adviser to Kreniger & Lill Co Ltd, of Stockholm b Nov 1875 m Freany Beonji Educ Govt High School and Gujarat College Ahmedabad Trinity Hall, Cambridge Called to the Bar 1899 Advocate Chief Court of Lower Burma 1900 Asst Govt Advocate 1915 Secretary Legislative Council, Burma 1916 resigned 1920 President Rangoon Municipal Corporation 1922-28 Member Legislative Assembly 1921-23 Member Indian Tariff Board, 1923 President 1929-1930 Address C/o Tata Sons & Co, Bombay House, Bruce Street, Bombay
- GLANCY, BRETHERTON JAMES CIE** (1924), Foreign and Political Department, Government of India. b 31st December 1882 m 1914 Grace Steele Educ Clifton Monmouth, Exeter College Oxford, Indian Civil Service Address Delhi and Simla
- GLANCY, SIR REGINALD ISIDORE ROBERT, C S I** (1921), C I E, Agent to the Governor General Central India (1924) b 1874, m Helen Adelaide, s of Edward Miles Bowen House Educ Clifton College, Christ Church Oxford Entered I C S 1896 Settlement Officer, Bannu 1903, Political Agent, 1907, First Asst. Resident, Hyderabad 1909, Finance Member of Council, H B H the Nizam's Government, 1911-1921 Resident in Baroda, 1922 President of the Cabinet, Jaipur, 1923 Address Indore
- GLASCOCK JOHN RICHARD DOROVAT, C I E** (1928), Agent Burma Railways b 10 June 1877 m Verner O'Reilly Blackwood Educ Bedford and Dublin Price Wills and Reeves, Railway and Port Contractors, 1898-1901, B N Ry, 1901-1903, Burma Railways 1903 to date prior to being Agent was Chief Engineer, 1918 to March 1920 Address 2 C, Fytche Road, Rangoon
- GOLDSMITH, REV MALCOLM GEORGE,** Missionary of C.M.S. in Madras and Hyderabad, Deccan b 1849 Educ Kensington Proprietary Grammar School, St Catherine's College, Cambridge Ordained, 1872 C.M.S. Missionary, Madras, 1872-73, Calcutta, 1874-75, Principal, Harris School, Madras, 1883-81 Hyderabad, 1891-00; Hon Canon, St George's Cathedral, Madras, 1905 Address Royapet House, Royapettah, Madras
- GONDAL His HIGHNESS MAHARAJA THAKORE SANSI SHRI BHAGWAT SURENDRA OF, G C I E, K C I E, b 1865, s of late Thakore Sahib Sagramji of Gondal m. 1881 Nandkraveria, C I, s of H H Maharaja of Dharampore, Educ Rajkumar Coll, Rajkot, Edin Univ Hon LL D (Edin) 1887 M B and C M (Edin) 1892 M R C P (Edin) 1892 D C L (Oxon) 1892, M D (Edin) 1895 F R C P, (Edin) 1896, F C P and S B 1913 Fellow of University of Bombay 1885 F R S E 1909 M R A S, M R I (Great Britain and Ireland) H P A O Publications Journal of a Visit to England, A Short History of Aryan Medical Science Address Gondal, Kathiawar**
- GODWIN, SIR CHARLES ALEXANDER CAMPBELL, Lt GENERAL, C B** (1930), C B, (1924), C M G (1918) D S O (1917) G O C Peshawar Dist b 1873 m Catherine, d of Colonel V Milward, M P, for Worcester Educ at Westward Ho and Sandhurst Joined Suffolk Regt on unattached list to 1895 1st Madras Lancers 1896 transferred 3rd Punjab Cavalry, 1898 Warlikeat Multia and Operations in Waziristan 1900, Staff College 1908-09 Bde Major Meerut Cavalry Brigade G S O 2 Mhow 1914 Great War, France, 1914-17, Palestine, 1917-19, War Office, 1920, Late A D C to the King Order of the Nile (3rd Class) 1918, Order El Nakhda (2nd Class) 1918, French War Cross (1919), Commanded Secondarabad Cavalry Brigade, 1921-23 M G Cavalry, 1923-26 Commandant Staff College, Quetta, 1926-27 Address Bhagwan House Peshawar
- GOODE, WALTER SAMUEL, C I E, I C S, B A** (Hon) Adelaide University 1898, B.A. (Hon) Cambridge 1901 b 26 Nov 1878 m Jean Reed Beatson Ball (deceased) Educ Way College, Adelaide I C S General Ince, Deputy Chairman, Calcutta Corporation Officiating Chairman, Calcutta Corporation Secretary, Local Self Government Department of Bengal Officiating Chairman, Calcutta Improvement Trust Divisional Commissioner Publications Municipal Calcutta Address United Service Club, Calcutta
- GOSWAMI, KUNAR TULSI CHANDRA, M A** (Oxon), Zemindar Member Legislative Assembly Son of Raja Kisorlal Goswami of Scramapore, member of first Bengal Executive Council b 1898 Educ Presidency College, Calcutta Oxford and Paris Delegate elected by the Indian Legislative Assembly to represent India at the August Session (1928) of the Empire Parliamentary Association, Canada, and was Chairman of the Indian Section. Address The Raj Baro, Scramapore Rainey Park, Dallygunge, Calcutta Kamachha, Benares, Puri
- GOUB, SIR HARI SINGH, KT** (1925), M A, D Litt, D C L LL D, Member of the Legislative Assembly Barrister-at Law b 26 Nov 1872 Educ Govt High School, Saugor, Hialop Coll, Nagpur Downing Coll, Cambridge Freem, Municipal Committee, Nagpur, 1918-22, First Vice-Chancellor, and Hon D Litt, Delhi University, re-appointed 1st May

- 1924 1926 Member of Indian Central Committee Elected Deputy President of the Leg Assembly and Vice-President of the Empire Parliamentary Association (Indian Branch) Hon. Member of the Antiquarian Club National Liberal Club and British Empire Society Publications Law of transfer in British India 8 vols (5th Edition), Penal Law of British India 2 vols (4th Edition) Hindu Code 3rd Edition The Spirit of Buddhism His only love Random Rhymes and other poems Address Nagpur C P
- GOWAY HIDE CLARENDOFF BA (Oxon) V D C I E (1928) P I C S Chief Secretary to Government Central Provinces & 4 July 1878 m Pdina Gowan (nee Brown) 1905 Educ at Kistree School 1889 1892 Rugby School 1892 1897 New College Oxford 1897 1901 Univ Coll London 1901-02 Under Secretary to C P Govt. 1901-06 officiated as Under Secretary Commerce and Industries Department, Government of India July to Nov 1908, Settlement Officer Hoshiangabad District 1913-17 Financial Secretary to Govt, C P 1918 1921 Dy Commissioner, Nagpur 1921-23 Financial Secretary to Govt 1925-27 Chief Secretary March 1927 Address Nagpur
- GRAHAM, REV JOHN ANDERSON MA (Linn) D D (Edin) K I H Gold Medal C I L V D F R G S Missionary of Church of Scotland, at Kalimpong Bengal since 1881 founder and Hon Supdt of St Andrews Colonial Homes & 1891 Educ Cardiac Pariah School Glasgow High School Edinburgh University m Lady McCulloch (K I H gold medal) who died 1919 Was in India 1888 in Edinburgh 1877-82 graduated 1888 ordained 1889 Publications On the threshold of three closed lands and the missionary expansion of the Reformed Church es Address Kalimpong Bengal
- GRAHAM, SIR LANCELOT MA (Oxon) K O I E (1930) Bar at Law O I E (1924) I O S, Secretary Legislative Department Government of India (1924) & 18, April 1890 m Olive Bertha Maurice Educ St Paul's School, London and Balliol Coll Oxford Entered Indian Civil Service 1904 Asstt Collector 1904 Asstt Judge 1908 Asstt Legal Remembrancer, Bombay 1911 Judicial Asstt Kathiawar 1913 Joint Secretary, Legislative Department, Government of India, 1921 Address Grindlay & Co Bombay
- GRAHAM WILLIAM FITZWILLIAM, I C K, Provincial Art Officer Supdt of Cottage Industries and Provincial Training Officer since 1925 & 1871 m 1903 Elizabeth Dunlop Dunning, niece of Governor Dunlop of Maine, U S A Educ at Charterhouse and Trinity Hall, Cambridge Supdt and Pol Officer S Shan States Commissioner, Pegu Division in 1918 and again from Feb 1919 to June 1920 Superintendent and P O S S from 1922-25 Address Pegu Club Rangoon.
- RAY ALEXANDER GEORGE Manager Bank of India Ltd and Vice President Indian Institute of Bankers & 1886 m Dubou Muriel Lanny Will 1922 Educ Macleodfield Grammar School Parramatta Ttd Manchester and District arrived India, 1905 entered service of the Bank of India, Ltd 1908 Address 88 Nepolean Sea Road, Malabar Hill Bombay
- GRAVES HON SIR WILLIAM LEWIS KT (1924) Judge of Calcutta High Court since 1914 and Vice-Chancellor Calcutta University since 1924 & 1899 Educ Harrow, Keble College Oxford Asstt Master at Ewelme, nr Oxford 1894-99 called to Bar, Lincoln's Inn 1900 Address High Court Calcutta 31 Marlborough Place N W
- GRIFFIN ATAN NICHAKI, MA (Oxon) I C S Deputy High Commissioner for India (1930) & 11 April 1885 m Joan the only child of Mr and Mrs F D Jikin (1919) Educ St Paul's School London Lincoln College Oxford Joined I C S in 1909 Address India House London
- GRIFFIN LIEUT-CLONEL EDWARD GILSON, C M G 1917 C I E, Deputy Inspector General of Police, Punjab & 1877 Educ Portsmouth Grammar School Asstt Blockade Officer Waziristan 1900 Pol Officer Mohmand Border, 1908 Command Border Military Police, Peshawar 1903-07 For Asst to Inspr-Gen of Pol W F, 1907-9, on special duty Persia Oct 1909 12 Com misleader of police, Mesopotamia
- GRIFFIN Robert George Hon Mds Jst Hon C I E (1930) Active Director of Public Instruction Madras & 18th October 1881 Educ Tetton Oxford Indian Educational Service Address Old College, Nungambakkam Madras
- GRIFFITH, SIR FRANCIS CHARLES, KT (1931) C S I (1928) O B E (1919) King's Police Medal (1916) Insp Gen of Police Bombay Presy 1921 & 6 November 1873 m Ivy Morna daughter of George Jacob, I C S, Educ Blundell's School, Tiverton Joined Indian Police 1898 Commr of Police, Bombay 1919-21 Address Poona
- GULAB SINGH, RIS, BARDAL, M L A Managing Director Panjab Landholders Bank Ltd Lyallpur and Landlord & March 1886 m d of Dr Sardar Jawahir Singh Rels of Lyallpur Educ Government Coll Lahore Headmaster, Govt Sandeman High School, Quetta, for 10 years, Member, Lyallpur and Quetta Municipalities and Dist Board, Lyallpur, and Pres of several co-operative credit societies and association and elected as member of Legislative Assembly 1920 and re-elected in 1923 and re-elected in 1925 unopposed Member Finance Committee, Government of India Hon Magte Lyallpur, for 9 years Address Bhawana Bazar, Lyallpur Panjab

GULAMJILANI, BUKHARI, BARDAN, NAWAB of Wai First Class Sardar of the Desan and a Treaty Chief b 28 July 1888 m. sister of H H The Nawab Sahib Bahadur of Jaora Educ Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for two years 1906-08, was Additional Member, Bombay Legis Council and Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923 was elected Vice President Bombay Presidency Muslim League and is permanent President of Satara District Anjuman Islami Hon A D C to H b the Governor of Bombay, 1920 President of the State Council Jaora State, 10th July 1930 Address The Palace Wai, District Satara

GWALIOR, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA GEORGE JIWALI RAO SIKHIA BAHADUR b 28th June 1918 Succeeded to the gads on 5th June 1925 Address Jai Bilas Palace Gwalior and Madho Bilas Palace Shivapuri C I

HABIB-UL-LAH SAHIB BAHADUR, THE HON KHAN BAHADUR SIR MUHAMMAD A T (1922) K C S I (1927) K C I E (1924), C I E (1920) b Sept 22 1896 m Sadathul Hussain Educ Zilla High School, Saidapet. Joined the Bar in 1923, in 1927 was presented Certificate of Honour on the occasion of Golden Jubilee of the late Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria from 1901 devoted whole time to local self-government and held the position of Chairman of Municipal Council, Pres, Taluk Board and Pres Dist Board, Khan Bahadur 1905 Member, Legislative Council 1909-12, appointed Temporary Member Madras Executive Council 1919 was Commissioner of Madras Corporation 1920 Gave evidence before Royal Commission on Decentralisation and also before Public Services Commission, served as a co-opted member on Reforms Committee, Member, Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India, Nov 1923 March 1924 Member of Council of the Governor of Madras 1920-1924 Member of the Viceroy's Council 1925-1930 Leader of the Indian Delegation to South Africa, 1925-27 Leader of the Indian Delegation to the League of Nations (1920) Address Madras

HADLOW, SIR (FREDERICK) AUSTIN, KT (1926), C.V.O (1922) M Inst C E M Inst Trans V D, Chief Commissioner of Railways b 5 Sep 1875 m Kate Louisa Margary Educ. Bramlome House, Godalming, 1883-1887 Charterhouse, 1887-1892, E I E College Cooper's Hill, 1892-95 Associate Cooper's Hill, 1895 Appointed Asst. Engineer, State Rlys 1895, employed as Asst Engineer on construction of new railways in Bengal 1896-1902, Asst Manager, E B Rly 1902-1904, Asst. Secretary, Railway Board 1905-1909, Manager and Engineer-in-Chief, E G J P, Rly Kathiawar, 1909-1911 Deputy Agent N W Rly, Lahore, 1911-1916, Secretary Railway Board, 1916-1919 Agent North-Western Railway 1919-24 Member Railway Board, 1924 Address Morvyn, Simla W

HAIDER KARBAR JAFRI SYED, Member, Legis. Assembly and Asst. Manager Court of Wards, Balmampur Raj b 8 Dec. 1879

Married Educ. Collegiate School, Balmampur, M.A O Coll, Aligarh Agra College and Metri's Accountancy Institution, Bombay Member, Gonda Dist Board for six years, Member Municipal Board Balmampur for 20 years Hon Magte, Balmampur, for 14 years Vice-Chairman Balmampur Central Co-operative Bank Member, Standing Committee, All India Shia Conference Trustee, Shia Coll Lucknow President and Trustee of the Balmampur Girls School Address Balmampur, Dist Gonda (U P)

HAIG HARRY GRAHAM C I E (1923) C S I (1930) Secretary to Government of India Home Dept, b 11 April 1881 m to Violet May Deas d of J Deas I C B, (retired) Educ Winchester and New College Oxford Entered I C S 1905 Under Secretary to Govt U P 1910-12 Indian Army Reserve of Officers 1915-1919 Deputy Secretary to Govt of India Finance Dept 1920 Sec Fiscal Commission 1921-22 attached Leg Commission 1923-24 Private Secretary to Viceroy 1925 Ag Home Member Govt of India 1930 Address Govt of India Simla and Delhi

HAJIJI, SIR WILLIAM MALCOLM G C I E K C S I I C S, Governor of the United Provinces (1928) Knight of Grace of Order of St John of Jerusalem Hon Fellow, Corpus Christi College Oxford D Litt (Lahore) b 1872 m 1896 Andriana, d of Count Hannibale Balsani Italy Lady of Grace of Order of St John of Jerusalem, F R G S Educ Merchant Taylor's School, Corpus Christi College, Oxford (Scholar) First Class Mod First Class Lit. Hum Colonisation Officer, Jhelum Canal Colony, 1904, Sec., Punjab Govt 1907 Dy Sec Govt of India, 1908 Member, Darbar Committee, 1911, Ch Commr Delhi 1912-19 Finance Member Government of India 1919-1932 Home Member Government of India 1922-1924 Governor of the Punjab 1924-28 Address Governor's Camp U P

HAJI WAJIDUDDIN, KHAN BAHADUR (1928) Proprietor of Pioneer Arms Co Meerut b 1880 During Great Balkan War (1910-12) was Treasurer Meerut Division Red Crescent Fund during Great War (1918) worked as Hon Secretary, Meerut Cantonment War Loan Committee Member of many educational institutions Elected in 1916 to Meerut Municipal Board re-elected in 1919 elected in 1920 to Legislative Assembly re-elected in 1923 Appointed in 1922 to bench of Hon Magistrates appointed 1927 Chairman, Cantonment Bench empowered Justices 1929 Elected in 1922 Hon Secretary to the Central Haj Committee of India Elected unopposed in 1927 to Cantonment Board, re-elected unopposed in 1928 for three years elected Vice-President of Prohibition League of India in 1928 re-elected in 1928 elected President of Meerut Cantonment Residents Association in 1926 Address "Pioneer House, Meerut Cantonment

HAKSAR, COL. KAILAS NARAY B.A., C.I.E.
Mahar-Khas-Bahadur Pol Member Gwallior
Durbar, since 1912 b 1878 Educ Victoria
College, Gwallior Allahabad University Hon
Prof of History and Philosophy, 1899-1902
Priv Sec to Maharaja Sahib in 1903-12
Under-Sec, Pol Dept., on dep 1905 7, Capt
4th Gwallior Imp. Ser Inf, 1902 Col
1924 Director Prince's Special Organisation
(on deputation) 1924-1930 Address
Gwallior

HALL, MAJOR RALPH ELIAS CARR, C.I.E. I.A.
Milly Accts Dept Field Controller Poona
b 1878 Joined army 1894 Major, 1912
served Flanders 1897-98, European War, 1914-17
Address Field Controller, Poona.

HAMILI, HARRY B.A. Principal Elphinstone
College b 3 Aug 1891 m. Hilda Annie
Shippe Educ Royal Aeronautical Institution
Welles, and Queen's University Belfast
After graduation served in British and Indian
Army Appointed to the I.T.S. in 1919
Address Elphinstone College Bombay

HAMILTON C. J. M.A., F.R.S., Indian Edu
national Service Prof of Economics, Patna
College, Fellow of Patna University b 1875
Educ private tutor King's College
London Calcutta College, Cambridge gradu
ated first class Moral Science Tripos 1901
Member of Mosely Educational Commission
to USA 1903 Member of Inner Temple
1903 Dunkin Lecturer at Oxford University,
1912 Minto Prof of Economics, Calcutta
University, 1913-19 Publications Trade
Relations between England and India Ad
dress Patna College Patna

HAMMOND SIR (FREDERICK) LALRIN LUGAS, B.A.
(Oxon) C.B.E. 1918 C.S.I. 1920 K.C.S.I.
(1927) Governor of Assam (1127) b 12
Jan 1873 m. Emily Townsend Warner
Educ Newton Coll, Newton Abbot N
Devon and Kible Coll Oxford Entered
I.C.B. in 1890 Publications Indian Election
Petitions 3 Vols (Pioneer Press, Allah
abad) The Indian Candidate and Re
turning Officer (Oxford University Press)
Address Government House Shillong,
Assam

HAR BILAS SARDA, RAJ SAHIB F.R.S.I.,
M.B.A.S.F.E.S., Member, Legislative Assen
bly b 3 June 1867 Educ Ajmer Government
College and Agr College Was a teacher in
Government College Ajmer, was transferred to
Judicial Department in 1892, apptd Guardian
to H.H. the Maharaja of Jalalpur in 1894
reverted to British service in Ajmer Merwara
in 1902, was Subordinate Judge First Class
at Ajmer till 1919 and was Sub-Judge and
Judge, Small Causes Court, Beawar, till
1921, Judge, Small Causes Court, Ajmer
1921-23, officiated as Addl Dist. and Sessions
Judge and retired in Dec. 1923 and was
Judge Chief Court, Jodhpur Re-elected
Member, Legislative Assembly from Ajmer
Merwara Constituency in 1927 and again in
September 1930 Was elected a member of
Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain
and Ireland, Royal Statistical Society

of London Statistical Association of Boston,
I.S.A. Royal Society of Literature
Teachers Guild of Great Britain and Ireland,
is Secretary of Paropkarini Sabha of India
Publications Hindu Superiority Ajmer
Historical and Descriptive, Maharana Sanga
Maharana Kumbha Maharaja Hammir
of Ranthambhor Prithviraj Vijaya
Address CIVIL Lines Ajmer Rajputana

HARI KISHAN KATI RAJA PARMIT M.A.
C.S.I. (I.T.) Raj Bahadur b 1889 s of Raja
Pandit Suraj Kanti (I.P. Educ Govt
Coll Lahor Asst Commr 1890 Jun
Secy to Financial Commr 1893-97 District
Judge Lahore 1897-98 Deputy Commr
Jhang 1899 Settlement Officer Musaffar
garh 1898-1901 s of Mianwall 1903-8
Dy Commr 1906 Dy Commr Muz
Fargarh 1908-09 Dy Commr and Supdt
Census Operations Punjab 1910-12 Dy
Commr Montgomery 1913 on special duty
to report on Criminal Tribes Dec 1913 April
1914 Deputy Commissioner for Criminal
Tribes 1917-19 Dy Commissioner Thum
1919, Commissioner Rawal Pindi Division
1919-20 Commissioner Jhelunder Division
November 1920 to November 1927 apptd
to Royal Commission on Services 1922-1924
Commissioner Rawal Pindi Division 1923
retired Nov 1924 Member, Economic
Inquiry Committee 1925 Member Indian
Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry, In
quiry) 1928-27 Dewan Bharatpur State
April to October 1927 Address 29 LAWRENCE
Road Lahore

HAIRINGTON (GENERAL) SIR (CHARLES)
JAHNNGTON (I.T.) K.C.B. D.S.O. D.C.I.
A.D.C. (General) to the King General
Officer commanding Western Command b
71 May 1872 m. Gladys Norah Gratton
Educ Cheltenham College R.M.C. Sandhurst
The King's Regiment 10th Major 6th Infantry
10th Amdrsht B.G.G.H., Canadian Corps
M.G.B. Second Army in great war D.C.I.
G.S. War Office G.O.C. Army of Black Sea,
G.O.C. Allied Forces of occupation in Turkey
G.O.C. Northern Command England and
G.O.C. Western Command, India Address
Flagstaff House, Quetta

HABISINGHI MAJOR GENERAL, RAJ BAHADUR
THAKUR OF SATTAR (I.T.) G.O.C. Army
Minister, State Council and G.O.C. Bikaner
State 1888 b 1882 Educ Mayo College
Address Sattar House Bikaner

HARI SINGHJI SHREEMAN RAJ BAHADUR
RAJA RAJ SHREE SAKH, G.I.S. (1928) Chief of
Mahajan, Premier Noble of Bikaner State
Title of Rao Bahadur conferred on 12th
December 1911 b 16th October 1877 m
the daughter of the Thakur Sahib of Sathin
in Jodhpur State in 1894 Educ The Mayo
College and the Government College,
Ajmer Member of Council of the Bikaner
State and President of the Walker Kirt
Rajputra Hittkarini Local Sabha, and
President of the Sardars Advisory Committee
Bikaner Address P.O. Mahajan, Bikaner
State Railway

HARKISHEN LAL (LALA) b 18 April 1880 Educ Govt Coll, Lahore and Trinity Coll, Cambridge Bar-at-Law Retired from the Bar 1900, since then devoted to industrial and commercial organisation and activity President Reception Committee of the Congress 1908 President Industrial Conference held at Bankipur, 1912, gave evidence before the Industrial Commission Member, Punjab Legislative Council 1908-1910 1921-23 Fellow Punjab University tried under Martial Law regime of 1919 and sentenced to transportation for life and forfeiture of property, released Christmas 1919 President Punjab Provincial Conference at Jullundur 1920 appointed Minister for Agriculture Punjab 1920-21 Resigned 1923 since then devoted himself to business and banking. Since retirement organised Peoples Bank of Northern India Ltd. having 119 previously brought the Bharat Insurance Co. Ltd. into being President Commercial Congress, Delhi in 1926 appointed on the Banking Inquiry Committee Central and Provincial, 1929 Address Lahore

HARNAM SINGH THE HON. RAJA SIR K C I E b 15 Nov 1861, *was* of late H H Raja Mahan Sir Raja Bander Singh, Bahadur of Kapurthala G.C.S.I. m. 1876, Bani Lady Harnam Singh, s s 1 d Educ. Kapurthala Managed Kapurthala Estates in Oudh for over 18 years Served as member of Hemp Drugs Commission in 1893-94 and Hon. Life Secy to B I Association of Talukdars of Oudh and ex-Fellow of Punjab University, and a life member of the Court of the Lucknow University was member of Imp. Leg. Council and afterwards of Punjab Leg. Council 1900-2, Member of the Council of State since 1920 Member of the Central Committee of the Lady Dufferin Fund, Guest at Coronation 1902 Created Raja 1907 Decorated for General Public Service Raja hereditary (1922) Address Simla or Lucknow or Jullundur City

HARRIS, DOUGLAS GORDON, Dip Ing (Zurich) C I E, M I E (Ind.), Consulting Engineer to Government of India (1920) b 19 Oct 1883 m Alice d of Spencer Ackroyd of Bradford Yorks Educ Rugby School and Federal Polytechnic Zurich, Switzerland Asst and Executive Engineer, P W D 1907-14 Under-Secretary to Government, U P, P W D 1916, Under-Secretary to Government of India, P W D, 1916, Secretary to P W D Organisation Committee, 1917 Under-Secretary to Government of India, P W D 1918 Asst Inspector-General of Irrigation in India, 1920; Secretary to New Capital Inquiry Committee, 1922, Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, Public Works Branch, 1922 Publications Irrigation in India (Oxford University Press) Address c/o Department of Industries of Labour Simla.

HARRISON, CHARLTON SCOTT CHOLMELEY, C I E (1928), Chief Engineer, Lloyd Barrage and Canals Construction b 18 May 1881 m Violet Maria Monamy, 2nd d of the late Dr E H Buckell and Mrs Buckell of Chichester Educ Cooper Hill Asst Engineer

P W D, Beigam 1902-1906, Asst Engineer P W D Irrigation, Nasik, 1906-1909, Ex Engineer P W D Irrigation Nasik 1906-1909 Ex Engineer P W D Nasik District 1909-1910, Ex Engineer Pravara Canals Construction Division 1911-18 Ex Engineer Karachi Canals 1920-21 Super-Intending Engineer Sukkur Barrage 1921-25 Chief Engineer Lloyd (Sukkur) Barrage and Canals Construction 1923 to date Address Karachi Sind

HATWA, MAHARAJA BHADUR GURU MAHA DEV ASRAM PRASAD SASTI OF b 19 July 1883 S Oct 1896 to the Gadi after death of father Maharaja Bahadur Sir Kishore Pratap Sahi, K C I E, of Hatwa Address Hathwa P O, District Saran Bihar and Orissa

HAYK MIAN ABDUL, B A I I R, M B E. (1919) M L A Advocate, Lahore High Court b Oct 1888 Educ at Lahore Forman Christian College Passed I B, 1910 started practice at Ludhiana, elected Municipal Commissioner same year elected J- Vice President 1911 which office he held till 1921 when he was elected senior Vice President Is first non-official President of Ludhiana Municipal Council to which office he was elected in 1922 Address President Municipal Council Ludhiana

HEALY ROBERT JOHN WINGFIELD, B A, (Oxont.) 1898 M A (Oxont.) 1922 O B E (1917) C I E (1930) Agent to the Governor General Central India. b 24, September, 1876 m Alice Isabella Hope in 1906 Ethel J H Scott in 1922 and Muriel Tristram Palmer in 1926 Educ King's School Canterbury and Trinity College Cambridge Second Lieutenant 2nd South Staffordshire Regiment 1900 Lieut 40th Punjab 1902 entered Political Department 1903 served on N W F Province Ajmer Gwalior and again on N W F Province Address United Service Club Pall Mall, London

HENDERSON, ROBERT HERBERT, C I E, Tea Planter (retired) Supdt of Tannur Company's Tea Gardens Cachar Assam, Chairman Ind Tea Assoc, Cachar and Sylhet Represented tea-planting community on Imp Leg Council 1901-2, when legislation regulating supply of indentured coolie labour was under consideration Was Member, Legislative Council of Bengal and Assam, President Manipur Estate Durbar, 1917-18 Address Bengal Club, Calcutta

HENEKER, LT GENERAL, SIR WILLIAM CHARLES GIFFARD K C B (1918) K O M G (1922) C B (1918) D S O (1902) Commandant Rangers, G O C in Chief Southern-Command (1923) b 22 August 1867 m 1901 Clara Marion, d of late E Jones of Velindre Brecon two s Entered army 1888 Capt. 1897 Bt Major 1901, Dt Lt Colonel 1905 Major 1907 B Col and ADC to the King 1907 Major General 1917 Lt. General 1926 served Southern Nigeria, Second in Command of 8 N Regt West African Frontier Force 1902 (promoted Lt.-Col.) Commanded Ubitum Ishan, Ihekwa Okoko Afikpo Igara and Afikpo Expeditions and columns in Benin Territory.

- Expedition and Aro Expedition. World War
 1914-15 (wounded). Intelligence
 and Survey Officer. Benin Territories Expedi-
 tion, 1899. D.A.A. and C.M.G. Orange River
 Colony District, 1906-10. Lt. Col. to command
 2nd Batt. North Stafford Regiment at Pesh-
 war 1912. Temp. Brig. Commander, 1st Pesh-
 war Infantry Brigade 1911. Temp. Brigade
 Commander. Rawalpindi Infantry Brigade
 1913. Commander 1st Infantry Brigade
 Quetta 1914. 54th Infantry Brigade with
 temp. rank Brig. General 1915. Commanded
 190th Infantry Brigade 1916. Commanded 8th
 Div. 1916 to end of war. Formed and command-
 ed Southern Div. on Rhine holding portion of
 Bridgehead east of Cologne 1919. Formed
 and commanded Independent Division, Nov.
 1910. G.O.C. Rhine Garrison Cologne 1920.
 (Commander of Legion d'honneur 1918.
 K.C.B.) Commanded British Upper Silesian
 Force 1921-22 (K.C.M.G.) Commanded 3rd
 Division and Salisbury Plain Area 1922-26.
Publication 19th Warfare 1906. *Address*
 Headquarters Southern Command Poona.
- HERAS, HENRY, S.J. M.A.**, Professor of
 Indian History, Director of the Indian His-
 torical Research Institute, St. Xavier's College,
 Bombay. President Bombay Historical
 Society, Corresponding Member of the His-
 torical Records Commission for the Bombay
 Centre. Member of the International Com-
 mittee of Historical Sciences 6 September 11,
 1888. *Educ.* Barcelona (Spain) Cleveland Ohio
 (U.S.A.) Professor of History Sacred Heart
 College (Barcelona) Principal Our Saviour's
 College, Saragossa (Spain). *Publications*
 History of the Manchu Dynasty of China
 (in Spanish) 3 Vols. The Conquest of the
 Fort of Asirgarh by Emperor Akbar (accord-
 ing to an eye-witness) (in Ind. Ant.) The
 City of Jinli at the end of the 16th Century
 (Ind.), The Portuguese Fort of Barcelor
 (Ind.) Venkateswara Temple and the Portuguese
 (Journal of the Mythic Society) The Statues
 of the Nayaks of Madura in the Pudu Mantapam
 (Ind.) Early Relations between
 Vijayanagara and Portugal (Ind.) Asoka's
 Dharma and Religion (Ind.) Historical Carv-
 ings at Vijayanagara (Ind.) Goa Viragal
 of the time of Harikrishna II of Vijayanagara
 (Ind.) The story of Akbar's Christian Wife
 (Journal of Indian History), The Palace of
 Akbar at Fatehpur Sikri (Ind.) The Great
 Civil War of Vijayanagara 1614-1617
 (Ind.) Seven Days at Vijayanagara (Ind.)
 Rama Raya, Regent of Vijayanagara (Indian
 Historical Quarterly) The Last Defeat of
 Mchharakula (Ind.), Relations between Guptas
 Kadambas and Vakatakas (Journal of the
 Bharat Orissa Research Society), The Royal
 Patrons of the University of Nalanda (Ind.)
 Rama Deva Raya II, an Unknown Emperor
 of Vijayanagara (Ind.) The Portuguese
 Alliance with the Muhammadan Kingdoms
 of the Deccan (Journal, B.B.B.A.S.) A Note
 on the Excavations at Nalanda and its
 History (Ind.) Three Mughal Paintings on
 Akbar's Religious Discussions (Ind.), Two
 controversial Points in the Reign of Samudra
 Gupta (Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute)
 The Decay of the Portuguese Power in India
 (Journal of the Bombay Historical Society)
 Three Catholic Padres at the Court of All-
- ahil Shah I (Ind.) A Historical Tour in Search
 of Kadamb Documents (Ind.) Some
 Unknown Dealings between Bijapur and Gov.
 (Proceedings of the Indian Historical Records
 Commission) A Treaty between Aurangzeb
 and the Portuguese (Ind.) Johannagar and the
 Portuguese (Ind.) The Expansion wars of
 Venkateswara Nayaka of Ikri (Ind.) A Paper
 found of Basavappa Nayaka of Ikri (Ind.)
 The writing of History Notes on Historical
 Mythology for Indian Students (Madras
 1926) The Aravidu Dynasty of Vijayana-
 gara Vol. I 1542-1614 (Madras, 1927)
 Beginnings of Vijayanagara History (Bom-
 bay, 1929) *Address* St. Xavier's College
 Bombay.
- HIDAYATALLAH TEF HON KHAN BANADUR**
 SIR SHAIKH GHULAM HUSAIN KT (1926)
 Member of Council (23rd June 1923) 6 Jan
 1878. *Educ.* Shikarpur High School, D. I.
 Sind Coll. and Govt. Law School Bombay.
 Pioneer Member and elected Vice Presdt.
 Hyderabad Municipality Presdt. District
 Local Board Hyderabad and Member, Bom-
 bay Law Council for past 14 years. Minister
 of Govt. in charge of Local Self Govern-
 ment since 1921. Member of the Executive
 Council since June, 1928. *Address* The
 Secretariat, Bombay.
- HIGNETT, SIDNEY ROBERT, C.S.I.** (1922)
 C.I.E. *Educ.* Malvern Exeter College, Oxford,
 Entered I.C.S. 1895. *Married*, and Coll.
 1912. Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India,
 Home Dept., 1915-19, Officiated as Home
 Secretary on four occasions during that
 period. Private Secretary to H.E. the
 Viceroy 1920. *Address* Delhi or Simla.
- HOOPER, REV WILLIAM D.D.**, Missionary,
 C.M.S. Translator Munro since 1892.
 b 1837. *Educ.* Cheltenham Preparatory
 School Bath Grammar School Wadham
 College Oxford. Hebrew Exhibition
 Sanskrit Scholarship 1st class in Lit. Hum.
 B.A., 1859, M.A. 1861 D.D. 1887. Went to
 India C.M.S. 1861 Canon of Lucknow, 1906
 1919 Vicar of Mount Albert, New Zealand,
 1880-90. *Publications* The Hindustani
 Language, Notes on the Bible and many
 smaller works in English, Hindi and Urdu.
Address Munro India.
- HOFSON, SIR JOHN ERNEST BUTTERT, M.A.**
 (Oxon.) K.C.S.I. (1924) O.B.E. (1918) V.D.
 (1923) Ag. Governor of Bombay 6 March
 1877 in Mildred Alice d. of late A.B.
 Steward I.C.S. *Educ.* Edinburgh Academy
 and Magdalen Coll., Oxford Indian Civil
 Service Bombay from 1905 War service in
 India 1914-1918. Rank of 1915-1916. Rank
 of Lieut. Colonel Home Member Govt.
 of Bombay, 1906-1931. *Publications* Editor of
 the Philo Journal of India 1923-1928.
Address Drummore Mulbar Hill Bombay
 or c/o Grindlay & Co., Ltd., P.O. Box 98,
 Bombay.
- HOWARD, ALBERT, C.I.E., M.A., A.E.C.R.**
 F.L.S., Director of the Institute of Plant
 Industry Indore and Agricultural Adviser to
 States in Central India and Rajputana b
 1873 m 1905 Gabrielle L. C. Matthei
Educ. Royal College of Science, Lon-
 don, St. John's College, Cambridge, First
 Class Hon. Nat. Science Tripos, 1898, B.A.,

1899 M. A. 1902 Mycologist and Agricultural Lecturer Impl Dept of Agriculture for West Indies 1899-1902 Botanist to South-Eastern Agricultural College, Wye 1903-1905 Imperial Economic Botanist to the Government of India, 1905-1924 *Publications* *Crop-productions in India, The Development of Indian Agriculture, The Application of Science to Crop-production* and numerous papers on botanical and agricultural subjects *Address* Indore, Central India.

HOWELL, GEORGE, B.A. (Lond.) M.A. (Camb.) B.Litt. (Oxon) B.D. (St Andrews), Ph.D. (Tubingen) Principal of Serampore College, Bengal, since 1906. 6 May 1871 Educ. Gellinger Grammar School, Regent's Park and University Colleges, London, Mansfield and Jesus Colleges, Oxford, Christ College Cambridge Univ of Tubingen. Appointed by Baptist Missionary Society for Educational work in India, 1895 located at Outback, Orissa, engaged in High School and Biblical teaching, and general literary and Biblical translation work 1895-1904, originated movement for reorganisation of Serampore College Angus Lecturer, 1909 published under the title *The Soul of India*, and Fellow of University of Calcutta since 1918 and Dean of the Faculty of Arts, 1926 *Address* Serampore College Serampore, Bengal

HUDSON The Hon'ble Mr Walter Frank B.A. (Oxon) C.I.E., I.C.S., Member of Council, Government of Bombay 6 22nd Aug 1875 m Alice Violet, d. of the late Rev C T Ward Educ Dulwich College and B.N.C. Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1898 Collector of Thar Parkar, Hyderabad, Larkana Surat Poona, and Karachi Member of Legislative Assembly and Government Whip 1924-28 Commissioner in Sind 1928-29 Member of Executive Council Bombay 1929 *Address* Sea View, Malabar Hill Bombay

HUFAM Lt Colonel WILLIAM TYERS CHRIS TOPPER, OBE M.C. J.P. A.M. Inst Mech Engineer, Local Representative India Sir W G Armstrong Whitworth and Co Ltd 6 1880 Pupillage with Greenwood and Batley, Ltd (Leeds) with Canadian Pacific Railway, 1904 1906 with Babcock and Wilcox, Ltd, Calcutta and Bombay, 1907 1914 served with 1st Bn, West Yorkshire Regt. 1914 1916 Commanded ditto 1916 (France), D.A.Q.M.G. XIVth Army Corps, France (1916) Ditto 46th (North Midland) Division, France 1917 A.Q.M.G., XVth Army Corps, France, 1918, A.A. & Q.M.G. Tanks Corps, Army of Occupation, 1919 Brevet O.B.E. M.C. Despatches (four times) 1914 Star, Croix de Guerre (Belge) Deputy Chief Controller, Government of India Surplus Stores, 1920 22 President, Society of Yorkshiresmen in Bombay 1929 30, Commanding Bombay Battalion A.F.I. 1930 *Address* Byculla Club, Bombay

HULL, RAY EXAMER, R., S.J., Archivist and Secretary to the R.C. Archbishop of Bombay, 6 9th September 1853 Educ Society of Jesus, English Province, Came to India

1903 and since then engaged in literary work in Bombay Editor of *The Examiner* from 1902 to 1924 *Publications* A series of Examiner Reprints on theological, historical and controversial subjects Also a History of the Bombay Mission with a special study of the Padroado Question *Address* St Xavier's High School Fort Bombay

HUSSAIN SER AHMED NAWAB AMIN JUNG RAHADUR M.A. B.I. LL.D. (1928) C.S.I. (1911) Nawab (1917) K.C.I.E. (1922) Peshwa Minister &c Minister in Waiting on H.E.H. the Nizam since 1915 and Chief Secretary to H.E.H. a Government 6 11 Aug 1868 m Fatima Lady Amin Jung &c 3d Educ Christian College and Presidency College Madras Governor's Scholar, High Court Vakil 1890 Advocate (1928) Deputy Collr and Magistrate 1890-92 Asstt Secretary to the Nizam 1893 Personal Secretary to Nizam 1895 Chief Secretary to Nizam's Govt 1905 *Publications* Notes on Islam articles in Periodicals *Address* Amin Munzil, Said bad Hyderabad Deccan

HYDARI SER AKBAR FAWAZ HYDAR NAWAB JUNG RAHADUR, Finance Minister Hyderabad 6 8 Nov 1869 m Amina Rajmuddin Tyabji (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal) Cr Knight (1928) Educ St Xavier's College Bombay Joined Indian Finance Dept., 1888 Asstt Acctt General U.P. 1890 Dy Acctt General, Bombay 1897 Dy Acctt General Madras 1900 Examiner Govt Press Accounts 1901, Comptroller India Treasuries 1903 C.P. 1904 lent as Acctt General, Hyderabad State, 1905 Financial Secretary 1907 Secretary to Government Home Dept (Judicial Police, Education, etc), 1911 Ag Director General of Commerce and Industries 1919 Accountant-General Bombay 1920 Finance and Railway Member Hyderabad Executive Council, 1921 Official Director, Shahabad Cement Co, Ltd 1922 Official Director Singareen Collieries Co Ltd 1922 President V.S. Railway Board 1930 and Mining Board 1927 Chairman, Inter University Board, 1925 First President Hyderabad Educational Conference in 1915 President All India Mahomedan Educational Conference Calcutta (1917) delivered Punjab University Convocation Address 1925 Fellow of the Bombay Deccan Aligarh Muslim and Hyderabad Usmania Universities and ex Fellow, Madras University Conceived and organised Osmania University, Hyderabad organised State Archaeological Department, especially interested in Ajanta Frescoes and Indian Paintings also Urdu type Head of Hyderabad Delegation to Round Table Conference *Address* Hyderabad Deccan

HYDERABAD LIEUT-GENERAL, HIS EXCELLENCY HIGHTNESS ASAP JAH MUZAFFAR-UL-MULK WAL-MAMALIK NARAZ UL-MULK NIZAM-UD DAULA NAWAB MIR SER OSMAN ALI KHAN RAHADUR FATEH JANG, G.O.S.I. (1911), G.B.E. (1916), son of the late Lieut-Genl Mir Sir Mahboob Ali Khan Bahadur, G.C.B. G.O.S.I., Nizam of Hyderabad, 6 1888 ed privately, Acc 1911, Lieut-General in the Army, Hon Col of 20th Deccan Horse *Address* Hyderabad, Deccan.

ILLINGWORTH ARTHUR JOHN ALEXANDER A.R.I.B.A., (1922) J.P. (1927) Consulting Architect to the Government of Bombay b 7th July 1887 m. Winifred, youngest d of Sir Henry Coward, M.A. Mus. Doc. (onts one d) Educ. George Heriot School, Edinburgh, Royal Institution School of Architecture, Edinburgh. Pupil of the late Sir Duncan Rhind R.I.B.E. A.R.I.B.A. Architect of Edinburgh 1903-1908 Assistant with Messrs Woolfall and Rees F.F.R.I.B.A. Architects Liverpool 1909-1912 in practice in Canada 1912-14 Served with 46th Canadian Infantry Battalion and other units 1914-1919 Retired with rank of Captain Dec 18 1919 Appointed Assistant Architect, Public Works Department, Government of Bombay 1920 and Consulting Architect to Government 1928 Member, R.I.B.A. Examination Board in India Captain in Army in India Reserve of Officers Address The Red Bungalow Mayo Road Bombay

IMAM, SYED HASAN, Barrister b 21 August 1871 Educ. Patna and in England Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1892 Practised at Patna and Calcutta until 1911 Judge of the High Court Calcutta, 1912-16 Resigned practice at Patna President, Special Session, Indian National Congress, September, 1916 President All India Home Rule League, Delegate to London Conference on Turkish Peace Treaty, 1921 India's representative to the League of Nations 1923 Address Hasan Munsil Patna

INDORE MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJA RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHRI TUKOJI RAO HOLKAR, RAHADUR G.O.I.E b 20th November 1890 Educ. Mayo Chifs College Aynore Imperial Cadet Corps Visited Europe 1910 attended Coronation 1911 again visited Europe 1913 and 1921 Indicated 27th February 1926 Heir Prince Yeshwantrao Holkar, b 1906 Address Indore Central India

INDORE, MAHARAJA OF HIS HIGHNESS MAHA RAJADHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHRI YESHWANT RAO HOLKAR RAHADUR b 6th September 1909, m. a daughter of the Junior Chif of Kagal (Kollapur) in February 1924 Received his education in England from 1920-1923 and has again proceeded to Oxford for higher education Address Indore, Central India

ISHWARDAS LUKHMIDAS, J.P. Yarn Merchant, b 1872 Educ. St. Xavier's School For many years connected with Messrs David Sassoon & Co, Member of the Municipal Corporation Member Managing Committee of the Society of the Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay and is on the directorate of several well known companies including the Port Canoning and Land Improvement Company, the Sassoon Spinning and Weaving Company Ltd, the Sassoon and Alliance Silk Mill Co Ltd and the Union Mills trustee of Sir Hurkinsondas Narotram General Hospital, and Treasurer for Pechey Pilgrimage Sanitarium for Women and Children President of the Managing Council, Sir Hurkinsondas Narotramdas General Hospital, Member of the Managing Committee of the Lady Northcote Hindu Orphanage, and Member of the Board of David

Sassoon Industrial and Reformatory Institute President Managing Committee of the Society of Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay, Director Bundi Portland Cement Ltd and Punjab Portland Cement Ltd Member Managing Committee, Goudkas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association Member Managing Committee of the Helpless Beggars and Vice President of his own community Sheriff of Bombay 1924 Member of the Auditors Council and Hon. Treasurer of the Bombay Vigilance Association Director Luvavla Khandsala Electric Supply Co Ltd Director Bhawal Taluka Electric Co Ltd and Navik Bhawal Electric Supply Co Ltd Member of the Managing Committee of the Governor's Hospital and Address Garden View Hughes Road Bombay

ISHAR HASAN KHAN KHAN BAHADUR, DARI RUL MULEK HIS MAJESTY MOHAMMAD ALI O.I.E b Shahjahanpur 1866 m. Lady Isar daughter of Malak Mohammad Asmatullah Khan Raja of Shahjahanpur 1886 Educ. Shahjahanpur and Bareilly Amir-ul-Umara, Home Member and President Judicial Council Bhopal Address Jail kothi Shahjahanpur

ISWAB SAEAN MUMSHI B.A. (Allahabad) Advocate, Allahabad High Court b 26 Aug 1874, m. Srimati Mukhrani Devi Educ. Church Mission High School and Jubilee High School Gorakhpur U.P. and Muir Central College Allahabad Member first and present Legislative Assembly was a member of the Court of Allahabad University is a member of the Court of the Benares Hindu University President Kayastha-Pathshala, Allahabad, 1925-26 was Joint Secretary of Crowthwaite Girls College Allahabad Hon. Secretary, MacDonnell Hindu Boarding House Allahabad Hon. Secretary U.P. Industrial Conference Political and Social Conferences some time Member, All India Congress Committee President U.P. Political and Social Conferences Hon. Secretary Reception Committee Indian National Congress 1910 Address 6 Edmondstone Road Allahabad U.P.

IZAZIT NISHAN KRUDA BAKHAR KHAN FIWANA Nawab Malik Dist. Judge Dera Ghazi Khan b 1866 Educ. Government High School, Shahpore private training through Col. Corby Deputy Commissioner Appointed an Hon. Magistrate 1881 Extra Asst. Commr. 1894 British Agent in Cabul 1903-06 Address Khwajabad, District Shahpore, Punjab

JACKSON, RT HON. SIR FRANCIS STANLEY, P.C. G.C.I.E. Governor of Bengal (1927) b 21 November 1870, m. s of 1st Lord Alleton m 1902 Julia Henrietta, s of late H.D. Harrison Broadley, M.P. Welton House, Brough Educ. Harrow Trinity Coll, Cam. bridge Financial Secretary to War Office 1922-23 Harrow Eleven Cambridge Eleven (Captain 1892-93), Yorkshire Eleven has repeatedly played for Gentlemen v Players, and All England Teams served in South Africa, 1900-2 Captain 3rd Royal Lancaster Regiment, 2nd West Riding, Yorks, late Lt-Col Commanding 27th W Yorks, Chairman of the Unionist Party

since March 1923 M P Howdenahire Division of Yorkshire since 1915 *Address* Govt. error's Camp Bengal

JACKSON, GILBERT HOLMES BLOMFIELD M.A. (Oxon), I.C.S., Police Judge Madras High Court b 26th Jan 1876 m to Mrs. Jackson *Educ* Marlborough College Meriton College Indian Civil Service. *Address* High Court Madras.

JACKSON, SIR JOHN ERNEST Kt (1924) C.I.E. (1917) A.C.A., J.P. Agent, B.B. & C.I. Railway, Bombay since 1925 b 28 November 1876 *Educ* Marlborough College. *Address* Bombardier, Alhambra Road Oumballa Hill, Bombay

JACKSON, WILLIAM HENRY, M.A. (Oxon) K.I.H. (1st Class) 1930 Priest-Director Mission to the Blind of Burma b 18th March 1889 Royal Normal College, Upper Norwood, London, S.E. Wadham College Oxford and Leeds Clergy School Assistant Priest Great Ilford Assistant Priest Holy Trinity Hoxton London N *Publications* Chords and Odesmes and Little Parables of the Church *Address* Mission to the Blind of Burma 8 Michael's, Kemmeline, Rangoon

JADHAV, BHASKARRAO VITHOJI RAO, M.A. LL.B., M.L.A. b May 1867 m to a lady from the Vichare family of Ratnagiri District *Educ* Wilson College Elphinstone College, and Government Law School Served in Kolhapur State and retired as Revenue Member of the State Council Started the Marathi Educational Conference in 1907 and revived the Satya Shodhak movement in 1911, and has been in the Non Brahmin movement in the Presidency from its inception Represented the claims of the Marathas and allied communities before the joint Parliamentary Committee in England in 1919 and secured the seven reserved seats for them was nominated member of the Legislative Council in 1922 and 1923 and represented Satara in the last two elections Minister of Education 1924-26 and 1927-30 Leader of the Non Brahmin Party in the Legislative Council President of the Satyashodhak Samaj from 1920 *Address* Secretariat, Bombay

JAGTARAYAN PANDIT, Pleader, Chief Court of Oudh b Dec. 1864 m Srimati Balaia *Educ.* Canning Coll Lucknow non-official Chairman Lucknow Municipality Chairman Reception Committee 51st Indian National Congress Member Hunter Committee Was Minister, U.P. Govt. for Local Self Government and Public Health *Address* Golegani, Lucknow

JAMES, FREDERICK ERNEST, M.A. O.B.E. (1918), Chevalier de l'ordre de Leopold (1920) b 1891 m. Eleanor May Thackeray (1919) *Educ* Leeds and London University Army, 1914-15, Belgian Red Cross, Y.M.C.A., Abbotsville Amiens Tank Corps, 1918-19, General Secy, Belgium and Occupied Germany, 1919-20, General Secretary, Calcutta, 1920, Member, Bengal Legis. Council, and Whip of European Group, 1924-28,

visited Persia re Welfare British Employees, A.P.O.C. 1924 President, Calcutta Rotary Club 1925-26, visited Java re establishment of Y.M.C.A. 1927, Political Secretary U.P.A.S.T. 1929 Member Madras Legis. Council Councilor, Madras Corporation Member Senate Madras University Hon. Commissioner for Rotary Clubs in India Burma, Ceylon, Java Straits and Siam *Address* Madras Club Madras

JAMES MAJOR-GENERAL SIR WILLIAM BERNARD Kt, 1925 C.B. (1918) C.I.E., (1912) M.V.O., (1911) b 8 Feb 1866 m Elizabeth Minto s.d. of late William Minto of Tingri Estate, Assam two s *Educ* U.S. College and Sandhurst 1st Commission in 1886 Derbyshire Regiment 1888, 2nd Lancers Intelligence Branch War Office 1900-01 South African War 1902, various staff appointments in India A.Q.M.G. Coronation Durbar, 1911, D.A. & M.G. Corps, France 1914-15 Brig-General, General Staff France 1915-16, (Despatches) Brevet Colonel Temp Q.M.G. India 1916-17 Major-General Administration, Southern Command 1917-29 Commanding Bombay District, 1919-22 Director of Remounts, India, 1922-26 Founder and thirco President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India 1923 *Address* C/o Messrs Grindlay & Co, Ltd, Bombay

JAMIAI RAI, DIWAK RAI BAHADUR C.I.E. DIWAK BAHADUR, Kaiser Hind Gold Medal 1930 b 1861 m 1891 *Educ* Khown, Kolkata, and Gujarat Ent Govt Service 1880 served in 1880, Political Office with Auram F.Y. 1880, accompanied Afghan Boundary Commission, 1883-1886, special duty boundary settlement of Laghari Barkhan 1897, Asst to the Superintendent of Gascoons of Baluchistan 1901-1907 services acknowledged by Govt of India on special duty in connection with revision of Establishments 1910, Asst to Supdt of Census Operations, Baluchistan, 1910-11, Ex Asst Commr, 1902 Settlement Officer, Baluchistan, 1912 Provincial Superintendent of Census for Baluchistan 1920-22, President Hindu Panchayat Member Dufferin Fund Committee, Member Prov Council Boy Scouts Member Provincial Ex Committee Red Cross-Society Grammar school Committee *Publications* Quetta Municipal Manual History of Freemasonry in Quetta, Reports on the settlement of Duki and Birk Khan, Notes on (1) Domiciled Hindus (2) Hindus of Kandahar and Ghazni (3) Purbia manial castes and sweepers (4) Afghan Pawin dhas (5) Achakul Pathans, (6) Shinwar, (7) Shorard Valley and (8) Revenue rates and conditions, (9) Nuts—a wandering tribe (10) Kharan State (11) Hindus of Dhadar (12) Cottage Industries of Baluchistan, (13) Administration of justice in rural areas of Baluchistan (14) Notes on the study of the Brahui Language, (15) Manual (in Urdu) of Pushtu conversation (16) Translation into English of the Baluchi Text Book and (17) Translation into Urdu of Bengali Girdi-dharma *Address* Quetta

JANAK SINGH, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BAHADUR B.A., C.I.E., Army and Public Works Minister Jammu and Kashmir, b 1877 *Educ* Joined

Kashmir Service in 1901 serving in various capacities both in Civil and Military Departments in the Civil Branch as Naib Tehsildar, Tehsildar, Dist Magistrate and Sessions Judge and finally as Revenue Minister. In the Military Branch as Major, Asst Quarter Master General, Brigade Major, O.C. the 22 Kashmir Rifles and 3rd Kashmir Rifles. Got Afghan War Medal and 2nd class order of British India 1910. Military Secretary to Commander-in-Chief Jammu and Kashmir State Forces and Army and Revenue Minister Jammu and Kashmir Government and now Army and Public Works Minister. Address Jammu.

JAGRA LIEUT COLONEL H H FAHRETT DALLA NAWAR SIR MUHAMMAD IFTIKHAR ALI KHAN HANADIL SAULAT JANG, K.C.I.F. b. 1893. He served in European War. Address Jaora State Central India.

JATKAR BHIMRAO KANWANTRAO B.A. LL.B. Pleader b. 24 April 1880. As to Annapurnabai Jatkars Edges at Basim A.V. School Amraoti High School Ferguson College, Poona and Govt Law School, Bombay. Joined Yeshiva Bai in 1906. A Congressman working as one of the Joint Secretaries of the District Association Yeshiva since its inception in 1915. Non official elected Chairman Yeshiva Municipal since 1919. President of the Co-operative Central Bank Ltd. Yeshiva Deputy President. Rural Co-operative Institute Ltd. and Vice President District Association, Yeshiva. Address Yeshiva (Dehar).

JAYAKAR MUKUND LAKSHMOO, M.A. LL.B., Barrister at Law. Member Legislative Assembly. Educ at Bombay University. Started a charitable public school called Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay worked there four years practised as a barrister in Bombay High Court took to public life in 1916 and since 1921 completely in public life. Elected to Bombay Legislative Council in 1923 by the Bombay University Constituency and was leader of the Swaraj Party in Bombay Council until his resignation after the meeting of the Congress in 1925. Entered Legislative Assembly as a representative of Bombay Univ. in 1928 continued a member thereof till 1930. Deputy Leader of the Nationalist Party there from 1927 to 1930. March Leader of the Opposition in 1930. Simla session Publications. Edited a book on Vedanta Philosophy in 1924. Address Wankar Road, Malabar Hill Bombay.

JAYANTIL RAMAYYA PARTULL, B.A., B.L. b. Aug 1861. Educ at Rajahmundry and Madras. Served in Rev. Dept in Madras Presidency and retired as 1st Grade Deputy Colr. 1917, acted as Presidency Magistrate Madras for three years. Ex Member Legislative Assembly. Publications: A defence of literary Telugu and several articles on literature history and archaeology. Editor of the Suryavaya Telugu Calendar being published by the Telugu Academy. Address Muktiaram East Godavari Dist.

JELANI, DR HAJI SYED ABDUL KHADER SAKH, Member Legislative Assembly and retired Medical Officer and Superintendent of District Jail b. July 1897, M.D. of Subadar

Major Isacobb Khan Bahadur Bahadur Faur at Saint Thomas Mount, Madras. Was Member Antismoking Committee for 14 years. Member district board for 12 years of which for 8 years was Vice President and Hon. Magistrate for Madras for seven years. Address Saint Thomas Mount Madras.

JEFRELLY COLONEL WALTER BLUN, C.I.E. (1914), C.S.I. (1924) General Staff, Army Headquarters b. 15 Dec 1878. m. Emily Charlotte (widell) Educ at Wandell Therton and Plymouth College. Address Simla.

JHANGILE SIR COWASJEE, 1st Baronet, nephew and adopted son of late Sir Cowasjee Jhangir Readymoney, C.S.I. b. 8th June 1853. m. 876 Dhanubai d. of the late Ardeshir Hornumjee Wadia m. s. d. Educ Proprietary School Elphinstone College and University of Bombay. Banker millowner and landed proprietor J.P. (retired) Knight 1899, created Baronet 1908 well known for his philanthropy. Delegate of the Parsee Matrimonial Court and Trustee and member of the Parsee Panchayat. Appointed Sheriff of Bombay in 1919 has assumed the name of Cowasjee Jhangir. Address Readymoney House Malabar Hill Bombay.

JHANGIL COWASJI SIR (Junior) M.A. (Cambridge) B.C.I. (1927) C.I. (1920) O.B.E. M.F.A. b. Feb 1873. m. to Hirabai Anbari Hind (Gold Medal) M.B. b. of M.H.A. Hornumjee of Lowli Castle Educ at St Xavier's College Bombay and St Johns College Cambridge. Member of the Bombay Corporation from 1904 to 1921. Chairman of the standing Committee 1914. Member of the Bombay Improvement Trust. President Bombay Municipal Corporation 1910-20. Honorary Secretary War Loan Committee 1917-1918. Acting Member of the Executive Council Government of Bombay in charge of the Revenue Department (8th Dec 1921 to 14th July 1922). Member of the Executive Council Government of Bombay in charge of the (Chief) Department (28th June 1923 to 2nd June 1928). Elected Member Legislative Assembly for the City of Bombay 1930. Partner in the Firm of Messrs Cowasjee Jhangir & Co. Ltd. Address Nepan Sea Road, Malabar Hill Bombay.

JEPPORE MAHARAJA OF, LIFETIME SRI SRI SRI MAHARAJA RAMCHANDRA DEO MAHARAJA OF JEPPORE SAMANTHANAM M.L.C., (Pro Chancellor Andhra University) of late Maharaja Sir Sri Sri Sri Vikrama Deo Bahadur K.C.I.E. and late Sri Sri Sri Lady Sothapatta Maharani. Circar b. 31st Dec 1893. Educ privately under Dr J. Marsh, M.A. LL.D. Newton. Educ M.A. and E. Winchester, Esq., B.A. m. 1913 Sri Sri Sri Lakshmi Patia Maharani. Circar d. of the late Maharajah Sir Sri Bhagwat Prasad Singh Bahadur K.C.I.E., of Bahadur, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. First Landed Zamindar in the Madras Presidency, owning about 14,000 square miles. Address Fort Jeypore, Vizagapatnam Agency Madras Presidency, India.

JHALA RAJ RANA SHRI MAHESHWARI SURESH CHAND, O.I.C. (1918), Dewan, Dhargadhra State and some time Member, State Cabinet

- at Jalpur Rajputana. Educ. Dhrangadhra and Rajkot. Was first Guardian to H H Maharaja Sahib of Dhrangadhra when he was heir apparent and accompanied him to England. Was afterwards for a few years in Government service and left it as Dy. Superintendent of Police to join service in his parental State where he was for a year Personal Assistant to H H Maharaja Sahib and then his Dewan. Member of the State Council Jalpur from Dec 1922 to March 1923. Address Lal Bungalow, Dhrangadhra.
- JIND, H H FARZAND-I-DILBAND RASIKH UL ITHKAD DAULAT-I-INGLISHIA, RAJA I RAFGAN MAHARAJA SIR BANSHI SINGH RAJENDRA BHABHRA, COLORELL, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. b 1879, s 1887. Address Sangrur, Jind State Punjab.**
- JINNAB, MAHOMED ALI, Bar-at Law and Member, Leg. Assembly, b 25th Dec 1876 m d of Sir Dinshaw Petit (d) Educ. Karachi and in England. Enrolled as Advocate, Bombay High Court, 1906. Pte. Secretary to Dadabhai Naoroji 1906. Member, Imperial Legn Council, 1910. President Muslim League (special session) 1920. Address Malabar Hill Bombay.**
- JODHPUR, MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS RAJ RAJESHVAR SARMAD I RAJHAI HINDUSTAN MAHARAJA DHRADJI SRI SIR UMAD SINGHJI SAHIB BHABHRA OF G.C.I.E. K.C.S.I. (1925) b C.V.O. (1922) b 8 July 1903 m H H Maharajji Sir Vaden Kanwarji Sahiba of Umednagar. Educ. Mayo College Ajmer. Ascribed the Gadi 1918. Invested with full ruling powers 1928. Address Jodhpur Rajputana.**
- JOGLEKAR, RAO BHABHUR RAMCHANDRA NARAYAN I.S.O., B.A., Chief Land Officer Tata Co., Coll. Baroda State, from Decr 1916 to June 30 1920. Depy. Coll. First grade and Native Asst. to Commr. C.D. 1901-16 some time Adv. to Chief of Ichalkaranji, b Satara, 8th Dec 1858. Educ. Deccan Coll., Poona. Held non-gazetted appointments in Nasik, Satara, Ahmednagar, Poona and Sholapur Dist., 1883-1899. Depy. Coll. 1899. Publications: Land Revenue Code annotated up to 1st Octr 1920; Watan Act annotated up to 1st Sept 1920. Alienation Manual, Inspection of Revenue offices, Court fees in Revenue and Magisterial offices. Address 203, Kala Hand, Shukrawar Peth, Poona City.**
- JOHN, SIR EDWIN, Kt (1922), C.B.E. (1921) Kt of the Order of St Gregory the Great, (Civil Order) 1901. Grand Commander St Sylvester the Great (1920). Inspector-General of Factories, Gwalior, O I b 8 August 1856 m. 1879, Mary Sykes, Southport Lancs, one d. Educ. Stonyhurst. Address Gwalior C.I.,**
- as Asst. Commr., 1896, went to H.W. From 1899 and was employed there till end of 1911, Govt. of India, Finance Dept. 1911 15, Ministry of Munitions, England 1916 17. Address The Residency Bushire, Persian Gulf.**
- JOSHI, SIR MONOPART VISHWANATH, KT., K.C.I.E. B.A., LL.B., b 1861. Educ. Deccan Coll. Poona, and Elphinstone Coll. Bombay. Practised as Advocate in Judicial Commr. Court in Berar from 1884-1920. Home Member C. P. Govt. 1920-25. President All India Liberal Federation 1925. Chairman Age of Consent Committee 1928 29, Advocate Judicial Commissioners' Court (C. P.) Address Anraoti Berar.**
- JONHI, NARAYAN MALHAR B.A., M.L.A. J.T. Member of the Servants of India Soc. b June 1879. Educ. Poona New English School and Deccan Coll. Taught in private schools and Govt. High Schools for 8 years. Joined Servants of India Soc., 1909. Sec., Bombay Social Service League, since 1911, and Sec., Bombay Prasy Social Reform Assoc., since 1917, Soc. W. India Nat. Liberal Assoc. since 1919. Was sent to Mesopotamia by Govt. of India as representative of the Indian Press, 1917 and in 1920 to Washington and in 1921 1922 1925 and in 1929 to Geneva as delegate of the working classes in India to International Labour Confce. Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal (1919) Was awarded, but declined. C.I.E. in 1921. Member of the Bombay Municipal Corps since 1919 up to end of March 1923. Nominated by Govt. as Member of the Legislative Assembly in 1921 and again in 1924 and in 1927 to represent labour interests. Appointed a Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour as Labour representative. Address Servants of India Society Sandhurst Road Bombay.**
- JUNAGADH H H SIR MAHABATEHANJI BHARUKHANJI K.C.S.I., Nawab Sahib of b 2nd Aug 1900 m Her Highness Senior Begum Sahiba Manuvvarjahan of Bhopal. Educ. Mayo College Ajmer. Visited England in 1913 14. Address Junagadh.**
- JUGHMOHANDAS VAREJIVANDAS, SIR, Kt Merchant and Landlord b 1899. Educ. Fort High Sch. Bombay Mem., Bombay Corps, 1900-06 trustee of several charitable institutions. Address Shree Nivas Nepcon Sea Road Bombay.**
- JUKER TONY EDWIN (LAPHAM) (M.I. 1930) C.I.E. (1921) Export Control Officer Khauk Department b 12 Nov 1878. Educ. Aldenham Sch., Pembroke Coll. (Cambridge), Forson, Univ. priuatum 1899. (Amcsheller's Classical Medallist 1902 m Marguerite Jessen d of the late James March of Reigate. Address Delhi and Simla.**
- KAJIJI ARDEALI MAHOMMADALI, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab), Bar-at-Law, late Judge High Court, Bombay b 12 February 1871. Educ. St. Mary's Institution, Bysulla, St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay, Downing Coll., Cambridge, and Lincoln's Inn Ord.**

ellow Syndic and Dean in Law of Bombay
Univ. President, Anjuman-i-Islam Bombay
and Islam Club and Vice-President, Islam
Gymkhana and the Bombay Shareholder
Association. Address: Bulkh-mah Grant Road
Bombay.

KALE, VAMAN GOVIND Professor Ferguson
College b. 1878 Educ. Niv. English
School and Ferguson Coll. Poona
Joined the Deccan Education Socy. of
Poona, as a life member in 1907. Fellow of
Bombay Univ. for five years since 1919. Prof.
of History and Economics, Ferguson
Coll. Member Council of State 1921-23 and
member Indian Tariff Board 1923-25.
Secretary D. E. Society, Poona, from 1925 to
1928. Liberal in Politics has addressed nu-
merous public meetings, has published
many articles on economics and political and
social reform and the following works:
Indian Industrial and Economic Problems,
Indian Administration Indian Econo-
mics Dawn of Modern Finance in India
Gokhale and Economic Reforms India's
War Finance Currency Reforms in India
Constitutional Reforms in India Econo-
mics of Protection in India Economics
in India etc. Address: Durga Nagar
Poona No. 4.

KAMAT, BAKRISHNA SIPARAN, B.A. Mer-
chant b. 21 March, 1871 Educ. Deccan
Coll. m. Mrs. Yamunabai R. M. Gawaskar of
Cochin Member Bombay Leg. Council
1918-16 1916-20 Member Legislative Assem-
bly 1921-23 Liberal Member Kanva Depu-
tation to England 1923 Member of various
educational bodies. Has taken part in
work for social and agricultural reform.
Late Member Boyal Commission on
Indian Agriculture Member Provincial Bank-
ing Enquiry Committee Address: Ganesh
khind Road Poona or Dongre Building
Tardeo Bombay.

KAMBHJI SHIDAPPA TOTAPPA B.A. F.I.B.
RAO BAHADUR Minister of Agriculture b.
September 1882 Educ. at Deccan College
Practised as pleader from 1908 to 1930 in
Bihar Courts. Non Official President of
Hindu Municipal Borough from 1923 to 1930.
President Biharwar Dist. Fiscal Board in 1921
and 1930. Member of Bombay Council since
1921. Deputy President Bombay Council
1927-30 organised first non-Brahmin Con-
ference in Hindi in 1920 was member Rail-
way Advisory Committee M. S. M. Railway
for about two years. Presided over Ist. Har-
natak Conference held at Belgaum
presided over co-operative conference held
at Shikhar in Biharwar Dist. in 1927. Presi-
dent All India Vetrashala Conference at
Bangalore in 1927. Address: Panton, Mahi-
bar Hill Bombay.

KANDATHIL MOSE REV. M.B. AUGUSTINE
D.D. Archbishop Metropolitan of Ernakulam
was Titular Bishop of Arad and Co-adjutor
with right of succession to the first Vicar
Apostolic of Ernakulam, since 1911. b.
Chemp. Vaikam Travancore 25 Aug. 1874
Educ. Papal Seminary Kandy Ceylon
Priest, 1901 Parish Priest for some time

Rector of Prep Sem. Ernakulam and Pri-
vate Sec. to the first Vicar Apostolic of Erna-
kulam in end of 1911. Consecrated Bishop
December 1, 1911. R. R. V. for A. P. P.
transferred to second Vicar Apostolic in Dec.
1916. Installed on 18 Nov. 1919. was
made Archbishop Metropolitan 21st Dec.
1923. Suffragan sees being Changanacherry,
Trichur and Kottayam. Installation 18
Nov. 1924. Address: Archbishop's House
Ernakulam 4, White St. P.

CANHAITA JAL, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE
RAI BAHADUR M.A. LL.B. Judge, High Court
Allahabad, b. 17 July 1866. m. Shrimati Devi
d. of Vyas Gokuldasji of Agra Educ. the
Muir Central College Allahabad. Joined
the U. P. Civil Service on 22 April 1891 as
Magistrate acted as subordinate Judge in 1907
appointed Asst. Sessions Judge with the
powers of Additional District Judge in Feb.
1908 acted as District and Sessions Judge
in 1910 and again in 1911, appointed
Additional Judicial Commissioner Oudh,
July 1912 acted as Judge of Allahabad
High Court in 1920 and subsequent years for
different periods. Promoted Judicial
Commissioner of Oudh in 1922. Appointed
Judge of Allahabad High Court again in 1923.
Retired July 1926. Vice President Agr. of
Consent Committee 1924-28. Member Hindu
Religious Endowments Committee 1928-30.
Honorary Member Allahabad University
since 1927. Publications: Elementary History
of India Dharina Shiksha or a treatise on
Moral culture in the vernacular and A Note
on the Reorganisation of the Judicial Staff.
Address: No. 9 Pigeon Road Allahabad.

KANIA HAPILAL TEKENDAR B.A. F.I.B.
b. Ind. Nov. 1890. m. Shanti d. of Mr. (Hunilal)
V. Mehta K. L. P. ex Member of the
Executive Council of the Government of Bombay.
About fifteen years practice at the Bombay
Bar as an advocate, on the original side of the
High Court. Acting Judge High Court
Bombay 1930. Address: 102 Indira Road
Malabar Hill Bombay.

KANIKA THE HON. MR. RAJA OF, MAJAJ
MAJENDRA NARAYAN BHANJA DYN. BAHADUR
O.B.E. of KANIKA M.L.C. M.K.A.S. and
F.R.S.A. Member Executive Council, Gov-
ernment of Bihar and Orissa since Jan. 1929.
b. 24 March 1881 m. d. of Presidency Chief
of Nagargh 1899. Educ. Ravenshaw
Coll. Cuttack. Received manage-
ment of Kishan Kanika from Court of Wards
1903. Mem. of the Bengal L. G. Council
1909-12, Mem. of Bihar and Orissa Leg.
Council 1916-20. Mem. Imperial Leg.
Legislative Council 1921. Member Reformed
Legislative Assembly 1922-23. Member Bihar
and Orissa Reformed Council 1923. Pres.
Orissa Landholders Assn., Vice President
Bengal Landholders Association. Vice-
President, Bihar Landholders Association,
Mem. of Bengal Fishery Board, Mem. Roy
Asiatic Soc. Member, Governing Body,
Ravenshaw College, Cuttack. Fellow, Patna
University. Address: Cuttack or Rajkanika,
Orissa.

KANITKAR, KESHAV BHANOHAR, M.A. BSc, b 23 Aug 1878, Educ New English School at Wai and Poona and Fergusson College Poona. Working as Life Member and Professor of Physics in the I. E. Society's institutions since 1903 was in charge of the Boarding House, New English Schools in 1901, in charge of Fergusson Coll Hostels 1906-14, in charge of Navin Marathi Shala 1914-21, in charge of Fergusson College since 1921 has been on the Bombay University Senate for the last 10 years was on the Syndicate 1921-29 and on the School Leaving Examination Board for 6 years and Chairman Poona District School Board for the last five years represented western part of Poona on the Poona City Municipality for nearly 7 years and worked on the Vlaweshwara Prachinical Education Committee 1920 Secretary Physical Training Committee appointed by the Government 1928 Principal Fergusson College, Poona 1921-1929 Address Fergusson College Poona

KAPURTHALA COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS FARHANG I DILBAR BASHIR KHAN DAULAT I INGHISHA RAJA I RAJAGAN MAHA RAJA JAGAT SINGH BAHADUR, Maharaja of Kapurthala, G.C.B.I. (1911), G.C.I.E. (1918), C.R. G.B.E. (1927) on the occasion of his Golden Jubilee Honorary Colonel of 8-11th Sikhs (4th Battalion Sikhs) One of the principal Sikh Ruling Princes in India. In recognition of the prominent assistance rendered by the State during the Great War His Highness salute was raised to 17 guns and the annual tribute of £9,000 a year was remitted in perpetuity by the British Government, received the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour from the French Government in 1924 possesses also Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Roumania, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chilli, Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order of Cuba, twice represented Indian Princes and India on the League of Nations in 1926 and 1927, celebrated the Golden Jubilee of his reign in 1927 with great éclat. b. 24 Nov 1872 son of His Highness the Late Raja I. Rajgan Khurak Singh of Kapurthala Address Kapurthala State, Punjab, India

KARAYDIKAR, RAGHUNATH PANDURANG, Advocate, High Court, Bombay, Professor, Law College Poona and Member Council of State b. 21 Aug 1867 in Khadihar family adopted into Karandikar 1886 as Sakuntal d of Rao Bahadur Gogte of Pandharpur (1873 Educ at Satara and Poona Sub-Judge (1894) Member Bhore Forest Committee (1895) Member elected Bombay Legislative Council 1911, attended His Imperial Majesty's Coronation at Delhi 1912 member of all Congresses and Committees 1886-1918 opened first Indian Conference at Alkay Yorkshire 1919 attended Ahmedabad Congress, 1922 President Satara Dist Swaraj Party President, 1st Maharashtra Lawyers Conference, Poona 1928 President Prov Postal and R. M. S. Conference, Sessions 1923 Chairman, Board

of Directors Western India Life Insurance Co Publications Notes on Land Revenue Collection and Note on Agricultural Associations in 1906 Address Shanwar Peth, Satara City

KARANJIA, HERRMAN NAOROSJI Merchant and Vice President Indian Merchants Chamber b Sept 1876 Educ Elphinstone High School and Sir Jamshedji Jeejeebhoy Parsi Benevolent Institution of Bombay Was President of Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants Association was Hon Secretary of the War Loan Committee for A Ward of Bombay was Hon Secretary Orr Day Fund, Hon Secretary of People's Fair in 1921 Awarded Kaiser-i-Hind Medal and a Certificate of Merit in 1922 Is Chairman of Versova Beach Sanitary Committee Have evidence before the Cotton Text Committee also give evidence before the Tariff Board of Inquiry re Gold Thread Industries and Central Bankruptcy Inquiry Committee Is a Member of the Society for the Protection of Children in Western India, also a Trustee of various charitable institutions and has been the Director of some Joint Stock Companies Address Miers Gobhai Karanjia Limited Bombay 2

KARACULI, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ SINGH BHANWAR PAL DEO BAHADUR, YADUKUL CHANDRA BHAI, G.C.I.E. b 24 July 1864 Educ Mayo Coll, Ajmer s. 1886 Address Karauli Rajputana

KASIMBAZAR, MAHARAJA SIR MAYNIRDAI CHANDRA NANDY OF K.C.I.E., Bengal, b 1880 m 1878 Vice President Bengal Land holders Association and President British Indian Association Educ Hindu School sometime Member Bengal Legislative Council Imperial Legislative Council of State and Chairman of Berhampore Municipality for six terms Chairman District Board Murshidabad Hon Fellow, Calcutta University and Life Member Hindu University Benares Patron of several clubs Associations and institutions in Bengal Belongs to Moderate School of Politics takes a keen interest in and is a patron of education Industries Agriculture, literature and politics Publications Upanasa, B S Panjika, The Indian Medical Plant A History of Indian Philosophy Great Bakhshat Granthas Part 10 of Brahamat Bhagat Fundamentals Unity of India, History of Indian Shipping and Maritime Activity Holb apparant Maharaj Kumar Sri Chandra Nanday M.A M.L.C. Chairman Berhampore Municipality Address Rajbari Kasimbazar Bengal or 302 Upper Circular Road, Calcutta

KASTURBHAI LAJBHAI SHETH, Mill owner b 22 Dec. 1894 m Shrimati Sardaben, d of Mr Chimanlal Vadilal Zaveri of Ahmedabad Educ at Gujrat College Ahmedabad, Hon Secretary Ahmedabad Famine Relief Committee, 1918 19 elected Vice President, Ahmedabad Millowners Association 1923-26 elected member, Legislative Assembly as a representative of the Millowners Association (1923-26), Nominated as a delegate to the 12th International Labour Conference at Geneva, 1929 Address Pankore's Naka, Ahmedabad

KAY SIR JOSEPH ASPDEN KT (1927), J.P. Managing Director W. H. Brady & Co. Ltd. Member Council of Imperial Agricultural Research b 20th January 1884 m 1928 Mildred, second d of late J. S. and R. A. Burnett of Rowley Derbyshire Educ at Bolton, Lancashire Came to India to represent firm, 1907 Managing Director and Chairman of Board of the seven companies under their control, Chairman, Bombay Millowners Association 1921 and 1922 Employers Delegate to International Labour Conference, 1923 Officer in Bombay Light House Vice President, Chamber of Commerce 1923 President, Chamber of Commerce 1926 and Vice President India Central Cotton Committee 1927 26 Chairman Back Bay Inquiry Committee 1926 Chairman Prohibition Finance Committee (Bombay) 1928 Address Wilderness Cottage Nepean Sea Road Bombay

KAZI SYED, HIFAZAT ALI, B.A., LL.B. b 1892 Educ Jubbulpore, Aligarh and Allahabad Elected President, Municipal Committee, Khandwa 1920 Minister for Local Self Government, Public Works, Public Health, etc Central Provinces Address Imlipora Khandwa

KAPJAY, EDWARD HERBERT (J.F.) (1926) I.C.S. A.G.G. Western India b 1873 m 1901 Temple d of Sir Charles Mayley G.C.I.B., K.C.I. Educ Felslet and University College Oxford Entered I.C.S. 1897 Bengal, 1897 1902 Joined Political Dept Govt of India March 1902 Served in Rajputana (Central India) Ajmer Merwara N.W.F.P., F.A.G.G. Central India 1904-05 Assist Sec. Govt of India, Foreign and Political Dept. 1905 C. S. as Superintendent Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara, 1910-13 Secretary N.W.F.P. 1915 20 Offg Resident Gwahar, 1922 Resident Beroda June 1923 March 1927 offg A.G.G. Central India, March-October 1927, A.G.G. Western India October 1927 Publications Revised Hutchinson's Treatise (1909) and Census Reports on Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara (1913) Address The Residency, Rajkot

KEANE MICHAEL CSI (1929) C.I.I. (1921) b 1874 m Joyce Joyce Thomas Educ School Clongowes Wood and University College Dublin entered I.C.S. 1898 Has been Under-Secretary to Govt on deputation under the Govt of India for settlement work in the Tonk and Sirohi States in Rajputana District Officer in Agra and Cawnpore Judicial Sec to Govt Chief Secy to Govt. and President U.P. Legislative Council, 1921 25 Member Public Service Commission, 1928 Commissioner Meerut, 1929 Address Meerut

KEELING, Sir HUGH TROWBRIDGE, KT (1923) C.S.I., 1915, A.M.I.C.E., Ch. Eng., and Sec to Ch. Commr., Delhi since 1912, Mem. of Delhi Imp Comm 1913 Mem., Institut of Engineers (Ind.) s 14 April 1888 Educ Marlborough and Cooper's Hill, m Edith d of Col T. O. Underwood late 4th Punjab Cavalry Asst. Eng., Madras P.W.D., 1887, Exec. Eng., 1898 Superintending Eng 1910 Address P.W.D. Delhi

KELKAR, NARASINGA CHITTAMAN B.A., LL.B. (1894) M.L.A., Editor, Kessari Poona b 24 Aug 1872 m Durgabai, d of Moropant Jirade Educ Miraj Poona Bombay Dist Court Pleader till 1896 editor Maharashtra, Poona from 1897 to 1919 editor, Kessari from 1897 to 1899 and again from 1910 Municipal Councillor from 1898 to 1924 President Poona (H. Municipality) in 1918 and again from 1922 to 1924 President Bombay Provincial Conference 1920 Delegate and member of Congress Home Rule League deputation to England in 1919, elected member of the Legislative Assembly in 1923 Publications Books in Marathi 6 dramas 1 historical treatise 1 treatise on Wit and Humour Biographies of Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Garibaldi History of Ireland in English Case for Indian Home Rule Landmarks of Lokmanya's life, and "A Passing Phase of Politics" Address 504, Sudharik Path Poona (Hy)

KETWELDY MICHAELS MAJOR WILLIAM IVRY B.Sc. A.I.M.I.E. A.M.I. Chem. E. London Assay Master, H.M. Mint Bombay b 30 Oct. 1883 Polperro, Cornwall m 1916 Hilian Vesta d of late J. W. Richards of Aberkennig Glam. Wales Educ The Truro Grammar School and Redruth School of Mines (Cornwall) Arrived India 1st June 1918 from Malta Commissioned 2nd Lt R.G.A. 1914 retired from Army April 1920 Joined Mint Service Jan 1920 as Dy. Assay Master and confirmed Assay Master April 1922 Address His Majesty's Assay Office H.M. Mint, Bombay

KHAN SHAHAAT AHMAD B.A. First Class Honours in History 1914 Litt. D., 1919 Trinity College Dublin University Professor of Modern Indian History Allahabad University b February 1893 m Fahmeda, n d of the late Justice Shih Jha of the Punjab High Court Educ Government High School Moradabad Universities of Cambridge, Dublin and London Trinity College Dublin Member United Provinces Legislative Council from Moradabad U.P., since 1924 Gave evidence before the Reforms Inquiry Committee 1924 the Economic Inquiry Committee in 1925, and other Committees in United Provinces President of the Provincial Muhammadan Educational Conference, held at Allahabad in 1924 and 1929 Chairman Conference of Muslim members of Legis Council and local bodies Allahabad, February 1928 Chairman of the Committee for the Demands of U.P. Muslim organized the agitation against boycott of the Simon Commission and prepared with the help of other Muslim M.L.C.s an exhaustive memorandum for the Commission went to England in 1927 as delegate of U.P. Muslim M.L.C.s and lectured at Oxford Cambridge, Bristol and London on their behalf Elected member of the United Provinces Simon Committee wrote an explanatory Note to the Report of the U.P. Provincial Committee co-operating with Simon Commission explaining the political programme of Muslims of India, President, U.P. Muslim

KANITKAR, KESAV ILANGHANDRA, M A B.Sc., b 22 Aug. 1876, Educ New English school at Wal and Poona and Fergusson College Poona. Working as Life Member and Professor of Physics in the D E Society's institutions since 1907. Was in charge of the Boarding House, New English Schools in 1905. In charge of Fergusson Coll Hostel, 1906-14. In charge of Navin Marathi Shala 1914-21. In charge of Fergusson College since 1921. Has been on the Bombay University Senate for the last 17 years. Was on the Syndicate 1921-29 and on the School Leaving Examination Board for 8 years and Chairman Poona District School Board for the last five years. Represented western part of Poona on the Poona City Municipality for nearly 7 years and worked on the Yeshwantwaraya Technical Education Committee 1920. Secretary Physical Training Committee appointed by the Government 1928. Principal Fergusson College, Poona 1921-1929. Address Fergusson College, Poona.

KAPURTHALA COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS FARAZI DILRAB RASIKHUL-ISKANDAR, DAULAT-UL-INGLISHIA RAJA I RAJAGAT MAHA RAJA JAGAT SINGH BHABUR, Maharaja of Kapurthala, GCSI (1911) GCIE (1913). Cr G.B.P. (1927) on the occasion of his Golden Jubilee. Honorary Colonel of 3-11th Sikhs (45th Battery Sikhs). One of the principal Sikh Ruling Princes in India. In recognition of the prominent assistance rendered by the State during the Great War His Highness salute was raised to 17 guns and the annual tribute of £2,000 a year was remitted in perpetuity by the British Government. Received the Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur from the French Government in 1924, possesses also Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Roumania, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chili, Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order of Cuba, twice represented Indian Princes and India on the League of Nations in 1926 and 1927, celebrated the Golden Jubilee of his reign in 1927 with great éclat. b. 24 Nov 1872. son of His Highness the Late Raja Rajan Kharak Singh of Kapurthala. Address Kapurthala State, Punjab, India.

KARANDIKAR, RAGHUNATH PANDURANG, Advocate High Court Bombay. Professor Law College, Poona, and Member, Council of State, b 21 Aug 1857. In Khedikar family adopted into Karandikar 1886 as Sakshi. b of Rao Sahab Gogte of Pandharpur (1872). Educ at Satara and Poona. Sub Judge (1894). Member, Bhore Forest Committee (1886). Member elected Bombay Legislative Council 1911, attended His Imperial Majesty's Coronation at Delhi 1912. member of all Congresses and Committees 1886-1918. opened first Indian Conference at Utkley Yorkhove 1919, attended Ahmedabad Congress, 1922. President, Satara Diet Swaraj Party President, 1st Maharashtra Lawyers Conference, Poona 1923. President, Prov Postal and R. M. S. Conference Sessions 1928. Chairman, Board

of Directors Western India Life Insurance Co. Publications: Note on Land Revenue Code and Note on Agricultural Associations in 1905. Address Shantwar Peth, Satara City.

KARANJIA, BEHRAM NAORANJI, Merchant and Vice President Indian Merchants Chamber b Sept 1870. Educ Elphinstone High School and Sir Jamshedji Jeejeebhoy Parsi Benevolent Institution of Bombay. Was President of Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants Association, was Hon Secretary of the War Loan Committee for A Ward of Bombay. was Hon Secretary Our Day Fund. Hon Secretary of Peoples Fair in 1921. Awarded Kaiser Hind Medal and a Certificate of Merit in 1922. In Chairman of Versova Beach Sanitary Committee. Gave evidence before the Cotton Tiff Committee also give evidence before the Tariff Board of Inquiry re Gold Thread Industry and Central Banking Inquiry Committee. Is a Member of the Society for the Protection of Children in Western India, also a Trustee of various charitable institutions and has been the Director of some Joint Stock Companies. Address Messrs Gobhai Karanjia Limited, Bombay.

KARALI, H H MAHARAJA DHIRAJ SIB BHANWAR PAL, DEO BHABUR, YADUKUL CHANDRA BEAL GCIE KCIE b 24 July 1864. Educ Mayo Coll., Ajmer s 1886. Address Karali Rajpootana.

KASIMBAZAR MAHARAJA SIR MATINDRAY CHANDRA NADY OF KCIE Bengal b 1860 m 1878 Vice President Bengal Land holders Association and President British Indian Association. Educ Hindu School sometime Member Bengal Legislative Council Imperial Legislative Council of State and Chairman of Duhampore Municipality for six terms. Chairman District Board Murshidabad. Hon Fellow, Calcutta University and Life Member Hindu University Benares. Patron of several Clubs Associations and institutions in Bengal. Belongs to Moderate School of Politics. takes a keen interest in and is a patron of education Industries Agriculture literature and politics. Publications: Upasana, B S Panjika The Indian Medical Plant A History of Indian Philosophy, Great Ballsbanah Granthas, Part 10 of Breemat Bhagbat Funda mental Unity of India, History of Indian Shipping and Maritime Activity. Her-aparant Maharaj kumar Sri Chandra Nanday M.A., M.L.C., Chairman Berhampore Municipality. Address Rajbari Kasimbazar, Bengal, or 302, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

KASTURBHAI LALDHAI SETHI MILL-OWNER b 22 Dec 1894 m Srimati Sardaben, d of Mr Chimanlal Dadilal Zaveri of Ahmedabad. Educ at Gujrat College, Ahmedabad. Hon Secretary Ahmedabad Famline Relief Committee, 1918-19. elected Vice-President, Ahmedabad Millowners Association, 1923-26, elected member, Legislative Assembly as a representative of the Millowners Association (1923-26). Nominated as a delegate to the 12th International Labour Conference at Geneva, 1929. Address Pankore's Naka, Ahmedabad.

KAY, Sir JOSEPH ASPDEN, KT (1927)
 1 P Managing Director W H Brady & Co, Ltd Member Council of Imperial Agricultural Research 6 20th January 1884 m 1928 Milled second d of late J S and E A Burnett of Bowley Derbyshire Educ at Bolton, Lancashire Came to India to represent firm, 1907 Managing Director and Chairman of Board of the several companies under their control, Chairman, Bombay Millowners Association 1921 and 1922 Employers Delegate to International Labour Conference, 1921 Officer in Bombay Light House, Vice-President, Chamber of Commerce 1921, President Chamber of Commerce 1926 and Vice-President India Central Cotton Committee 1925 26 Chairman Back Bay Inquiry Committee 1928 Chairman Prohibition (Finance) Committee (Bombay), 1928 Address Wilderness Cottage, Nepan Sea Road Bombay

KAZI SYED HIFAZAT ALI BA LI B
 b 1892 Educ Jabalpur, Aligarh and Allahabad Elected President, Municipal Committee Khandwa, 1920 Minister for Local Self Government, Public Works, Public Health etc., Central Provinces Address Indrapura Khandwa

KAFAYAT EDWARD HERBERT, CIE (1928)
 ICS AGG Western India, b 1873 m 1905 Tempe d of Sir Charles Bayley GCI, KCSI, Educ Reford and University College, Oxford Entered ICS 1897 Bengal 1897 1902 Joined Political Dept. Govt of India March 1902 Served in Rajputana Central India Ajmer Merwara NWFP, PAK, G Central India 1904-05 Asst. Sec. Govt of India, Foreign and Political Dept 1905 Consul Superintendent Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara, 1910-12 Secretary NWFP 1915-20, Offg Resident Gwalior 1922 Resident, Baroda, June 1923 March 1927 offg AGG, Central India, March-October 1927, AGG Western India October 1927 Publications Revised Aitchinson's Treatise (1909) and Census Reports on Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara (1913) Address The Residency, Rajkot.

KAPANE MICHAEL CSI (1929) CIT (1927)
 b 1874 m Joyce Lovett Thomas Educ School Clongowes Wood and University College, Dublin entered ICS 1898 Has been Under-Secy to Govt on deputation under the Govt of India for settlement work in the Tonk and Sirohi States in Rajputana District Officer in Agra and Cawnpore, Judicial Secy to Govt Chief Secy to Govt and President U P Legislative Council 1921-25 Member Public Service Commission, 1923 Commissioner, Meerut, 1929 Address Meerut

KEELING, Sir HUGH TROWBRIDGE, KT (1923)
 CSI, 1816, A MICE, Ch Eng and Secy to Ch Commr, Delhi, since 1912 Mem of Delhi Imp Commn 1913, Mem, Institute of Engineers (Ind) 6 14 April 1886 Educ Marlborough and Cooper's Hill m Edith d of Col T O Underwood, late 4th Punjab Cavalry Asst Eng., Madras P W D, 1887, Exec Eng., 1898 Superintending Eng. 1910 Address P W D Delhi

KELKAR NARISHA CHINTAMAN BA, LL B.
 (1894) M.L.A. Editor, Kesari Poona 6 24 Aug 1872 m Durghabai d of Moropant Pende Educ Miraj Poona Bombay Dist Court Pleader till 1896 editor, Maharashtra, Poona from 1897 to 1919 editor Kesari from 1897 to 1899 and again from 1910 Municipal Councillor from 1895 to 1924 President Poona (Municipality) in 1916 and again from 1922 to 1924 President Bombay Provincial Conference 1920, Delegate and member of Congress Home Rule League deputation to England in 1919, elected member of the Legislative Assembly in 1923 Publications Books in Marathi 6 dramas 1 historical treatise 1 treatise on Wit and Humour Biographies of Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Garibaldi History of Ireland in English Case for Indian Home Rule Landmarks of Lokmanya's life and "A Passing Phase of Politics" Address 564 Budanashil 16th Poona City

KENNEDY MINARDS MAJOR WILLIAM IVRY
 B.Sc. A.M.I.C.E. A.M.I. Chem E London Assay Master H.M. Mint Bombay 6 20 Oct. 1887 Polpurro, Cornwall m 1916 Indian Vista wd of late J W Richards of Aberkennig Glam Wales Educ The Truro Grammar School and Rodrich School of Mines Cornwall Arrived India 1st June 1914 from Malta (Commissioned 2nd Lt RGA 1914 retired from Army April 1920 Joined Mint Service Jan 1920 as Dy Assay Master and confirmed Assay Master, April 1922 Address His Majesty's Assay Office H.M. Mint Bombay

KHAN SHAFIAT AHMAD BA First Class Honours in History 1914 Litt D, 1919, Trinity College Dublin University Professor of Modern Indian History Allahabad University 6 February 1901 m Fatmehoda y d of the late Justice Shah Dn of the Punjab High Court Educ Government High School Miranabad Universities of Cambridge, Dublin and London Trinity College Dublin Member United Provinces Legislative Council from Moradabad U.P., since 1924 Gave evidence before the Economic Inquiry Committee in 1925, and other Committees in United Provinces President of the Provincial Muhammadan Educational Conference held at Allahabad in 1925 and 1929 Chairman Conference of Muslim members of Legis Council and local bodies Allahabad February 1928, Chairman of the Committee for the Demands of U.P. Muslim organised the agitation against boycott of the Simon Commission and prepared with the help of other Muslim M.L.C.s an exhaustive memorandum for the Commission, went to England in 1927 as delegate of U.P. Muslim M.L.C.s and lectured at Oxford Cambridge Bristol and London on their behalf Elected member of the United Provinces Simon Committee wrote an explanatory Note to the Report of the U.P. Provincial Committee co-operating with Simon Commission explaining the political programme of Muslims of India, President, U.P. Muslim

Educational Conference, Allahabad, 1929, President, Punjab Muslim Educational Conference, Lahore, October 1929. President Ajmer Merwara Provincial Muslim Educational Conference, March 1930. President, Bengal Muslim Educational Conference (Bittagong), April 1930. Founder and proprietor of the English weekly the *Star* Allahabad. Publications: Founder and Editor till 1924 of the *Journal of Indian History*, published Anglo-Portuguese Negotiations relating to Bombay 1667-1673. In 1923 *Past India Trade in the Seventeenth Century*. 1924 *Source for the History of British India in the Seventeenth Century*, 1928 *John Marshall in India 1688-1672 What are the Rights of Muslim Minority in India?* (1928) *Organiser and joint author of The Memoirs of the Muslims of United Provinces in the Indian Statutory Commission* (July 1929). Address: University of Allahabad, Allahabad.

KHAPARDH, GANESH SHRIKISHNA, B.A. (1877), LL.B. (1884). Advocate and Member of Council of State b 1905, m Laxmi Lal Educ in Dera and Bombay Extra Asst Commissioner in Dera from 1885 to 1889 returned to the Bar, Vice Chairman of the Local Municipality and Chairman of the District Board for nearly 17 years. Member of Victoria Legislative Council. Member of the Council of State re-elected in 1925. Address: Amriti Dera C P.

KHAWAJA MUHAMMAD NUR, THE HON KHAJ BAHADUR, B.A. B.L. (P.F.) Puisne Judge Patna High Court (1930) b 1878 m 1898 Educ. Gaya Zillah School Duveton Coll, St Xavier's College Calcutta. Ripon Coll, Calcutta Practised as lawyer from 1904 to 1922. President, Legal Council Bihar and Orissa from 1922. Address: Gaya (Bihar and Orissa).

KIKABHAI FREMCHAND SIR, K.T. (1931) Khasaker b April 1 1868 m Thy A. Fremchand Educ at Bombay Member, Legislative Assembly from January 1927 to September 1930. Member of the Indian Central Committee which co-operated with the Indian Statutory Committee. Address: Premodvan, Byndla, or 63 Apollo Street, Bombay.

KILBE, MADHARAO VINAYAK Sarda (hereafter) Rao Bahadur (1913) Dnyanikhar Bahadur (1920) M.A. (1901) Deputy Prime Minister Holkar State Indur b 1877 m Karmalal Kibe Educ Dalk College Indur Muir Central College Allahabad. Hon Attaché to Agent to the Governor General in Central India Minister Dewas State, (J.B.) Publications: articles in well known magazines in Hindi Marathi and English on Economic History and Antiquities. Address: Saraswatiketan (camp Indur, Central India).

KING, CHARLES MONTAGUE O.S.I. (1922) C.I.E., Financial Commissioner, Punjab, 1922 Educ: St Paul's School, Balliol Coll Oxford Ent. I.C.S. 1892 Deputy Commr, 1901, Commissioner, 1917, Dy Commr, Punjab, 1901-22 Address: Lahore.

KIRKPATRICK, LIEUT. GENERAL SIR GEORGE MACAULAY K.O.B. (1918), K.O.B.J. (1917) G.O.C. in Chief, Western Command, b 23

August, 1866 m Mary Lydia, d of J F Dennistoun, K.C. B.M.O. Kingston, Canada Educ: Halesbury Joined Royal Engineers, 1886, Inspector-General, Australian Military Forces. Chief of General Staff, India 1916-1920, G.O.C. China Command 1920-1922.

KIRPALANI HIRANAND KUSHNAR, I.C.S. M.A. (Bom) B.A. (Oxon) Bar at Law (Jinnah's Inn), Collector of Panch Mahals and Political Agent, Hwa Kantha Agency since 1930 b 28 Jan 1888 m to Gul H Gidvani Educ: N.H. Academy, Hyderabad (Sind) D.J. Sind College Karachi and Merton Coll Oxford Asst Coll and Magt Ahmedabad Broach and Surat 1912-1918 Municipal Commr Surat 1918 to 1920 Jalugdari Settlement Officer, Guzerat, 1921 Dy Municipal Commissioner Bombay 1921 Collr and Dist Magt Kaira, 1923-24, Dy Secretary to Government, Rev Dept 1924-26, Ag Municipal Commissioner for the (Hy of Bombay 1926 Collector of Kolaba 1928 Dyputy Secretary Indian Central Committee 1929 Address: Resident's Quarters.

KIRWAN, MAJOR GENERAL BERTHAN RICHARD CB (1918) (M.U.) (1916) (Despatches seven times Chevalier Legion of Honour Officer Legion of Honour French (croix de guerre) R.A. Master General of Ordnance in India b 17 May 1871 m of late Rev R. Kirwan Rector of Little Am Devou m 1897 Helen Margaret d of Col T. W. Hong Indian Staff Corps One s one d Educ: Elected Royal Military Academy Woolwich 2nd Lt. B.A. 1890 Lt. 1893 Capt 1900 Maj 1908 Lt Col 1915 Col (Brev) 1917 (Bn) 1919 Maj Gen 1925 Staff Capt R.Q. of Army and War Office 1908-1912 Inst (1st class) Sch of Gunn 1913 Maj Inst Sch of Gunn 1913-14 Asst Inst Sch of Inst for R.H. and R.A. 1914 Spec Appt (Brig Maj) (Staff Off to Maj Gen R.A.) France 1914 to G.S.O. I (Staff Off to Maj Gen R.A.) France 1914-16 Brig Gen R.A. France (Army Brig Gen) 1916-17 G.O.C. R.A. XV Army Corps 1917-19 Brig Gen B.A. Rhine Army 1919 to 1920 Dir of Art War Office 1920-23 President Ordn Committee England (Maj Gen June 1925) 1923-27 Maj Gen B.A. Army Head Quarters India Maj 1929 Master General of the Ordnance in India April 1930 Address: Army Headquarters India Delhi and Feroza.

KISCH, BARTHOLOMÄUS SCHLEISSER B.A. (Oxford) C.I.E. (1926), I.C.S. District and Sessions Judge United Provinces Controller, Local Clearing Office (Enemy Debts) and Administrator of Austrian and Hungarian Property in India Secretary to Joint Committee of the House of Lords and House of Commons to inquire into the Organisation and Methods of the Central Prisoners of War Committee 1917, attached to Legislative Department Government of India b 25 Oct 1882 m Magdeleine Louise Claire Bernard Antony Educ: St Paul's School, London and Exeter College, Oxford. Address: Delhi and Simla.

KISHENGABH, H. H. MAHARAJA ADHIRAJ MAHARAJA MADANJINGH BAHADUR, K.O.B.I. K.O.B.I. b Nov 1884, s father, late Maha-

raja Sir Sardul Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., or 1892, m. 2nd d. of present Chief of Udaipur served European War, 1914-15 Address Kishengpur Rajputana

KISHUN PERSHAD RAWAT RAJAYAN MAHA RAJA BAHADUR, YAMKUR-SALTANATH SIA G.C.I.E., K.C.I.F. or 1903 G.C.I.F. or 1910 Hereditary Palshkar and President of the State Executive Council Hyderabad State. b 23 Jan 1864. Educ. Azams College Palshkar and Military Minister 1893 1901 Prime Minister 1901 1912. President of Executive Council since Nov 1923 under the present constitution. Publications copious in Urdu and Persian prose and poetry. Descended from the great Hyderabad Statesman Maharaja Chandoo Lal Heir Raja Bahadur Pershad. Address City Palace Hyderabad

KOLHAPUR LT COL HIS HIGHNESS SIR SHRI RAJARAM CHATRAPATI, MAHARAJA OF since 1912 G.C.I.F. (1924) b 30 July 1897 e s of (of Sir Shahu Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur (d 1922) direct descendant of Shivaji the Great, the founder of the Maratha Empire m 1918 H H Shrimati Parvati Sahab g u of H H Sir Sayajirao Maharaj (now Ruler of Baroda m again to His Highness Shri Vijayrama Maharaj Sahab in June 1925 Educ. Privately in Kolhapur. Herndon School studied agriculture at F Wing Christian College Allahabad Hon Lt Col Colonelship in the Indian Army was conferred in April 1927 Address Kolhapur

KOLLENGODE, RAJA SIR V. VASUDHRA RAJA VALIA NAMHUT OF K (1923) G.C.I.F. (1914) F.M.U. (1921) Landholder b Oct 1871 m to C. Kalyani Amma, d of M. K. Rama Venon Chief Justice of Travancore Educ. Rajah's High School Kollengode, and Victoria College, Palghat Senior member and manager of the aristocratic family of Venganoor in Malabar, twice nominated as member of Madras Legislative Council, afterwards elected Member Madras Legislative Council, representing landholders, Member Council of State (1922) Temp Member Madras Executive Council from Nov 1922 to April 1924 Elected Member of the Legislative Assembly representing Landholders of the Madras Presidency from Sept 1930 also Member of the Annamalai University since 1929 Address Kollengode Malabar Dist

KOTAH, H. H. LIEUT COLONEL SIR UNED SINGH BAHADUR MAHARAJ OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. or 18, R.C.S.I., Hon Lt-Col in Army, Hon Major, 42nd Deol Regt b 1873 s 1889 Address Kotah, Rajputana

KOTLA, HON SIR RAJA BAHADUR KUSHAL PAL SINGH OF MA (Cal) LL.B. (All) M.L.C. Minister for Education and Industries U.P. Government b 15 Dec. 1872 Succeeded to Kotla estate, 1905 Member U.P. Legis Council since 1909 Member Imperial Legis Council 1918-19 Member Legis Assembly 1921 23 Special Magistrate Chairman Agra Dist Board Trustee and Mem of Managing Committee of Agra Coll, Member of Governing Body of Cawnpore

Agricultural College Member of the Senate of Agra University Address Nainital, Lucknow

KRISHNAMACHARYA, RAO BAHADUR VANOLATHIRUVENKATA S A, B.L., C.I.E. (1920) Dewan of Baroda b 1881 m Sri Mangammal Educ. Provincial Coll Madras and Law Coll Madras entered Madras Civil Service by a competitive examination in 1903 served in several districts 1908 1911 Chief Revenue Officer, Cochin State also Offg. Dewan for some time 1913-1919 served in Madras as Asst Secy Board of Revenue Under-Secy to Govt Special Officer for Southborough Commission etc 1919 1922 Trustee Vishnagar Estate 1923 1924 Collector of Rammed April 1924 to Feb 1927 Secretary to the Govt of Madras in Law Education and other Departments Joined as Dewan of Baroda February 1927, services being lent to the Baroda Government Address Dharan Baroda

KRISHNAUNISH CHANDEA RAY THE HON MAHARAJA BAHADUR of Nadia (Bengal) Maharaja created 1912, Delhi Durbar Maharaja Bahadur created 1917 Member Bengal Executive Council in charge of Revenue Irrigation, L S G Medical, Public Health, b 29 Oct 1890 m Jyotirmoyi Dabi youngest d of late Raja Ashutosh Nath Roy of Kanchiabazar (Dist Murshidabad) Educ. Privately Only son of late Maharaja Kshitish Chandra Roy Bahadur of Nadia, succeeded 1910 2d was elected a Member of the first reformed Bengal Legislative Council from the Non-Mahomedan constituency of Nadia, 1920-22 Member Bengal Executive Council since 1st August 1924, first elected non-official Chairman of Nadia District Board 1920 24 Resident Nadia Landholders Association Address The Palace, Krishnagar Nadia House, 2, Bright Street, Ballygunge Calcutta

KUICH H. H. MAHARAJA (MAHARAO) DHIRAJ MIRZAN MAHARAO SHRI KHYEGARJI SAWAI BAHADUR OF G.C.S.I. G.C.I.E. b 23rd August 1866 m 1884 Represented India Imperial Conference 1921 received Freedom City of London 1921 Undertook to give £3,000 monthly for support of Indian Regiment during European War 1915, represented India, League of Nations 1921, received Freedom of the City of Bath, 1921 Address The Palace, Bhuj, Kutch

LAHORE, BISHOP OF, since 1918, RT REV HENRY BICKERSTETH DUMFRIES, M.A., D.D., C.B.E. Educ. Highgate Sch, Pembroke Coll Lamb Ch Mass Coll Islington Curate of 41 Matthew's East Stonehouse, 1894-95, C.M.S. Missionary, Lucknow, 1896, St John's Coll, Agra, 1897 Vice Prin, 1900, Prin 1911, Fellow, Allahabad Univ, 1906, served European War, Mesopotamia (Kut-el-Amara), 1915 (Despatches), 1918 (Despatches) Publication The Mind of a Master Builder Address Bishopsbourne Lahore

LAHMIDAN BOWSER TAYLOR, B.A. Land Lord and Merchant m Ladbroke R Palace Educ. St Xavier's College Bombay, Trustee, Tilak Swaraj Fund, Member

Bombay Municipal Corporation representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Board of the Bombay Port Trust, and President, F J Hindu Gymkhana, President Bhatia Mitra Mandal. *Publications* *Frased* *Financo* *Speeches* and *Writings* of B G Hornbman. *Estate*, *Parasite* and *Plaques*. *Address* 29-31 23 Bora Pagar Street, Fort, and 259 Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay, and Pandhvali Nask City.

LAKHTAR, CHIEF OF THAKORE SAHED DAL-VIRSIJI KARANSINGJI b 11 Jan 1881 Succeeded father 8 Aug 1924 *Address* Lakhtar, Katinawar Agency Bombay

LAKSHMINARAYAN LAL, RAI SABIS son of Munshi Dyal Narayan Lal, Pleader and Zemindar b 1870 m to Srimati Navarati Kuniwar. *Educ* at Aurangabad, Gaya and Patna. *Read pleader'ship examination* in 1890 and since practising as a pleader at Aurangabad and Gaya in the Province of Bihar and Orissa. Was Hon. Organizer of Co-operative Societies, Director and Chairman of the Central Bank, Aurangabad, ex Chairman of the Local Board Aurangabad, ex Chairman of the Divisional Co-operative Federation Patna, ex Councillor of the Co-operative Federation Bihar and Orissa, a nominated member of the first Legislative Assembly, and Member National Convention ex Vice-President Provincial Hindu Sabha, Bihar and Orissa, and ex President Propaganda Committee Kayastha Sabha Bihar and Orissa. *Publications* *Glories of Indian Medicine*, *Sahyog*, *Samudrajatra*. *Twelve Main Points of Co-operation* *Udesh Manjari* and *Charitra Mahatmya* Hindu Musalman Ekta, Sri Gharatnawali and Sri Gandhi Gita. *Address* Aurangabad 1st Gaya, Bihar and Orissa.

LAL, RAO BABADUR BAKSHI SONAR, M.A. (son Mahomedan Constitution), Jullundur (Divn.) Vakil, H. C. Lahore b 4 April 1867 Practised as Vakil in Kangra, Jullundur and Lahore. Elected Member, Punjab Leg Council, 1912 and 1916 *Address* High Court, Lahore

LAL, PIYARE, Bar-at-Law, Member, Legislative Assembly b Jan 20 *Educ* Muir Central College, Allahabad Called to the Bar in 1886, Law Professor, Meerut College, 1894-96, practised up to 1896 was Minister of Sialiana State, 1896-1900, Chief Justice and latterly Judicial Member, Council of State, Indore, from 1900 to 1906 travelled round the world in 1913 Chairman, Reception Committee of the U P Political Conference, 1914, Special Magistrate, First Class, from 1915-1926 President, Cantonments Conference, 1923, at Rawalpindi *Address* Meerut

LALKAKA, JEWANGIR ARDESHIR Artist b 3 March 1884 Grandson of Khan Bahadur Sir Nowrojee Pestonji Vakil, O.I.E., of Ahmedabad m. Miss Tehni Jamsetji Kharsa of Bandra. *Educ* Ahmedabad High School, Elphinstone Coll., Bombay, Sir J J School of Art, Bombay and St. John's Wood and Westminster Schools of Art, London. Painted life size memorial portrait of Sir Pherozshah

M. Mehta for Municipal Corpn Bombay unveiled by H E Sir George Lloyd Sir D E Wacha's portrait in the Bombay Univ., Dr Dadabhai Nowroji's portrait and Prinopal A L Govortova's portrait for Elphinstone Coll., Sir Nowrojee Pestonjee Vakil's portrait for Nowrojee Hall, Ahmedabad, and H H the Nawab of Rampur's life size portrait for Durbar Hall Bombay. H E Sir Leslie Wilson's portrait as District Grand Master for the Masooli Hall Bombay Member of the Government of Bombay Board of Examiners for Art Examinations 1918-1922 Chosen by the Govt of India to copy Royal portraits in England 1920 *Address* 22, Babulnath Road Bombay The Studio Sea Face, Chowpaty, Bombay

ALUNHAI SAMALDAS SIR KT (1926), J.P. C.I.E. (1914) b October 1863 m Satyawati d of Bhimrao Kolanath Divatia of Ahmedabad *Educ* Bhavnagar High School and Fipkin stone College Under-Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja of Bhavnagar and Revenue Commissioner Bhavnagar Resigned service in 1900 and entered business at Bombay as Guaranteed Broker to Gyn Klynanjunga. Helped in starting the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank Bank of Baroda Indian Cement Company Sindia Stram Navigation Company Ltd Director in Commercial firms and banks Nominated to the Bombay Legislative Council in 1910 1913 and 1916 President of the All India Industrial Conference at Karachi in 1913 Member Madras Committee on Co-operation 1914 1916, President Mysore Co-operative Conference 1915 Chairman Mysore Co-operative Committee 1921 22 Member Senate of Bombay University Hon Treasurer Adams Wythe Hospital, 1918 22 and of Sova Sadan President Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau 1917 18 Elected to Council of State 1920 Member Indian Mercantile Marine Committee 1923 24 President, Indian Economic Conference at Benares 1927, Ag Member Bombay Executive Council 1929, President of Madras, Bihar and Orissa and United Provinces Co-operative Conference in 1926 1928 and 1928 *Address* Andheri via B B & C T Railway

LAMBERT, SIR GEORGE BANCROFT BA (Oxon.), K.C.S.I. (1929) C.B.I. (1923) Financo Member, U P (Acting Governor 1930 31) b 28th October 1878 m Ann d. of Rev Rutland Spooner *Educ* Magdalen Coll., Oxford *Address* Lucknow

LANGLEY, GEORGE HARRY, M.A. Vice Chancellor, Dacca University since January 1 1928, b 14 July 1881 s of Iveson and Matilda Emma Langley, m 1913, Evelyn Mary Biggart Armagh. *Educ* The University Reading Scholar in Logic and Psychology, London University 1906, M.A. in Philosophy with special mark of distinction University of London 1909 Indian Educational Service, 1913, Professor Presidency College, Calcutta, 1913, Professor of Philosophy Dacca College 1913 Professor of Philosophy and Provost of Dacca Hall University of Dacca, 1921 25, Acting Vice Chancellor, Dacca University, July to

September 1922. Publications: Articles in Blind Proceedings of Aristotelian Society, Hibbert Journal, Monist, Quest, Decca University Bulletin, Indian Philosophical Review, Indian Journal of Philosophy, etc. Address: Ramna Decca, & Bengal.

IATIF, CAMRUDIN AMIRUDIN ABDUL B A late Mem of Sec of States Adv Comm for Ind Students, & Cambay 25 Sept 1896 Educ. Elphinstone Coll, Bombay, Bombay Univ, practised as Vakil of Consular Courts, Zanzibar and Mombassa, 1890-93, Legal Adviser to successive Sultans of Zanzibar Fellow, Bombay Univ. J.P. Bombay Hereditary Inamdar (Bombay State) Address: 1 Harvey Road (Chowpat) Bombay

LAITHN DWAN BANADIR ANNA BABAJI M A LL B (Bombay), 1878 m to Jyotsnabai Kadir of Kolhapur Educ. Deccan College Poona Prof of English Rajaram College Kolhapur 1907-1911 Educational Inspector Kolhapur till 1911 President Southern Maharashtra Jan Association and Karnataka Non-Brahmin League. Edited Deccan Ryot (1918-20) Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly 1921-23, Member of the University Reform Committee 1921. Diwan of Kolhapur 1926-30 Diwan Bahadursipat Conference in 1930 Publications: Introduction to Jainism (English), Growth of British Empire in India (Marathi), Memoirs of Shahu Chhatrapati and Shri Shahu Chhatrapati Chattrita in Marathi (1925) Address: Kolhapur

LEITCH, CHARLES GERRANS, C B E (1910) Indian Trades Agent, East Africa b 31 July 1872, m. Evadne Fawcett of Almouth, Northumberland Educ. Christ's Hospital and St John's College, Cantab. Entered ICS 1896 Served in C P Address: Bombay

LEGGE, FRANCIS CROFT, C B E, V D (1910), Director of Wagon Interchange Indian Railway Conference Awoon b 14 September 1873 Educ. Sherborne School Address: Bengal Club Calcutta

LESLIE, BRADFORD LIEUT COL SIR KT, O B E (Military 1917), M Inst C.E., M I E, Chairman and Chief Engineer Madras Port Trust b 1868 m Edith Stewart, Fider Marlborough. On B A N for 12 years retiring as Deputy Agent and Chief Engineer to join firm of Sir John Wolfe Barry and Brunel, Consulting Engineers, Westminster E Col B E, Northern France 1916 to 1919 Chairman and Chief Engineer Madras Port Trust since 1921 Address: Harbour House, Madras

LESLIE JONES, FREDERICK ARCHIBALD M A, O B E, Principal of Mayo College b 1874 m Christiana Mary Bankett Educ. Bromsgrove and Lincoln College, Oxford Assistant and House Master Marlborough College, 1897-1904, Prince Aitchison College Lahore, 1904-1917 Publications: A View of English History Address: Mayo College, AImore

LEY, ARTHUR HERBERT, B A, C P I (1926) O B E (1918), C B E (1924), Member Public Services (Commission) India. b 7 Nov 1879 Educ. Winchester College and New College, Oxford Entered ICS 1903 Under Secretary Government of Bengal, 1908 Under Secretary Govt. of India 1909-12 Director General of Commercial Intelligence 1914-18 Dy Secretary Commerce Department 1916-18 Secretary Commerce Department, 1919, Chief Controller, Surplus Stores 1921-23 Secretary Department of Industries 1923-1926 Address: Delhi and Simla

LINDSAY SINDHART KT (192) O B E, 1919 Kaiser-i-Hind (old Medal 1911) M L A b Nov 1900, Late Secretary, Calcutta Branch, Royal Insurance Co Address: 26, Dalhousie Square Calcutta

LINDSAY, HARRY ALEXANDER FATSHAW, C B E, C B L ICS Indian Trade Commissioner London b 11 March 1881 m Kathi Ken Lodge Huntingdon Educ. St Paul's School, London Worcester College Oxford Address: Mutual Club Calcutta, and Oriental Club London

LITTLETATLIS, RICHARD M A (Oxon), (I.L. Educational Commissioner with Government of India 1925 b 14 February 1878 Educ. Balliol Coll, Oxford and King's University, Demonstrator and Lecturer (Harvard University Oxford Joined ICS 1903 as Prof of Mathematics Presidency College Madras Director of Public Instruction Madras 1919 Address: Delhi and Simla

LLOYD ATAY HUBERT B A (Cantab) O K I, ICS Member Central Board of Revenue b August 30 1863 m Violet Mary, 4 of the late J C Orrock Educ. King William's College Isle of Man Gonville & Caius College Cambridge Appointed to Indian Civil Service Burma 1907 Member, Central Board of Revenue since 1923 Address: Delhi and Simla

LOHARU, THE HON NAWAB SIR AMIR-UD-DIN AHMED KHAN BAHADUR K C I E Member Council of Sindh, and Persian and Urdu Poet b 1869 s 1894 Ruling Chief of Moghal tribe Abducted in favour of his heir Apparent and successor in 1920 voluntarily retaining title and 9 guns salute as personal distinctions for two years Mem of Imi Leg Council and for two years Mem of Punjab Council again a member of Council of State for 3 years, Superintendent and Advisor to the Maharaja State in the Punjab for 12 years Attached to Pol Dept in Mesopotamia After death of his son the Ruling Nawab he is now Nawab Regent during the minority of his grandson the Nawab of Loharu Address: Loharu Bazaar

LORT WILLIAMS HON MR JUSTICE JOHN ROBERTSON K C (1922) Puisne Judge, High Court Calcutta b 14 September 1881 m 1923 Dorothy Margery Mary o c of late Edward Russell, The Hermitage Hampstead Educ. Merchant Taylors London University

Tancred student 1902. Barrister, Lincoln's Inn 1904 Member Inner and Middle Temple Recorder of West Bromwich 1923 and of Walsall 1924 23 President Hardwicks Society 1911 Contested (U) Penabrookshire, 1906 and 1908 Stockport, December 1910 (to T) M P Rothercliffe 1918-1922 (U) 1923 Member of the Oxf. J. Club Served six years in Middlesex Imperial Yeomanry Member of the L. C. C. (Ighitehouse), 1907 10 Vice Chairman of Housing Committee Appointed, Judge, Calcutta High Court 1927
Address High Court Calcutta

IOW, FRANCIS Assistant Editor *The Times of India* 19 November 1898 m Margaret Helen Adams, Educ Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen Joined staff *Aberdeen Free Press* 1911 Served in War with Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force Special Service Officer, Intelligence, G H Q 1919 GAZETTED out with rank of Captain 1920 Chief Reporter *Aberdeen Free Press* 1920 Sub-Editor *The Times of India* 1922, Asst Editor, 1927
Address 67 C Warden Road Bombay

LOYD Rt Rev P H see Nasik Bishop of

LYALL FRANK FREDERICK CIL, ICF (ret'd) General Manager, Kasim Bazaar Raj b 12 June 1872 Educ Edinburgh Academy Balliol Coll Oxford Eng. I C S 1891 m Miss J K Markham (1908) Ministry of Munitions London 1915 1918 Committee 1919 retired 1924 Address 17 Allpore Park Calcutta

LYLL, THOMAS MCLEDDRY, B F A R I C I E (1923), J S E Executive Engineer in charge of Sarda Canal headworks Construction b 24 May 1886 m Mary Stewart Forsyth, 1922 Educ St Andrews College Dublin Royal College of Science Ireland Queen's College, Belfast and Royal University of Ireland (Graduated 1908 First Place with First Class Honours) Assistant on Main Drainage Construction under London County Council 1908 09 apptd Asst. Engineer in P W D (Irrigation), U P India in 1909 employed on various large construction works including Ganga Dam on Ken River in U P in charge of construction of Ghaghar Canal Reservoir and Karamnasa Feeder cut and headworks Executive Engineer in charge of Design and Construction of Sarda Canal Barrage and head portion of Sarda Canal including the Jagmura Syphon (the largest syphon in the world) and other cross drainage works War service in Westkhan in South Persia and in the 3rd Afghan War Mentioned in Despatches by G O (Rumhrle Field Force in 1918 19 (South Persia) Address Executive Engineer Irrigation Branch, Lucknow U P

MACARRISON, COLONEL ROBERT I M S M D, D Sc Hon LL.D, F.R.C.P (London) Hon Physician to H M the King, Foreign Associate Fellow College of Physicians (Philadelphia), Kaiser i Hind (1st Class), 1911, C.I.E (1923), Director Nutritional Research, Indian Research Fund Association, Pasteur Institute, Coonoor b 15 March 1878 m Helen Stella 3rd s of the late J L Johnston, L.C.S. Judicial Commissioner, Sind Educ

Queen's College, Belfast Graduated M B Bch, B A O (1st Class Hon and Exhibition) (1900) M D (Hons) 1900 M R O P (Lond) 1904 D So (Belfast) 1911, F R C P (Lond) 1914, Entered I.M.S., 1901, Milroy Lecturer College of Physicians, London, 1913 Mellon Lecturer, University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A., 1921 Mary Scott Newbold Lecturer C P Philadelphia 1921 Hanna Lecturer Cleveland, Ohio U.S.A. 1921 Mayo Foundation Lecturer Rochester Min. U.S.A. 1921, Arnott Memorial Gold Medalist Irish Medical Schools and Graduates Association 1921 Prix Amusat Academy of Medicine Paris (1914) Laureate of the Academy of Medicine Paris (1914) Stewart Prize for Research, British Medical Association (1918) Foreign Associate Fellow, College of Physicians of Philadelphia (1922) Hon LL.D., Queen's University Belfast 1919 Silver Medalist, Royal Society of Arts, 1925, Brevet Lt Colonel (1918) for distinguished service in the Field Brevet Colonel 1925 Publications Endemic Goitre London, 1913 The Thyroid Gland in Health and Disease London 1917 Studies in Deficiency Disease London, 1921 The Simple Goitres London 1928 Food Madras, 1928 Numerous scientific papers on the Physiology and pathology of the thyroid and parathyroid glands and on disorders of Nutrition in Proc. Roy Soc. Proc. Royal Soc., Med Indian Journal Medical Research etc Address Pasteur Institute Coonoor South India

MACMILLAN LIEUT GENERAL CYRIL NORMAN C B CMG CIE DSO General Officer Commanding Rawalpindi Dist b 1877 Served N.W. Frontier 1897-98 (medal and clasp) Tibet expedition, 1903 4 (medal) European War 1914 19 (despatches CMG, DSO Brevet Lt Col, Legion of Honour, Order of Crown of Belgium, Croix de Guerre) Afghan War 1919 Army Headquarters India 1924 27 G O C Rawalpindi District, 1927 Address Rawalpindi

MACTAGGART, COLONEL CHARLES, CSI 1919 C.I.P. Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, U P b 1861 Educ Campbelltown Gram Sch. Glasgow Univ, BSc I M S, 1886 Insp Gen of Prisoners, 1902, Mem, Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08 Mem of U P Leg Council, 1909 Address Lucknow

MCKENZIE, THE REV JOHN M.A. (Aberdeen) 1904 Senior Cunningham Fellow New College, Edinburgh, 1908 Principal Wilson College and Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University b 13 June 1883 m Agnes Ferguson M.D. Educ Aberdeen University, New College Edinburgh Tebingen University Ordained 1908 Appointed Professor in Wilson College 1908 Appointed Principal, 1921 Fellow of the University of Bombay, President, Bombay Christian Council 1924-25, President, Bombay Anthropological Society 1927 29 Publications Hindu Ethics (Oxford Univ Press) Edited Worship, Witness and Work by R.S. Simpson, D.D. (James Clarke) Edited The Christian Task in India (Macmillan) Address Wilson College House Bombay

LOWATTERS, SIR ARTHUR GEORGE Kt (1929) C.I.E. (1918) I.C.S. Secretary to the Govt of India Finance Department (1929) Member of the Council of State & 13 September 1880 m. Mary only d. of Sir Stephen Minney (C.I.F. two s. & four d. Clifton Trinity College Oxford 1st class (Lawal Med 1st m. 1st Class 1st Hon. Toluid) I.C.S. 1904 served in the U.P., Under-Sec. Government of India Department of Commerce and Industry, 1910-18 Wheat Commissioner 1915 Controller of Hides and Wool, 1917, Chisleman, Board of Special Referees Excess Profits Duty Act, 1919 Secretary to Government of India, Secretariat Procedure Committee 1919 Represented Govt. of India on Commercial Mission to Persia 1920 Controller of Currency 1920-23 Secretary to the Govt of India, Finance Department 1923-26 Ag. Member of the Governor General's Council, Oct to Dec 1927 and April to October 1928 Secretary India m. s. and John Department of the Govt of India 1926-1929 Address The Secretariat B. Hill & South

ISADAN MEHERJI BHAI PATAJI J. P. and Non-Residency Magistrate and Journalist & 14th September 1900 m. Bachubai Dattabhai Kulkarni Educ. Sir J. J. Benoykut Invention and Sir Jamshedji Jeejeebhoy Madrasa as well as Mulla Feroz Madrasa Began in 1877 as Reporter and Sub Editor of the *Bombay Samachar* and by degrees rose to the Editorship of the same about the year 1898 In 1915 joined the newly started *Pravasi Mitra* and the *Purask* as its first Editor and in 1921 started a new paper the *Satyajit Mitra* Publications Many small tracts on Zoroastrianism among them 'Fravashi Ahunavar' and 'Khatwadi' especially noted published translations of the *Avista* from the French of Baron De Harlez and 'Aogemadmodia' from the German of Dr Glegler also contributed for some years to the *Museion* the famous Oriental Journal by the University of Louvain Address Servus Villa Alexandria Road New (under) Bombay

ISADHAKAR GUSTAV DITAVATH I. A. I.O.B. & 21 May 1871 m. Miss Bhadrabai Pandit Educ. St. Xavier's High School St. Xavier's College Elphinstone College and Balliol Passed the I.C.S. in 1892 served in Burma for 8 years became Dist. and Sessions Judge in 1905 Additional Judicial Commissioner (Karachi) 1920, Judge High Court 1925-31 Address Crimfield Lane & 4th Road, Malabar Hill Bombay

ISADHARA RAO V. P. C. I. F. (1900) & Feb 1880 Educ. Government College Kumbakonam (U.A.) 1899 Fellow (1909) For 3 years in the service of Mysore State in important capacities being Member of Council of Regency 1898-1902, Inspector General of Police, the first Indian to be entrusted with that responsible charge, 1892 Plague Commissioner, 1898, Member Executive Council and Rev. Commr. 1902-1904 Dewan of Travancore, 1904-1906 Dewan of Mysore 1906-1909, toured all over India to gain first

hand information on the condition of India, Presided at Tanjore Dist. Confes., Dewan of Baroda 1914-16 President 23rd Madras Provincial Confes. at Cuddalore, 1917, has also presided over a number of conferences (political social industrial etc.), went to England on deputation by the Indian National Congress to attend evidence before Parliamentary Joint Committee President, First Karnataka Confes. Dhavara 1920, now lives in retirement awarded Kalor Hind Gold Medal in the first year of its inception 1900 Address Pitam Dhavara, Bangalore

MADHAVIAI SIR CHINUBHAI, DT. m. Runkhor Inl

ISADRAS, BISHOP of, since 1923 Rt. Rev. Edward Harry Mansfield Waller M.A. (Cantab.) & 8 Dec 1871 Educ. Highgate Sch. Corpus Christi College Cam. Ordained 1894 Priests, St. Paul's Divinity Sch., Allahabad 1903 Principal Jay Narayan's High School Mentors 1907 Ag. Secy C.M.S. U.I. 1909-11 Sec. C.M.S. in India Group 1913 Canon of Inceknow, 1910-16 Bishop of Jinnevelly 1916-1922 Publications 'Evolution' in Bishop's Commentaries for India and the Divinity of Jesus Christ, Translated to Madras 1 Jan 1923 Address Sullivan & Gargons Royapettah, Madras

MAHADEOJI AIL KHAN MAHOMED AKBAR-KHAN M.I.C. First Class Magistrate (1921) Cotton Commission Agent Hoshi & 1878 Educ. at Hoshi started business in cotton in 1896 extended same from time to time created a cotton market at Savanur by establishing spinning and weaving factories there also started spinning factories at Raichanur and other convenient places for marketing cotton in the interior, is an advocate of improved methods and machinery for agriculture, and himself a cultivator on a large scale cultivating about 300 acres of land on improved lines and demonstrating its benefits to the other ryots of his place and neighbourhood is President Hoshi Anjuman-i-Islam working for the educational, social and material uplift of Mahomedans is Vice-President of Hoshi Municipality Publications *Kanarose* translation of Mr. G. I. Khatim's *Rural Economy* in the Bombay Diocesan, *Kanarose* translation of *Britain in India*, 'Have we benefited?' Address Opposite Native General Library, Hoshi Dist. Dhavara

MAHAJANOBIS, S. C. B. Sc. (Edin.), F.R.S.E., L.R.S. (Edin.) Prof. of Physiology, General Medical College Calcutta, Presidency Coll. Calcutta 1900-27 Fellow, Moderator and Syndic Calcutta University President Board of Higher Studies in Physiology Calcutta University & Calcutta 1867, m. 1902 fourth d. of Keshub Chunder Sen and sister of H. H. the Maharani of Cooh Behar Educ. Edinburgh Univ. Publications *Muscle Fat* in Salmon, *Life History of Salmon* New form of *Myograph* Teachers Manual Text Book of Science Address 45 New Park Street, Calcutta

MAHDI HUSAIN, KHAN WAHID-UD-DAULA,
ASAD-UL-MULK, NAWAB MIRZA KHAN
BAHADUR, C.I.E. & 1884 Educ India,
Arabia Travelled extensively in Arabia
Persia, Afghanistan, Baluchistan, and
Europe, visited Mecca, Medina, Kayman
Address Tirmingaz Lucknow

MAHOMED USMAN, THE HON SIR KT B.A.
Member of the Executive Council Madras
and Vice-President of the Executive Council
1920 & 1884 m.d. of Shikha ul Mulk
Fynlabudin Sahib Bahadur, B.A. Educ
Madras Christian College Councilor Corpora-
tion of Madras, 1913-1925 Hon Pres Magto,
1910-20, Fellow of the Madras University
Member, Town Planning Trust, 1921-25
Chairman of Committee on Indigenous Sys-
tems of Medicine, 1921-23 Member Publicity
Board, 1915 and 1921-22 President, Muthalpet
Muslim Anjuman Madras, President, Board
of Visitors to the Govt Mahomedan Coll
and Hon Visitor, Government School of Arts
and Crafts, 1923-25; Member, Madras Ex-
cise Licensing Board, 1922-25. Gave evidence
before the Reform Committee and the Jail
Committee. Elected Member, Madras Legis-
lative Council, 1921-22 Sheriff of Madras (Decr
1923), President of the Corporation of Madras,
1924, President, Madras Children's Aid
Society 1920-22, President, Madras Discharged
Prisoners' Aid Society 1925-1928, Chairman
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales Children's
Hospital Fund, Chairman the British Empire
Leprosy Relief Association, Madras 1925
President, Mahomedan Educational Association
of Southern India. Khan Sahib 1920
Khan Bahadur 1921 Kaiser Hind Second
Class 1923 Knighted 1928 Address Aziz
Bagh, Graemes Road, Cathedral, P O
Madras.

MAHMOOD SCHAMNAD, SANEB BAHAUDR
KHAN BAHAUDR (1930) M.L.C. Landholder,
Member, Legislative Council Madras (elected)
and Member, 8 Kanara District Board
Elected Member 8 K. Dist Educational
Council & 7 March 1870 m 189 to
Mrs Maryam Schamnad Educ St
Aloysius College Mangalore and Christian
College, Madras Served on the South
Kanara Dist Board for about 15 years.
Hon Magistrate for 10 years since 1913. Pio-
neer of Moplah education in 8 Kanara. Started
the Arabi Muslim Educational Association in
South Kanara and Madras Moplah Ameliora-
tion Committee in 1922. Elected Member of
the First and Second Legislative Assembly
and 3rd and 4th Legislative Council
Government awarded a Coronation Medal and
a Certificate in recognition of his services on
Local Boards and his special interest in Moplah
education. Presided at the 3rd Annual Con-
ference of all Kerala Muslim Alkya Sangham in 1925
Leader of the Govt Deputation to the Andam-
ans to investigate into the Moplah Coloniza-
tion Scheme in 1925. Presided at the first
district Muslim Educational Confee., S. Kanara
in 1925 Member Mahomedan Religious Endow-
ment Committee, Kasearagod. Vice-President,
Madras Presidency Muslim League, Member
Staff Selection Board, Madras, 1928 Member
Senate Madras University, 1890 Publication
The Moplah Willah Act, 1928 (Madras)
Address Sea View, Kasearagod 8 Kanara

MAHMUDABAD, MAHARAJA OF, SIR MOHAMMAD
ALI MOHAMMED KHAN, KHAN BAHAUDR,
K.C.B.I., K.C.I.E., Home Member, Exe-
cutive Council of the U P Government, 1921,
Hon Secretary, Lucknow University Collec-
tion Committee President, All-India Educa-
tional Conference, also President, All-India
Muslim League Vice Chancellor of Aligarh
Univ & in 1877 Educ privately
Address Mahmudabad House, Kasearbagh
Lucknow

MAHOMEDALI KHAN BAHAUDR, KAWAS SYED,
I.A.O. Rot Govt Service, 1873, Insp.-Gen
of Registration, Bengal retired, 1915, a dis-
tinguished Urdu scholar and dramatist, wrote
The Nawabi Darbar and Adventures of Noto-
rious Detective in English Address 4,
Ballygunge Calcutta

MAJITHIA, THE HON SARDAR BAHAUDR SIR
SUNDAR SINGH, KT (1936) C.I.E (1920); Ex
Revenue Member, Government of Punjab,
& 17th Feb 1872, m grand daughter of
Sardar Sir Attar Singh, K.C.I.R., Chief of
Jahadur (Patiala State) Educ Punjab Chiefs
College and Government College, Lahore
Worked as Hon Secretary of the Khalsa Coll.,
Amritsar for 11 years and Hon Secretary,
Chief Khalsa Diwan, a representative body of
the Sikhs from its inception in 1902 to the
close of 1920 Address 'Majithia House,'
Albert Road Amritsar (Punjab)

MAJUMDAR DWIJA DAS M.B.O., Assistant
Controller of Stationery Government of India
Off Deputy Controller of Stationery and
Stamps, in October, 1927 and Off. Manager,
Central Publication Branch. & 2nd Feb 1890
m Abhamayee & of late Promath Nath
Ghosh, Zemindar of Bhagalpur Educ
Krishnagar Collegiate School, Krishna-
gar College, and Presidency College
Calcutta Entered Bengal Junior Civil
Service, 1915 Bengal Survey Office
as Asst. to the Officer in Charge Bengal
Traverse Party, 1917 Asst. Controller of
Printing Stationery and Stamps, Govt of
India 1924, Acted as Hon. Secretary Bengal
Junior Civil Service from 1921 to 1922
Address 20/2 B Ray Street, Elgin Road,
Calcutta

MALAYIYA, PANDIT KRISHNA KANT,
Editor of *Abhyudaya*, Educ at Allahabad
Publications Banar Sansat, Bhoaghat
Manorama at Patna and many others in
Hindi Address Abhyudaya Allahabad

MALAYIYA PANDIT MADAN MOHAN M.L.A.
& Allahabad 25 Dec. 1851 Educ. Sen
skrit at the Dharma Jnanopadesh Pathshala,
Govt. High School, Muir Central Coll.,
Allahabad, B.A. (Calcutta), Schoolmaster,
1885-87 edited the Indian Union, 1885-1887 and
the Hindustan 1887-1889, I.L.B., Allahabad
Univ, 1892, Vakil, High Court, Allahabad,
1892 Member, Prov. Leg Council, 1902-12,
President of Indian National Congress, 1909
and 1918 Member, Imp. Leg Council 1910-
1919 Member, Indian Industrial Commission,
1916-18, President, Sewa Samiti, Prayag,
Chief Scout, Sewa Samiti Scouts Association
Vice-Chancellor, Benares Hindu University
since 1919 President Hindu Mahasabha, 1923-
24 Member, Legislative Assembly since 1924
Resigned 1930 Address Benares Hindu
University

MALER KOTLA, HON KHAH, SRI SULFANAR ALI KHAH, K.C.S.I., O.S.I. estate holder in Maler Kotla State, Ch. Minister of Patiala State since 1911. Elected member of the Council of State from 1921 to 1925 at present elected member in the Legislative Assembly representing East Central Punjab Muslims. *Publications* has written many books including *Lives of Maharaja Ranjit Singh* and *Sher Shah, Emperor of India* also *The Poetry of Iqbal* b 1875 *Educ* Chiefs Coll., Lahore, Cambridge, Paris *Address* Lahore

MALIK FIROZ KHAN NOON M.A. (Oxon) Minister Punjab Government b 7 May 1893 *Educ* Chiefs College Lahore and Wadham College Oxford. Advocate at the Lahore High Court and Member of the Punjab Legislative Council from 1921. Appointed Minister for Local Self-Government, January 1927 *Address* 17 Lawrence Road, Lahore Woodville Simla E

MALIK MOHAMMED UMAR HAYAT KHAN (TIWANA), COLONEL, THE HON NAWAB, SRI K O I E CBE M.V.O. Member of Council of State 1921 b 1875 *Educ* Chiefs Coll., Lahore. One of largest landholders in Punjab. Attache to H M the Amir 1907. Deputy Herald, Delhi Durbar 1911. Member of Imperial Council, 1910-1921 *Address* Kalra Shahpur

MALIK, DEVENDRA NATH, B.A. (Oxontab) Sc D (D), F.R.S.E. I.E.S. (Estd) Director of Public Instruction Kashmir and Jamnair Bengal since 1925 b Bengal 1886 *Educ* St Xavier's Coll Calcutta. University Coll London. Peterhouse Cambridge. *Publications* Numerous works on Mathematics and Physics *Address* Srinagar Kashmir

MANDI LT HIS HIGHNESS RAJA JOGINDER SINGH BAHADUR OF KCSI (Hon.) b 19th Aug 1904 m to only d of H H Maharaja of Kapurthala. Son and heir Prince Yashwanth Singh (b 7 Dec 1924) *Educ* Aitchison College, Lahore. Ascended the gds in 1913 accompanied by Her Highness visited some of the important countries in 1924, again travelled to Europe and the Near East in February 1927, returning to India in October of the same year, was invested with full ruling powers in Feb 1925 *Address* The Palace Mandi State, Punjab.

MANINDRA DEB RAI MAHARAJ KUMAR M.L.C. of the Banarbati Raj b 26 Aug 1874, *Educ* Hooghly College and St Xavier's College. Member of Bengal Legislative Council. Honorary Magistrate Hooghly. Non-official Visitor, Hooghly District and Serampore, Sub-Jail Chairman. Banarbati Municipality Vice-President. All India and All Bengal Library Associations Chairman. Banarbati Co-operative Bank Ltd, Honorary Secretary. Historical Research Society President, Banarbati Public Library Working Men's Institute. Night Schools. Banarbati Girls School late Editor *The Eastern Voice* an English Daily. *The United Bengal* an English Weekly, *The Purvina* a Bengali Monthly. Author of several historical works. Calcutta *Address* 21F, Rani Sankari Lane, Kali Ghat

MANIPUR, H H MAHARAJA OMRA OMAR SINGH, CBE b 1885; m. March 17, 1895 *Educ* Mayo College, Ajmer b 1891. State has area of 8,456 sq miles, and a population of 384,018. Salute 11 guns *Address* Imphal, Manipur State, Assam.

MAHOHAR LAL M.A. (Punjab), B.A. (Double First Class Honours) Cambridge, Philosophy and Economics. Bar-at-Law. Minister of Education, Punjab Government. b 31 Dec 1879 *Educ* Punjab University and St John's College, Cambridge. McMahon Law student St John's Cambridge, Brotherton Sanskrit scholar Cambridge. Gobden Prize Cambridge, Whewell scholar in International Law 1904-1905. Principal Handbir College Kapurthala 1906-1909, Minto Professor of Economics Calcutta University 1909-1912, practised as Barrister High Court, Lahore 1913-1925 *Publications* Articles on economic subjects. *Address* Fane Road, Lahore.

MANSINGH, SARDAR B.A. LL.B. Advocate, High Court Vice-President the Chief Khalsa Diwan (1923-1925) b 1887 *Educ* Khalsa College Amritsar, won Gold Medal for writing Punjabi poetry. Practised as Vakil for a period of about sixteen years worked as the Senior Counsel and in charge of the Law Department of Shiromani Gurdwara Prabandhak Committee Lahore (1926-1929) edited *Khalsa Young Men's Magazine* from 1905 to 1909. Member Legislative Assembly (1921-23) Secretary, Reception Committee XVII Sikh Educational Conference Lahore, held in 1926. Hon Secretary Khalsa High School *Publications* Translated *Kalkass* a Vikramorvasi from Sanskrit into Punjabi poetry and prose has written religious tracts *Address* Lahore

MANSINGHI, see JHALA

MARSHALL, SRI JOHN HUBERT, KT., or 1914, C.I.E. 1910; Litt D M.A., Ph.D., F.R.S. Hon A.R.I.B.A. Commander of the Order of Leopold. Vice-President of the India Society, Director-General of Archaeology in India since 1902. b Chester, 19 March 1876 m 1902 Florence, y d of Sir Henry Longhurst, G.C.O. *Educ* Dulwich King's College Cambridge (Scholar and Hon fellow) Craven Travelling student *Address* Simla.

MARZBAN, PHEROSHAN JENAYAN, M.A., J.P. M.L.C. Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal. Editor and Proprietor *Jam-i-Jamshed* and Sheriff of Bombay (1931) b 6 May 1876 m Rattanbhai, s of late Mr Edulji N Sethna. *Educ* Bharda New High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. A Journalist for over 31 years, an author no velleit, a dramatist. Member Bombay Legislative Council since 1927. Member of the Corporation for 16 years, Member, Municipal Standing Committee. Hon Presidency Magistrate and editor of a daily vernacular for the last 20 years *Publications* Fifteen volumes of fiction and comic writings, 6 dramas and Miscellaneous writings. *Address* Mittha Lodge, Nepean Road, Bombay

MASANI, RUSTOM PESTONJI, M.A., J.P. Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal, Joint Secretary Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee b 23 Sept. 1876 m 9 Decr 1902 Manilal P. Wadia, Educ New H. S. and Elphinstone Coll, Fellow, Elphinstone College, 1897 and 1898 Jt. Director and Editor of *Gup Suv* (1896), Editor of English columns of *Kaizen-i-Hind* (1891-1900) Editor *Indian Speculator* (1901-02), Trustee N. M. Wadia Charities President, Anthropological Society Bombay Vice President, Bombay Vigilance Association Jt. Hon Secy Society for the Protection of Children in W. India, also of the K. R. Karna Memorial Institute and the Parsi Girls Schools Association and Trustee Secretary Bombay Food Prices Committee (1914-17) Municipal Secretary 1907-1919 Dy Municipal Commissioner (1919-25) Municipal Commissioner 1922 Manager Central Bank of India Ltd 1926-1928 Secretary Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee 1929-1930 *Publications* English: Child Protection Folklore of Wells The Law and Procedure of the Municipal Corporation Bombay The Conference of the Birds a Staff Allegory Evolution of Local Self Govt in Bombay (Marathi *Dolito Udayog* (use of Wealth) (Gharat *Uttar* *Uttar* *Kelav* (Home and School education) *Tansukh mala* (Health series) and novels named *Abyaswena Holah*, *Rodhu* (*Hamir* (*hal* Address Versova (via Andheri Station)

MASOOD, SYED ROSE, YAWAB MASOOD KHAN Bahadur Director of Public Instruction Hyderabad (Deccan) b 1889 Educ M.A. O College Aligarh, and New College Oxford Bar-at-law Imperial Education Service Headmaster, Patna School 1913 Senior Prof of History Ravenshaw College Cuttack, 1916, Formerly Fellow of the University of Calcutta Fellow of the Madras University Member Council of the Osmania University, Member Court of the Muslim University Aligarh *Publications* "Japan and its Educational System Address Hyderabad Deccan

MASTER, ALFRED BA (Oxon) (Jt) (1911) F.C.S., Collector of Kalra b 12th February 1883 m Dorothy Amy Thorne Educ Fyrom College Bramore College, Oxford Asst Collr 1906 Municipal Commissioner Ahmedabad 1917, Major I.A.R.O. 1918 Secretary to Government of Bombay General Department 1920 Collector 1926 President of Civil and Military Examination Committee 1930 *Publications* Articles in Numismatist Supplement of Bengal R.A.S. on Indian Numismatics and in Journal of Bombay R.A.S. on Gujarati Phonetics articles in Local Self-Government Journal on Local Administration Address Kalra

MATHER, RICHARD B.Met., M.I.S (India) Metallurgical Inspector, Government of India b 19 Sept 1886 Educ Royal Grammar School, Edinburg, Univ of Sheffield Mappin Medalist 1906 Metallurgist Grimsby Iron Works, Middlesbrough, 1907-1911, Dy Dir Metallurgical Research, War

Office, Woolwich, 1911-1919, Member of Govt Commission to investigate German and Luxembourg steel industry, 1919 Technical Adviser Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24 Member of Iron and Steel Institute, Inst of Metals Faraday Society Technical Inspection Institute *Publications* Papers for technical societies Address Tutunagar, L. & Ry

MATTHAI JOHN BA B.L (Madras) B Litt (Oxon) D Sc (London) Member Indian Tariff Board b 10 Jan 1886 m Athamma John 1921 Educ Madras Christian College London School of Economics Balliol College Oxford High Court Vakil Madras 1910-14 Officer on special duty Co-operative Department Madras 1918-20 Professor of Economics Presidency College Madras, 1920-25, Professor of Indian Economics University of Madras 1922-25 Member Madras Legislative Council 1922-25 Member Indian Tariff Board since 1925 *Publications* Village Government in British India, Agricultural Co-operation in India Excise and Liquor Control Address Tariff Board 1, Council House Street, Calcutta

MALLA BAHADUR NAWAB MALLA BAHADUR KHAN BAHADUR C.I.E. of Batala, Punjab India Foreign and Political Department (Government of India) b 7 May 1862 m, 2nd daughter of Bahi Mirza Abul Hasan, (M.G. C.I.E. British Agent Khurram Purla Four & Sons) Joined Punjab Postal Dept and having volunteered for service as Field Postmaster proceeded to Kandahar Frontier 1890 Manager Dead Letter Office and Postal Stock Depot Karachi, 1891, joined Imperial Circle Public Works Dept, Simla 1892, services placed at disposal of Foreign and Political Dept as Head Assistant Accounts Department 1897 on special duty North Eastern Purla 1897-1898 Attaché, Haidarabad Perso Afghan Boundary Commission 1898-99, Attaché to Governor General and H. B. M. S. Consul General Meshed 1894 British Vice Consul Khurram and Seistan 1896-00 on Special Political duty in Kalm Seistan and Baluchistan 1898 on special duty in Intelligence Branch Quarter Master General's Dept Simla for revising Gazetteer of Persia 1898-99 Asst Dist Supdt of Police in charge Nushki District Baluchistan, 1900 Extra Asst Commissioner and Magistrate Punjab 1900-1 Personal Assistant to Chief Commissioner Baluchistan 1901-2 attached Seistan Boundary Commission 1902-4 Oriental Secretary Kabul Political Mission, 1904-05 Attaché Foreign and Political Dept Government of India 1905-19 Chief Indian Political officer with H. M. Amir Habibullah Khan of Afghanistan during H. M. S. Indian tour 1907-7 Political Officer North West Afghan Frontier Field Force 1919, Secretary, Indo Afghan Peace Conference, Rawalpindi 1919 Home Minister, Jammu and Kashmir State 1919-22, Member Jammu and Kashmir State Council 1922, 22 Chief Minister Bahawalpur State 1923-28 Address — Woodlands Simla, P. Ram Srinagar, Kashmir, Jhahabad, Lyallpur Dist

MAUNG KUN BA B.A. First Year and Member Burma Legislative Council, b 27 August 1891 m Ma Aye Educ Government High School Bassein Burma The Rangoon College Rangoon and Gray's Inn London Assistant Registrar Chief Court of Lower Burma at Rangoon from 1918-1920 when resigned and started practice at the Bar Address Danubia Burma

MAUNG TOK KYI, B.A. b 1884 Educ Rangoon College Member of the Subordinate Civil Service Burma from 1908 to 1920 resigned Govt service and joined editorial staff of *The Sun* in 1920 became Managing Director 1921 elected to the Municipal Corporation Rangoon 1922 elected Member Leg Assembly 1923 and elected to Rangoon University Council 1924 Founded Burma Swaraj Party and edited its leader 1925 Re-elected Member Legislative Assembly 1926 Founded *The Kram* a weekly Burmese paper in 1929 Resigned the Directorship of the Sun Press Ltd Rangoon held from 1920 to 1929 with a short break Resigned from Legislative Assembly 1910 Address 7 Strand Road Moulmein

MAUNG, SIR SAO KOIE KSM SAWBWA or YAWSWWA, Member of Federal Council of Shan Chiefs Address Yawghwe Shin States Burma

MAXWELL REGINALD MATTHEW M.A. (Oxon.) C.I.E. (1925) F.R.S. Private Secretary to H.R.H. the Governor of Bombay b 24 Aug 1882 m Mary Lyle d of the Rev Henry Ralph D.D. Educ Marlborough and Corpus Christi College Oxford Entered the I.C.S. 1900 Collector of Salt Revenue 1916 By Commissioner of Salt and Excise 1917-1919 acted as Private Secretary to the Governor of Bombay 1920-21 Secretary Ritranchment Committee, 1921-23 Collector and District Magistrate from 1925 acted as Secretary to Government of Bombay General Department 1928 Special duty as Revenue Officer Herdell Revision Settlement Inquiry 1928-1929 Private Secretary to the Governor of Bombay 1929 Address Government House Bombay

MEARS THE HON. SIR GRIMWOOD Kt (1917) K.C.I.E. (1928) and Kt of Order of Crown Belgium Chief Justice, Allahabad 1910 Educ Exeter College Oxford Barrister 1899 Hon Sec to Dykes Committee on German Outrages, 1914-15 Hon Sec to R. Com on rebellion in Ireland 1916 Sec to the Dardanelles Commission 1916-17 British Embassy Washington, 1918-19 President Bombay Back Bay Enquiry Committee 1926 1927 Address Allahabad 2, Hare Court Temple E C

MEGAH, MAJOR-GENERAL JOHN WALLACE DICK B.A. M.B. B.Ch. BAO (R.C.I.) K.H.P. (1930) C.I.B. (1926) Director Genl Indian Medical Service 1930 m Helen

Patience Ward Educ Royal Academic Institution Belfast and Queen's College, Belfast Officiating Prof of Pathology (Honorary Medical College) Principal and Prof of Pathology King George's Medical College Lucknow and Editor *Indian Medical Gazette* in place of Genl of Civil Hospital Punjab Director and Professor of Tropical Medicine (Honorary School of Tropical Medicine) Publications Tropical Medicine (Rogers and Megaw) Numerous articles on Malaria Indian Luk Typhus Typhoid Dropsy Jaundice Cholera etc Address Office of Director General Indian Medical Service Simla

MILLERMAN SOMERSETMAN ANDERSON B.A. Investigator Labour Office and Asst Registrar of Trade Unions Bombay Presidency b 2nd June 1880 m Catherine d of Mr. Horningwood B. Poole Educ Epsom High School Alford 5 Years High School Bombay and Highgate College Bombay, Calcutta School Edinburgh College Secretary to Sir Dorab Tata 1912 Secretary R. O. Baidock Ltd 1917 Secy Indian Industries Pty Ltd 1919 Secy Messrs Australian & Eastern Co Pty Ltd 1921 appointed Investigator Labour Office, Government of Bombay 1923 and Asst Registrar of Trade Unions Bombay Presidency 1927 Officiated as Senior Investigator Labour Office in 1921 and 1923-30 and as Asst Registrar of Trade Unions Bombay Presidency in April May 1930 On deputation to the British Ministry of Labour and the International Labour Office whilst on leave out of India 1931 Publications (compiled section on Labour for the Indian Year Book 1930) Address Mount Vilas Bhandra Hill Bhandra

MISHRA KHAM BAHADUR SIR BHEENJI DADA SHY Kt Address Nagpur

MISHRA, SIR CHUNILAL VISHNUGHANSH Kt K.C.I.E. (1928) M.A. J.L.K. Provincial Scout Commissioner b 12 Jan 1861 m to Tarabai Chaudhawal Kankodiyala Educ St Xavier's College Bombay Captain Hindu XI elected to the Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1907 Chairman Standing Committee 1912 President of the Corporation 1918 Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council by the Corporation in 1916 elected to the City Improvement Trust 1918 Chairman of the Indian Merchants Chamber, 1918 Elected to the Bombay Port Trust 1920 Millowner and Chairman Bombay Provincial Cooperative Bank Ltd Director The Bombay Steam Navigation Co Ltd The New India Assurance Co Ltd, The Bombay Suburban Electric Supply Ltd The Bhandra Portland Cement Co Ltd The Bank of India Ltd Fata Iron and Steel Co and several other joint stock companies, Minister Bombay Government 1921-28 Member of the Executive Council of the Bombay Government 1923-28 Address 42, Ridge Road Malabar Hill Bombay

MEHTA, DHANJIBHAI HORMASJI, L.M. & S. Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1920), Donat of 4th John Silver Medal (1917), Raj Ratan Silver Medal, Baroda (1916) Retired Sanitary Commissioner, Baroda b 4 Feb 1884 m. to a cousin *Educ.* Sir Cowasji Jehangir Nagari Zarthosti Madrasa and the Grant Medical College Bombay Joined Baroda Med Service, 1887 did inoculation work with Prof Haffkine, gave evidence on the value of inoculation before 1st Plague Commission. Has popularised St. John's Ambulance work and Red Cross Work all over Gujarat, Sind Kathiawad Central India Central Provinces Punjab N.W.F. Province Rajputana Khandesh and Deccan by giving over 700 lectures earned for the Red Cross over Rs 1,20,000 by enrolling 2,800 Members and published 35 books on Ambulance Nursing Hygiene Midwifery Red Cross, etc Contributed Rs 20,000 for erection of Parsi Ambulance Division Headquarters Building Bombay *Address* Malabar Navari

MEHTA, FATEH LAL, s of late Rai Panasai C.I.E. Prime Minister of Udaipur b 1888 *Publication* Handbook of Mewar and Guide to its Principal Objects of Interest *Address* Rai Panasai Mansion, Udaipur Rajputana

MEHTA THE HON MR HORMASJI MANUBHAI Member Council of State Merchant and Millowner b 4 April 1871 m to Gulbai, s of late Mr H R Umarji *Educ* at Bombay. Started life as assistant in Bombay Mint in 1888 subsequently joined China Mill Ltd and started business on his own account in 1896 bought Victoria Mills in 1904, Jubilee Mills in 1914, Raja Gokaldas Mills in 1916 Gaeckwar Mills in 1929. Established Zenith Life Assurance Co in 1912 and British India General Insurance Co Ltd in 1919. Established Poona Electric Supply Co Ltd in 1916 Navsari E I Co Ltd in 1922 and Nasik Decadell Electric Supply Co Ltd in 1920, T. B. Pratt Bombay Ltd and M. T. Ltd. in 1919, Uganda Commercial Co Ltd in 1922 in East Africa *Address* Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay

MEHTA, JAMNADAS M. M.A. LL.B. Bar at Law b 3 August 1884 m Manibai, d of Bhanuji Lachuji *Educ* Jamnagar, Junagad Bombay London Member Bombay Municipal Corporation, Member Legislative Assembly 1923-1929 President B. & C. I. Rly Employees Union and Bombay Taxi Drivers Union Member, All India Congress Committee President Thana District Congress Committee Chairman Asian Assurance Co Ltd *Address* Ridge Road Malabar Hill, Bombay

MEHTA JAMSHED N. B. Merchant b 7th January 1886 *Educ* at Karachi. Member of Municipality, 1914 President of Municipality, 1922-30 Asst. Provincial Commissioner, of Scouts in Sind and Chairman Buyers and Shippers Chamber, Vice Chairman Karachi Port Trust 1930 *Publication* Karachi Municipality as at present and its future *Address*, Bonquo Road, Karachi.

MEHTA, JAYSUKHLAL KRISHNALAL M.A. Secretary Indian Merchants Chamber Bombay b 1884 m. to Mrs. Kumudagauri *Educ* Wadhwan High School and Gujarat and Elphinstone Colleges Appointed Secretary, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1907, Services borrowed by the Indian Munitions Board from Chamber and appointed Assistant Controller from September 1917 to November 1918, was nominated Adviser to the Representative of Employers for the third and 14th Sessions of the International Labour Conference, Geneva in 1921 and 1930 after the Conference he toured about Europe and England both times for seeing the Chambers of Commerce and other commercial organisations there on behalf of the Indian Merchant's Chamber Secretary to the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce from 1927-29 Vice President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee from 1921-25 and President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee from 1925-29 Was nominated Chairman of the Santa Cruz Notified Area Committee in June 1927 *Address* Krishna Kutir, Santa Cruz, B. & C. I. and The Recluse, 31, Muzran Road Fort, Bombay

MEHTA, DR. JIVRAJ KARAYAT, L.M. & S. (Bom.) M.D., M.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.C.P.S. (Bom.) Doan, Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical Coll and King Edward Memorial Hospital b 29 Aug 1887 m Miss Hansa Manubhai Mehta *Educ* High School education at Amreli Baroda State High School Medical Coll Bombay and London Hospital For merly Asst. Director Hale Clinical Laboratory, London Hospital London, and Chief Medical Officer Baroda State *Address* Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical Coll, Parel Bombay

MEHTA, SIR MANUBHAI KANDSHANKAR, KT. (1922), C.B.L. (1919), M.A. LL.B. Prime Minister and Chief Counsellor Bikaner State. b 22 July 1868 *Educ* Elphinstone Coll Bombay Professor of Logic and Philosophy and Law Lecturer Baroda College, 1891-99 Priv Sec. to Gaeckwar 1899-1906 Rev Min and First Counsellor 1914-16 Diwan of Baroda 1916-1927, *Publications* The Hindu Rajasthan or Annals of Native States of India Principles of Law of Evidence (in Gujarati 3 Vols) *Address* Bikaner

MEHTA, ROOSTUMJEE DEWJEEBHAI, J.P. C. I.E. Merchant, Port Commissioners, 1888-91, Chairman, Local Board, Alipur, 1888-1917 Chairman Manikotla Municipality Sheriff of Calcutta, 1893, Consul for Poree at Calcutta, 1899-1904 Presidency Magistrate *Publications* The Exchange Imbroglio Indian Railway Economics, Indian Railway Policy Indian Railway Management *Address* 9, Balney Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta

MEHTA, VAIKUNTH LALUBHAI, B.A. Managing Director, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Bank, Ltd b 23 Oct. 1891 m Mangla d of Pratapruti Vajrebanekar of Bhavnagar *Educ* New High School Bombay, Elphinstone College Bombay, Winner of Ellis Scholarship for highest number of marks in English at the B.A. Examination Worked with Central Familee Relief Committee and Servants of

India Society for famine relief work, 1911
12 Hon Manager Bombay Central (Provincial) Co-operative Bank Ltd, Bombay (1912-15) as Manager from 1915-1922 and Managing Director since 1922 Editor Social Service Quarterly, since 1915 Bombay Co-operative quarterly 1916-30 Member, Executive Committee, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute, Bombay, Member Bombay Provincial Banking Inquiry Committee 1929
Publications The Co-operative Movement (The Times of India Press) 1915 The Co-operative Movement in India (Servants of India Society pamphlet in collaboration with Mr V Venkata Subbalya) Arya Bhawan Press 1916 Studies in Co-operative Finance (Servants of India Society pamphlet) 1927
Address Mumbambad, Andheri, (B II & C I Railway)

WILLER, Sir Dawson KT, KC Ch Justice of Patna High Court, since 1917 b Dec 1867 **Educ** Durham Sch and Trinity Coll Oxford Bar Inner Temple, 1891. **Address** High Court Patna

MILLER, Sir Leslie, KT (1914), CBE (1919) Chief Judge Mysore 1914-22 b 28 June 1862 m Margaret Lowry OBE **Educ** Charterhouse and Trinity College Dublin Ruted IOS, 1881 Judge of the Madras High Court, 1906-14 **Address** Glen Morgan, Pykara Nilgiri Hills

MIRZA ALI AKBAR KHAN The Hon Mr Justice BA (Bombay and Central) Bar at Law Puisne Judge Bombay High Court **Educ** Wilson College Bombay and St John's College Cambridge Called to the Bar from the Inner Temple in June 1904 and enrolled in the Bombay High Court the same year Has been a fellow of the Bombay Univ since 1909 was Principal and Professor of Jurisprudence in Bombay Government Law School 1914-1919 Hon Consul for Persia 1905-22 appointed Puisne Judge Bombay High Court 1924 and Dean of the Faculty of Law in 1927 and elected a member of the Syndicate in 1929 **Vice-Chancellor** Bombay University 1940 **Address** High Court Bombay

MIRZA M. ISMAIL, AMIR-UL-MUJIB Sir, KT (1909), BA (1905) (1912) OBE (1923) Dewan of Mysore b 1883 m Zubaida Begum of Shikarpoor family **Educ** the Royal School at Mysore Central College Bangalore for B.A., Superintendent of Police 1905 Asst Secretary to H H the Maharaja, 1908 Huzar Secretary to H H the Maharaja 1914 Private Secretary to H H the Maharaja 1923 Dewan of Mysore 1926 Invited to the Round Table Conference in 1930 as a delegate from South Indian States **Address** Dewan of Mysore Bangalore

MISRA, Pandit HARRARAN NATH BA LLB (Contab), M LA (1924), Barr-at-Law (Inner

Temple) b 16 July 1890 m Shrinani Bhagwan Devi of Cawnpore Dist **Educ** Muir Central College Allahabad and Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge (1911-1915). Joined Non-Co-operation Movement in 1920, Member of the All India Congress Committee Senior Vice-Chairman of Municipal Board Lucknow Joint Secretary, Oudh Bar Association, Member of the Bar Council of Chief Court of Oudh Member of the Lucknow University Court (Chairman District Board Lucknow **Publications** Asst. Editor of Oudh Law Journal Lucknow from 1916-1920 **Address** 6 Nili Road Lucknow

MISRA PRASE LAL Bar-at-Law b Aug 17 1872 Educ Saugor C P and Nagpur Hishop (College) Grays Inn London Was elected to the C P Council in 1917 and to the Legislative Assembly in 1920 Is Vice President of the Municipality Hon Secy. Co-operative Bank Member of the C P Board of Agriculture First President of the Hindi Literary Conference held at Raipur Mem All-India Hindi Association **Publications** Hindi Law in Hindi, History of English Journals in Hindi a small pamphlet in English criticizing the Calcutta University Commission's Report during Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty **Address** Chhildwara CP

MISRA, Rai Bahadur Pandit SHYAM BHAKTI MA ex member Council of State Deputy Commissioner Unao U P Dewan Orchha State Tikamgarh (1 Member Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Committee U P and Member of the Allahabad University Court and of the Lucknow University Court Member Committee of Reference, Allahabad University Member Hindustan Academy U P and its Executive Council b 12 August 1873 m Miss B D Bajpai, has two s, Ave d **Educ**, Jubilee High School and Canning College, Lucknow Entered Executive Branch, U P Civil Service in 1897 as Deputy Collector was on special duty in 1908, 1909, 1909 and 1921-22 in connection with consolidation of agricultural holdings on the last occasion was Deputy Supdt, and Offg Superintendent Police (1906-08) on deputation as Dewan Chhatrapur State, C I (1910-14) Personal Asst to Ex-Deo Commr U I (1917-20) Dy Commr Gondia (1920-21) for over a year besides having twice officiated as Magt and Collr of Bulandshahr for a few weeks Jt Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (1922-24) Registrar, Aug. 1924 to December (1926) Retired as Deputy Commissioner Unao U P (1928) and became Dewan Orchha State in January 1929 Confirmed as Magt and Collector with effect from 27th March 1926 **Publications** Several standard works in Hindi including the Mera Bandhu Vinoda (a text book for LA & MA Examinations) and the Hindi Nava Ratna (text book in the Degree of Honours Examination) **Address** Golaganj, Lucknow

NITCHALL, DAVID GEORGE, B.Sc. (Edin.)
C.I.E. (2nd June 1923) Indian Civil Service
b 31 March 1879 m d to Elizabeth Duncan
Wharton Educ. George Heriot's School
Edinburgh, Edinburgh University, Lincoln
College, Oxford Joined I.C.S., Oct 1908
Divisional and Sessions Judge in Central
Provinces 1913, Legal Secretary and Legal
Remembrancer to Government of C.P. and
Secretary to C.P. Legislative Council 1919
Officiated as Additional Judicial Commissioner
June 1920. Officiated as Joint Secretary Govt
of India Legislative Department April 1927
Address United Service Club Simla.

MITRA THE HON. SRI DHENDRA NATH M.A.
C.I.E. (1928), K.C.I.E. (1924), C.D.L. (1919)
Member of the Viceroy's Council (Industries
and Labour) Dec 1914 b Oct 1875 Educ.
Metropolitan Institution, Hare School and Pre-
sidency College Calcutta Held Ministerial
appts. from 2nd April 1896 apptd to enrolled
list, Finance Dept., Jan 1919 Asst. Secy.
Sept 1910, on special duty in connection
with Royal Commission on Indian Finance
and Currency, June to September 1913
as depy. as Controller of War Accounts
from May 1916, O.B.E., Dec 1917 M.I.
Accty-General, Nov 1918, offg. Financial
Adviser, M.I. Fin. Branch May 1920, con-
ferred May 1922, temp. Member of Governor
Generals Council, April 1924. Confd. Dec.
1924. Temporary Finance Member March to
June 1925. Address 5 Dalhousie Simla.

MITTAL THE HON. PRANEE Member of Council
of State and General Manager (Development)
for India Burma Shell Oil Storage and
Distributing Co. of India Ltd., and Chairman
Bombay Chamber of Commerce (1931) b 22nd
June 1879 Educ. private school Entered firm
of Arthurcliff, Fawcett & Co. London 1900
and came out to India in 1902 being stationed
at both Bombay and Karachi until 1914
Joined Scots Guards September 1914 and
proceeded to France Nov 1914 wounded
January 1915 returned to France May 1916
again wounded Sept 1916 War Office
London 1917 and attached British War
Mission to U.S.A. 1918 Demobilised 1919
with Lt. rank of Captain and returned to
India as Manager of Fawcett, Byrie & Co.
Karachi Joined Asiatic Petroleum Co.
(India) Ltd. 1921 and posted to Calcutta
transferred Bombay 1922. With Burma
Shell since formation 1928 Member of Com-
mittee Bombay Chamber of Commerce.
1926 1928 and Vice-president 1929 Member
Bombay Legislative Council attached Simon
Commission President Indian Roads and
Transport Development Association and
Member of Council of State 1930. Address
Clarendon Mahabir Hill Bombay.

MITTER THE HON. SRI BROJENDRA LAL
M.A. B.L. Barrister at Law Law Member
Government of India 1928 Formerly Advocate-
General of Bengal b May 1875 m a daughter
of Mr P. V. Bose late of the Geological
Survey and g d of the late R. C. Dutt
I.C.S. Educ. Presidency Coll. Calcutta and
Lincoln's Inn Address 5 Outram Street
Calcutta and Simla and New Delhi.

MITTAL THE HON. MR. JUSTICE DWARKANATH,
M.A. D.L. Ordinary Fellow of the Univer-
sity of Calcutta, Dean of the Faculty of Law

Member Council of State (1924) formerly
Advocate High Court Calcutta b 29 Feb
1870 m d of Hala Churn Dutt of Calcutta
Educ. Presidency College Calcutta Joined
High Court Bar in 1897 Took his degree
of Doctor of Laws in 1912 and since then had
risen rapidly to the front rank of his profes-
sion and enjoyed lucrative practice till the
date of his elevation to the Bench in 1926
In 1916 elected an ordinary Fellow of Calcutta
Univ. for five years and appointed Judge of the
Calcutta High Court in November 1926
Publications A Thesis on Position of Women
in Hindu Law published by Calcutta Univer-
sity Address 12 Theatre Road Chowring-
hee, Calcutta.

MITTAL RAI BAHADUR KHAGENDRANATH
B.A. (Hons.) M.A. (Gold Medalist) b 1880
m. Sushama Educ. Presidency College
Calcutta Nominated Member Legislative
Assembly, 1922 and 1923 Member, Council
of State 1924 and 1925 Fellow (elected)
Calcutta University (1922 to 1926) late editor
of Bangiya Sahitya Parishat Patrika Late
Senior Professor of Philosophy Presidency
College Calcutta Inspector of Schools Presi-
dency Division Fellow Calcutta University
(1924) President Literary Section Calcutta
University Institute Publications Author
on several works in Bengali on History and
Folklore Address 10 Dover Lane Calcutta.

MITTAL SRI PRADYAS CHANDRA, K.T. or 1924
C.I.E. Vakil at High Court Calcutta Address
High Court Calcutta.

MIYAN ABJAD-ULLAH MACLY, M.L.A.
Hon. Magte, Kishanganj, Farambar of Meher-
gaon b 5 Jan 1888 m Bibi S. Nisa d of
late Maulvi Ismail Ali of Henari. Educ.
at Mehergaon Member Dist. Board, Purnea
(Bihar) and Member Local Board K.
shanganj Vice-President, Anjuman Islamia,
Kishanganj Address Mohingaoon P.O. K.
shanganj, Dist. Purneah Bihar.

MOBERLY, ARTHUR NORMAN C.I.E. (1924)
Member Bengal Executive Council b 20
Sept 1878 m Emily d of the late James
Bowman Educ. Winchester and Christ
Church Oxford Indian Civil Service
(1890) Address C/o Jeyds Bank Limited
Post Box 306 Calcutta.

MOBERLY CHARLES FOLK, C.I.E. V.D., M.Inst.
C.E. General Manager The Bombay Electric
Supply & Tramways Co. Ltd., b 24th Dec
1880 m Kate Charlotte d of the late James
Edward Folkl of Dublin Educ. Rugby
School Technical training The Brush Elec-
trical Engineering Co., Ltd. Loughborough
& Yorkshire College Leeds Joined The B.
E. S. & T. Co. Ltd. 1905 General Manager
1923 M.C. Lt.-Col. Commanding Bombay
Battalion I.D.F. employed on staff of Bom-
bay Brigade 1919 1919 Address Electric
House Fort, Bombay.

MODI J.P. JIVANJI JANSHEDDI, B.A. (1917)
B.A. SHANES UL-ULMA (1898) C.I.E. (1910)
Sec. Parsi Panchayat Bombay (ret'd.)
b 26 October 1804 Educ. Elphinstone
High School Elphinstone College m Shirin-
bal d of the late R. N. Mahatwala Has
published numerous historical and anti-
quarian works chiefly dealing with Parsi

MOHAMMAD YASIN KHAN THE HOW
 Mr. BA of the Alimulmad University
 (1911) B.Sc. in Law Member (Council) of
 State (1924) Senior Vice Chairman Municipal
 Board Merat B. Merat 1888 m. to a cousin
 Fatie at Merat College M.A. College,
 Alimulmad University, President of the
 Alimulmad Club Dec. 1914. Active in
 favor of U. I. War fund for Merat District
 Secretary Y M C A. Merat Secretary
 Dist. War League Was elected a member
 of the Municipal Board Merat, to 1916 and
 Vice-Chairman a year later Elected Member
 Legislative Assembly 1920, Member of the
 Legislative Assembly 1923-1929 Nominated
 a member of Leg. Assembly to represent U. I.
 in 1927 Elected Chairman Municipal Board
 June 1929 *Address* Junoon Nishan Merat

MOJANEY, WILLIAM JOSEPH General Manager
for the East Reuters Limited 6 May 28
1886 m Kathman eldest daughter of Sir
Francis Elliot GCMG CVO F.R.S.
Redemptorist College Thiruvick Reuters
Correspondent in Kathman Communist
Pirke Amulika Kathman and Berlin
Address: Reuters Limited Bombay

VOOKERJEE, Sra VARAYAN, Zamindar of
Uttarpara & April 1859 Member, Bengal
Legislative Council since 1918 one 1878 one
Edue Uttarpura School Presidency College
Calcutta, Chairman of the Uttarpura Mun-
cipality since 1887 Chairman of the Denom-
of No Magistrates 1889 Managing Committee
of the British Indian Association, 1889 a
Member of the Asiatic Society a life Member
of St John Ambulance Association Member
of the Provincial Advisory Committee for
Indian Students 1918 a Member of the Na-
tional Liberal League and Vice President of
Bengal Humanitarian Association, elected to
Executive Committee of All India Land-
holders Association, 1911. *Address* Uttar-
para near Calcutta.

MOOKPADA, SIA RAJENDRA NATH
 X.I.S. C.V.O. (1922) M.I.M.T. (Hon
 Linc) V.I.T. (Ind) Civil Engr & 1951
 & Linc London University Institution at
 Engineering Presidency College, Civil
 Engineering Branch, Calcutta Senior
 Partner in Martin & Co. and Jhuria
 & Co, Calcutta Member of Indian
 Industrial Commission, 1917-1918 Member
 of Indian Railway Committee, 1920-1921
 President Howrah Bridge Committee 1921
 President, Bengal Reformation Committee,
 1922, Member All India Reformation Com
 mittee 1922 Member Indian Coal Com
 mittee, Royal Commission on Indian
 Currency and Finance 1926 President of Board
 of Trustees, Indian Museum Calcutta, a Fellow
 of Calcutta Univ. & Council of Victoria
 Univ. & Council of Victoria
 Member of the Board of the Governing Body
 of Bengal Engineering College, Ex-President,
 the Institution of Engineers (India) Member,
 Governing Body of the School of Tropical
 Medicine and Hygiene, President, Indian
 Science Congress, 1922, President, Asiatic

Society of Bengal, 1924 Governor, Imperial Bank of India 1921-1928 Address 7, Harrington Street, Calcutta

MOORE, PHILIP LAWRENCE, C.I.E., Ag. Financial Secretary to the Government of Madras. b 26th June 1873. m. Muriel, d. of the late Laurence Birrings. Educ. Chesham Christ Church, Oxford. Ent. I.C.S., 1896. President, Madras Corporation, 1910-14 Inspector General of Police, Madras, 1914-18 Address Madras Club Madras

MOORE, W. ARTHUR, Director of The Statesman, M.L.A. (Bengal European Constituency) Classical Scholar of St John's College Oxford, 1900-1904. President Oxford Union Society, 1904 b 1880 m. Maud Eileen, only surviving child of George Maillat. Educ. Campbell Coll., Belfast and St. John's College Oxford Secretary, Balkan Committee, 1904-08 during which time travelled extensively in all the Balkan Countries Special Correspondent of The Times for Young Turk Revolution, 1908, and in Albania, special correspondent 1909, Daily Chronicle, Daily News and Manchester Guardian at Siege of Izmir, Persia. Joined foreign and war staff of The Times, 1910, Persian Correspondent, 1910-12, Russian Correspondent, 1918 Spain, 1914, Albanian Revolution, 1914 Retreat from Mons and Battle of Marne, 1914, obtained commission in Rifle Brigade served Dardanelles 1915, Salonika, 1915-17 (General Staff Officer, 3rd Grade), flying, 1918 with military mission (General Sir G. T. Bragg) in Constantinople and the Balkans. Squadron Leader, R.A.F., demobilised May 1919, despatches twice M.B.E. (military) Serbian White Eagle Greek Order of the Redeemer Middle Eastern Correspondent of The Times, 1919-22, visiting Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, Persia, Caucasus, India, Afghanistan, etc. Publications The Miracle (By Airline) Oriol, Constantinople, 1908 The Orient Express (Constantinople 1914) Address "The Statesman," Calcutta

MOOS, DR. F. N., M.D., B.S. (Lond.), D.P.H. (Eng.) D.T.M. & Hy. (Eng.), M.B. B.S. (Bombay) F.R.I.P.H. (London), J.P., Superintendent and Chief Medical Officer, Goolunda Telpal Hospital. b 23 Aug. 1898 Educ. at Cathedral and New High Schools, Elphinstone and Grant Medical College, Bombay, Univ. Coll. and Hospital, London Clinical Fellow in Medicine Grant Coll. Bombay, Medical Registrar J. J. Hospital Bombay, House Surgeon, Metropolitan Hospital, London, Tuberculosis Medical Officer, Boro of Stoke Newington, Hackney and Poplar, London Medical Referee, London War Pensions Committee, Lecturer on Tuberculosis University of Bombay, Hon. Physician, G. T. Hospital, Bombay, Fellow of the Royal Society of Public Health, Fellow, University of Bombay Publications Present Position of Tuberculosis, Prevention of Tuberculosis and Pandemic of Influenza, 1918, etc. etc. Address Alice Buildings, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay

MOOS, NANABHAY A. F., D.Sc. (Edin.) L.C.E. (Gom.), F.R.S. (Edin.) Retired Director, Bombay and Allag Observatories b 29 Oct

1859 m. Bal Jeeboobal, y. d. of Byramjee Jeejeebhoy, Esq. Educ. Bombay University and Edinburgh University, Prof. of Physics Elphinstone Coll., Bombay for some time Inspector of Factories, Bombay Presidency, from 1896 to 1920 Director of Bombay and Allag Observatories Syndic and Dean in Science Bombay Univ., Representative of the Bombay University on the Advisory Committee of the Coll. of Engineering, Poona, Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay, Board of Trustees of the Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay and Board of Trustees, Victoria Technical Institute Publications Papers in Royal Society Edinburgh, and Publications in the series Bombay Observatory's Publications 1896-1920 Bombay Magnetic Data and Discussion 1848-1915 Vols I and II Address Gowalla Tank Road, Bombay

MORENO, H. W. B., Dr., Ph.D., M.B. S. (Lond.) b 1875 Educ. at Calcutta University and Merchiston Edinburgh Editor Century Review, a weekly Recorder Lecturer, Calcutta University, Ex Member, Leg Council, Bengal ex. Hon. Magte, Sealdah, Calcutta, President, Anglo-Indian League (established in 1900), Publications History of the Bengali News papers Scrab and Bismarck Story of the Kings' etc. Address 2 Wellesley Square Calcutta

MORONY THOMAS HENRY, C.S.I., C.I.E., Inspector General of Police, Central Provinces and Bihar b 8th April 1879 m. Evelyn Myra, eldest d. of Bishop of Portsmouth. Educ. Fettes College, Edinburgh. Joined Indian Police 1899 and posted to C. P. Appointed Dist. Superintendent of Police 27th Sept. 1907 on deputation as Inspector General of Police, Indore State, 1912 17 King's Medal 1918 appointed Dy. Inspector General of Police in 1919 and Inspector General of Police in 1922, C.I.E. in 1920 Address Nagpur

MOTICHAND, THE HON. RAJA SIR, C.I.E. (1918) Kt (1920) Banker Landlord and Millowner, b 2 Aug. 1876. Educ. privately first Non Official Chairman, Benares Municipal Board Chairman Benares Bank Ltd. Chairman of Benares Cotton and Silk Mills Ltd. Chairman Benares Industries, Ltd. Member U.P. Legislative Council from 1918-1920, Member Council of State, since 1920, Hon. Treasurer and Member of the Court and the Council of the Benares Hindu University Chairman of numerous local bodies, educational industrial and social Director of the British India Corporation, Ltd. Cawnpore and member, U.P. Chamber of Commerce Cawnpore Address Asmatgarh Palace Benares

MOTILAL, BHAWARI, M.A. LL.B., Finance Minister, Government of H. H. The Maharaja Holkar b 28 April 1882. m. to Shrimati Kasturba Educ. at Euclid and Dhar and graduated from the Muly Central College Allahabad, M.A., from the same College LL.B. from University School of Law Was Head master, Victoria High School, Khairagarh and Tutor to Raja Lal Bahadur Singh, Chief of Khairagarh. 1907-1909 was legal practitioner for a few years in Central Indian

States Accountant General Jodhpur 1918
1920, Accountant General Indore 1920-23
was made Finance Minister Indore in 1923
Address Indore Central India

MOZOOMDAR, RAI JADUNATH BANAHUR
VEDANTA VACHASPATHI M.A. B.L.
Kaiser Hind (1914) C.I.E. (1921)
ex M.L.C. and M.L.A. Advocate and Land
holder & Oct 1859 m. Srimali Sarat
kumari, d. of late Babu Abhaya Charan
Sarkar Educ. Canning Coll. Lucknow and
Free Church Coll., Calcutta Professor,
Sanskrit College Calcutta, Editor *Tribune*,
Lahore Secy, Finance Dept. Kashmir
Principal Katmandu Coll. Nepal Advocate
Calcutta High Court. Publications *Aravita*
Prasid in 2 parts in Bengali, Commentary
on Vedanta Philosophy in Bengali, Religion
of Love in English, essays and addresses in
English, Appeal to young Hindus in English
and numerous other works. Editor, *Hindu*
Patrika Address Jessore, Bengal

MUHAMMAD ABDULLAH, SAIED, B.A.
Zamindar and Member Legislative Assembly
(1920) & 1878 m. Mahmudun Nema Bibi
d. of late Chandhury Keramutullah of Nalor
(Murshidabad) 1887 Educ. Calcutta Madrasa
Presidency Coll. & Ripon Coll. Hon. Magte
Rampurhat, 1896, elected member, Local
and Union Boards Commissioner, Meherpur
Municipality, apptd. Sub. Deputy Coll.
and Magte, 1906 and Sub-Div. Officer
Bogusani Dt., Monghyr, and Meherpur
(Nadia Dist.) Asst. Settlement Officer,
Bhabna (Shshabad) Resigned 1917
Address Mangram, Birbhum Dist.

MUHAMMAD ABDUL QADIR KHAN
JAHADUR MALVI, B.A., I.L.B. M.L.A.
Pleader & 28th Dec 1887 Educ.
Government College Jubbulpore (P) and
M.A. O. College Aligarh Was for some time
Headmaster Moidra High School Tilkan
garh Orissa Bundelkhand Practised in
1898 at Amroli (Berar) Official Receiver
(1917), Hon. Secretary Berar Mahomedan
Educational Conference Address Amroli
Camp (Berar) C.P.

MUHAMMAD MUKARRAM ALI KHAN,
MUNTAZ-UD-DOWLAH NAWAB, Chief of
Pahar Estate and Tazimi Jagirdar (Jaipur
State) & 2 Sept 1880 m. d. of late Koor
Latat Ali Khan, Chief of Sadabad, 2nd
marriage, d. of Rao Abdul Hakem Khan of
Khai Diat, Bharsanpore Educ. Maharaja's
Coll., Jaipur and M.A. O. Coll., Aligarh
Publications *Sada-i-Watan* Tauged Nadi,
Swaraja Home Rule Address Pahar House
Aligarh

MUIR, WINGATE WENTON, LIEUT.-COL. C.B.E.,
(1928), M.V.O. (1923), O.B.E. (1918) Officer
of the Crown of Roumania 1920, Commander
of the Crown of Belgium 1920, Comptroller,
Viceregal Household, & 12th June 1879
Educ. Haileybury College and the R.M.C.
Sandhurst. Was in the Bedfordshire and
Hertfordshire Regiment and 15th Lushana
Sikhs (I.A.). Address Viceregal Lodge, Delhi
and Simla

MUKANDI LAL, L.A. (Uxon), Bar-at-Law,
M.L.C. D. President, U.P. Legis. Council &
14th Oct 1890 m. one Miss Ball Educ. at
Schools Pauri and Almora, in colleges at
Allahabad, Benares, Calcutta, and Christ
Church Oxford, Hnt. Honrs. 1917 Called to
Bar, Gray's Inn, 1918 returned to India, 1919,
enrolled Advocate Allahabad High Court,
1919 elected to U.P. Legislative Council for
Garhwal 1923 and 1924. Writes to Hindi
and English periodicals and is an exponent
and critic of Indian Art. Address Lansdowne,
Dist. Garhwal, U.P.

MUKERJI MANMATHA NATH, THE HON. MR.
JSTICE, M.A. (Cal.) B.L. Punes Judge
High Court, Calcutta since 1924 & 23 Oct.
1874 m. Ram Sunswari Debi, eldest d.
of Sir Goroob Das Banerjee Educ. Albert
College School and College, Presidency
College, Calcutta, and Ripon College Law
Classes, Vakil Calcutta High Court, from
Dec 1898 to Dec 1923. Address 81
Harsi Street, Calcutta.

MUKHERJEE, BABU JOGENDRA NATH, M.A.,
B.L., Advocate High Court, Calcutta
& 23rd June 1861 m. d. of late Babu Hari-
nath Chatterjee, of the Provincial Executive
Service Educ. Presidency College and
Hindu School, and Government Pathshala,
Calcutta Practised as pleader at Purnea
1888-1908, was Municipal Commissioner,
Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality, and
Chairman altogether for about 18 years,
Member of Bengal Legislative Council (1906
to 1907), practised Calcutta High Court from
1906 Prof of Hindu Law in the Calcutta Law
College from 1909-1919, Chairman of Profes-
sors, Criminal Law in that Coll., 1918-19;
Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23
Publications (1) *The Legislative Assembly*
and its work (brochure) (2) *Dilettantism in*
Social Legislation (3) An address on Hindu
music delivered at Indian Musical Salon
held at Government House Calcutta, on 7th
Dec. 1920 Address 18 Pran Kisen
Nookerjee Road, Tallah, Calcutta.

MUKHERJEE, THE HON. SIR JYOTI LOKH
NATH, Zamindar, having properties extending
over many districts, an Executive of Uttar-
para Municipality Member of Council of
State & April 1900. m. Srimali Sallabala
Devi, d. of Rai Bahadur Ramchand Chatter-
jee, retired Magte of Bankura Educ. Uttar-
para Govt. High School and Presidency Col-
lege, Calcutta Elected Commissioner, Ut-
tarpara Municipality in 1921, was Chairman
for some time in 1924 and again in 1928;
at present an executive of the Municipality,
now an elected Member, Council of State,
for West Bengal Constituency Address
Rajendra Bhawan, Uttarpara, Bengal.

MULLA THE RT. HON. SIR DINNAR FARDUSI,
KT (1930) P.C. I.L.B., C.I.E., & April 1866
m. Verbal, d. of Y. Y. Karaka of Bombay
Educ. at Sir Jamsetji Jijiboy School and
Elphinstone College, Bombay Late Fellow of
the Bombay University Late President,
Tribunal of Appeal, Bombay, 1919-1921
A Judge of the Bombay High Court Law

Member of H. E. the Viceroy's Executive Council. Appointed to the Privy Council 1890. *Publications*: Commentaries on the Code of Civil Procedure, Principles of Hindu Law, Principles of Mahomedan Law, Joint author of Pollock and Mulla's Indian Contract Act. *Address*: 21, Marine Lines, Bombay.

MULLAN, JAL PHIROZSHAH M.A., F.L.S. F.Z.S., F.R.S. Prof. of Biology, Director Zoological Laboratory, St. Xavier's College b 28 March 1884. *Educ.* St. Xavier's College Bombay. Professor, Examiner University of Bombay. *Publications*: "Animal Types for College Students." *Address*: "Vakil Terrace", Lamington Road, Grant Road, Bombay.

MULLICK, SIR BARANTA KUMAR, KT (1920) Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916. *Educ.* Univ. Col. Sch., King's Coll., Cambridge. Ent. L.C.S., 1887, Actg. Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1913. Patna Judge 1915. Ag. Chief Justice 1925. *Address*: Bankipore.

MUMTAZUDDOJAH, NAWAB SIR MOHAMMAD FAIZULLAH KHAN K.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., Nawab of Pakharu, Minister, Jalpur State b 4 Nov 1851. late Member of Supreme and Provincial Legislative Councils. *Address*: Nawab's House Jalpur.

MUNMOHANDAS RAMJI, THE HON. SM., KT (1927), J.P. Merchant and Millowner and Member Council of State. *Educ.*: Bombay High School. Represented Indian commercial community in the old Bombay Legis. Council from 1910 to 1920, served on the Municipal Corporation for 18 years, elected President of the Corporation for 1912-13, served also on the Committees of Indian Merchants Chamber, Bombay Millowners Association and Bombay Native Piecegoods Merchants' Association for more than 25 years, was President of Indian Merchants Chamber, 1907-18 and again in 1924 and of the Bombay Millowners Association in 1909, served several periods on the Board of the Bombay Port Trust, is a member for a number of years of the Board of Trustees of V.J. Technical Institute, was a member of the Advisory Committee to the Director of Industries and of the Advisory Board to the Development Department. is at present a member of the Advisory Committee of the B.E. & C.I. Railway. Represented Indian Merchants Chamber on the Legislative Assembly, 1921-22, served on the Brahmavada Committee, Railway Rate Committee, and Income-Tax Committee. Elected Member of Council of State, June 1922 and re-elected in November 1925. *Address*: Ridge Road Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MURSHIDABAD, NAWAB BAHADUR OF, K.G.I., K.C.V.O., The Hon. Mirsham-ul-Mulk, Raja-ul-Dowla, Amir-ul-Omrak, Nawab Asaf-ud-Din Syed Wasef Ali Moerza, Khan Bahadur, Mahabat Jung, premier noble of Bengal, Bohar and Orissa, 38th in descent from the Prophet of Arabia b 7 Jan 1875, m. 1898, Nawab Sultan Daulat Jungfoor Jahan Begum Sahoba. *Educ.* in India, under private tutors and in England at Sherborne,

Rugby, and Oxford, has six times been Member of Bengal Leg. Council. *Address*: The Palace, Murshidabad.

MURTRIE, DAVID JAMES, O.B.E., I.S.O., Dy. Dir.-Gen., Post. Office, 1916-1921 (retired) b 18 Dec 1864. *Educ.*: Downton Prep. Coll., Madras. Ent. Govt. Service in Post Office 1884, Pres. Postmaster, Bombay, 1912-16. *Address*: "Lootland," Sa., Canning Road Bangalore.

MUTALIK, VISHNU NARAYAN alias ANNAHAR, B.A. First Class Bardar of the Deccan, Inamdar and Saramdar. Member Legislative Assembly b 6 Sept 1870 m. 8 Ramabalsahab, d. of Mr. K. Bhiranbi, Pearl Merchant. *Educ.* at Satara High School and the Deccan Coll., Poona. Member Bombay Legislative Council for the Deccan Sardars 1921-1923. President Inamdars Central Association, 1914 and on wards to the present day. Chairman, Satara City Municipality, for 4 years. Member of Dist. and Taluka Local Board, Satara for over 15 years. Was appointed non-official member of Army Accounts Committee, 1925-26, to represent Legis. Assembly on the Committee. President of the 1st Provincial Conf. of Sardars Inamdars and Wabandars, 1922 and President Provincial Postal Conf. 1926. Elected Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Provincial Conference of Shri Sardars and Inamdars, 1927. Leader of the Deputation of Sardars and Inamdars for giving evidence before the Simon Commission, 1928. Leader of two deputations 1927 and 1929 to H.E. the Governor on behalf of Sardars and Inamdars of the Presidency. Raised to be First Class Bardar of the Deccan in September 1930. *Publications*: Currency System of India in Marathi. *Address*: Shadwar Peth, Satara City.

MYSORE H.H. THE MAHARAJA OF, COL. SIR SRI KRISHNARAJA WADYAR BAHADUR G.C.I. G.B.E. b 4th June 1884, s. father 1895. Invested with full ruling powers by Lord Curzon at Mysore 1902. Celebrated Silver Jubilee of his reign on 5th Aug 1927. Area of State is 29,444 square miles and its population is nearly 6,000,000. *Address*: The Palace Bangalore Mysore Fern Hill The Nilgiris.

MYSORE HIS HIGHNESS YUVARAJA OF SIR SRI KANTHIRAJA NARASIMHARAJA WADYAR BAHADUR, G.C.I.E. b 5 June 1885, s. of late Maharaja Sri Chamarajendra Wadlyar Bahadur m. 17th June 1910. One s. Prince Jaya Chamaraja Wadlyar and three daughters. Taken keen interest in welfare of people and in all matters of education, health and industry. *Address*: Mysore.

VARA, MAHARAJA SRI RUPUDAMAN SINGHY MALAVENDRA, BAHADUR OF, F.R.G.S., M.E.A.S., b 14 March 1888, s. 1911. *Educ.* privately. Travelled good deal in India and abroad, Mem., Victoria's Council, 1904-08. Pres. of Ind. Nat. Soc. Conf. 1909, attended Coronation of King, accompanied by Maharani, 1911. Abducted, 1923.

NAG, GHIS CHANDRA, RAJ BAHADUR, M.A., B.L. b 25 June 1901 m. Sreemati Kunjalata, d. of Raj Sahab P.C. Deb of Syntet. *Educ.*

Currenta Presidency College Professor
Ravenshaw Coll., Cuttack (1886-1890),
Pleader, Sindh Judge's Court, 1890-1892
Member, Assam Civil Service, 1893-1919
Member, Dacca University Court, and
Member Leg Assembly Publications. Back
to Bengal Address: Bakshi Bazar, Dacca.

NAGOD, RAJA MAHENDRA SINGH, RAJA OF
Nagod for over six centuries, his State
has area of 501 square miles, and population
of 63,166; his salute being nine guns
Address: Nagod, Baghelkhand

NAGPUR, R. C. BISHOP OF: see Coppel.

NAIDU, SARAJINI, MRS., Fellow of Roy Soc. of
Lit. in 1914. b Hyderabad, Deccan,
15 Feb 1879 Educ. Hyderabad King's
Coll., London, Girton Coll., Cambridge
Published three volumes of poetry
in English, which have been trans-
lated into all Indian vernaculars, and some
into other European languages, also been
set to music. Lectures and addresses on ques-
tions of social, religious and educational and
national progress, specially connected with
Women's Movement in India, and welfare of
Indian students. President, Indian National
Congress, 1923. Address: Congress House,
Bombay 4

NAIR, CHITTUR MAHAYAN, THE HON MR
JUSTICE, B.A. Bar-at-Law Judge High
Court, Madras, b 24th Jan 1879 m Sree
mathi Palat Parukutty Ammah eldest d
of Sh C Sankaran Nair Educ Victoria Coll.,
Palghat, Pachayappan and Christian Col-
leges, Madras, Law Coll. Madras, Univ Coll
London and also the Middle Temple London
enrolled in the Madras High Court 1904
appointed as Vice-Principal Law Coll. Madras
1908 officiated as Principal Law Reporter,
1915-16. apptd. Prof. 1920-22 Govt
Pleader 1919-23, Advocate General Madras,
1923-24 Judge of High Court 1924 confirm-
ed 1927 Address: Moort's Gardens, Nun
ganbakum Madras.

NAIR, SRI MANMATH KRISHNAN KT (1930),
DEWAN BANADUR (1915) Member, Executive
Council, Government of Madras (1923) b
August 1870 Educ Alathur, Calicut, and
Christian College and Law College Madras
Vakil Calicut Bar Ch Justice Travancore
High Court, for four years Dewan Travancore
May 1914 to July 1920 Address: Mohana
Vilas, Ormeau Road Kilpank Madras

NAIR, see SANKARAN NAIR

NAMBIAL, CHANDROTH KUDALI INAYATH
VETIL KUNHI KAMARAN Landlord, M.L.A.
b Dec 1888 m Kalliat Medhavi Amma, d
of V Kyru Nambial B.A., B.L., High Court
Vakil Educ at the Mission High School,
Brennen College, Tellicherry and Madras
Medical College. Succeeded to the manage-
ment of the Chandroth estate after the death
of his brother in 1912 In 1914 was elected
to the Tellicherry Taluk Board and in 1916
to the Malabar District Board of which he
continues to be a member In 1921 was
returned to the Legislative Assembly as the
representative of the Madras Landholders
Address: Panoor, via Mako, N Malabar

NANAYATT, COL. DR. SRI BYRAMJI
HORMASJI KT (1930), F.R.C.S. (Ed),
F.C.P.S. I.M.S. (with honours), Khan
Bahadur (1919), C.I.E. June (1925),
Consulting Surgeon and Physician Specialist
in Eye Diseases from Royal Ophthalmic
Hospital Moorfields, London, b Decem-
ber 1861 m Jhanbal, daughter of the
late Mr M N Nanayatti (Treasury Officer,
Surat) and cousin of Mr M M Nanayatti,
I.O.S. Educ. Ahmedabad and Bombay and later
in London and Edinburgh held for many
years the posts of Lecturer of Surgery (Clinical)
and operative and midwifery in one of the
provincial medical schools of the Bombay
Presidency Was subsequently appointed
Civil Surgeon Surat Appointed a Fellow of
the Bombay University in 1897 and is now
also an ordinary Fellow Was for many years
Examiner in Surgery and Midwifery in the
L.M.S. and M.B.B.S. Examinations
of the Bombay University, and also in the
J.C.P.S. and M.C.P.S. examination of the
College of Physicians and Surgeons, Bombay,
of which Council he is also a member A
Municipal Councillor of over 25 years standing
and Chairman Sanitary Committee, President,
Hormasji Institute Vice-President of three
important public bodies, viz Ahmedabad
Municipality Ahmedabad Sanitary Associa-
tion and the Society for the Prevention of
Cruelty to Animals Member, Civil Hospital
Advisory Committee and of the Committee
of Bechard's Dispensary Victoria Jubilee
Hospital for Women and Lepar Asylum, is
also Hon Secretary of Bechard's Dispensary,
a leading Freemason and a Past Master of
Lodge Salom In 1923 was also elected Hon
Member of Lodge Hope and Generosity Was
awarded by Government a gold medal for
services rendered during the Ahmedabad riots
of 1914 In February 1920 was raised to the
rank of an Hon Col. Medical Corps, Indian
Territorial Forces Publications: "Duties and
Responsibilities of Practitioners and Students
of Medicine On Different Methods of
Cataract Extirpation" "Uremia following
Catheterism" "Gloma Retinae etc Address
Ahmedabad"

NANDY, MAHARAJA SRI MANINDRA CHANDRA,
K.C.I.E. Ser under Kaimbazar, Maharaja of.

NANDY, SRISCHANDRA MA (1920), L.M.C.,
Maharaja of Kaimbazar Bengal b 1897
m 1917 second Rajkumari of the late Hon.
Raja Promoda Nath Roy of Dighapatta.
Educ. Berhampore Coll. Bengal, and Presi-
dency Coll., Calcutta, Chairman, Berham-
pore Municipality, Hon. Magistrate, Berham-
pore, and Member, Bengal Legislative
Council (since 1924), Vice President, British
Indian Association and President, Bengal
Mahajan Sabha, Member, Historical
Society and Asiatic Society of Bengal.
Life Member Viswa Bharati. Address:
Rajbari Kaimbazar, or 392, Upper
Circular Road, Calcutta

NANJUNDAYYA, H. VENKAT, C.I.E.
b 13 Oct. 1840, Educ. Wesleyan Mission
Sch., Mysore, Christian Coll., Madras; Madras
Univ. (Fellow, 1895). Ent. service of Mysore
Govt., 1855, Judge, Chief Court of Mysore

1904; Mem of Council and Ch. Judge of Chief Court, retired 1918; Vice-Chancellor, Mysore Univ. Address: Malabarwara, Bangalore.

MARAYANASWAMI CHETTI, THE HON. DIWAN RAHADEE, b. 28 Sept. 1881. Merchant and Landlord, President, Madras Corporation for 1927 and 1928, Member of the Senate of the Madras University, Member of the Council of Affiliated Colleges representing District Board and Municipalities of Chingleput District, Hon. Secretary, Madras Presidency Discharged Prisoners Aid Society, Provincial Visitor to Presidency Jail; Hon. Secretary, Depressed Classes Mission Society, Member, Town Planning Trust Board representing Corporation. Member of the Advisory Board of the M. & S. M. Ry. Member Madras Labour Board, Member, South India Chamber of Commerce, President, Pichayappa & Trust Board, Member, Tramway Advisory Board, Member, Madras Port Trust Director City Co-operative Bank, Kurnool, Kurnool Society and Co-operative Central Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd., was Member of the Executive Committee of the Committee of Dufferin Fund Visitor of the Criminal Settlement at Madras and Pallavaram, Vice-President of the S. P. C.A. and Madras Children's Aid Society. Member, Cinema Board Member, Council of State. Address: "Gopathi Villa," San Thome, Madras.

NARIMAN, SIR THOMAS BERNARD, KT. M.R.C.P. (Edinburgh), Hon. Censor, 1922 (Edinburgh), 1922-23. Chief Physician, Park Lying-in Hospital, President, College of Physicians and Surgeons, b. Navari 2nd Sept. 1868; Educ. Grant M.C., Riphinstone Coll., Fellow of Bombay Univ., 1893, J.P. a. Syndicate Medicine, 1891, a. Dean in Faculty of Medicine, 1901-02, Mem., Bombay Leg Council, 1909, Mem. of Provincial Advisory Committee, 1910 Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1918, Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation for 15 years. Address: Fort, Bombay.

NARSINGARH, HIS HIGHNESS SRI HUNTER RAJA VIKRAM SINGH SAHIB RAHADEE, b. 21 September 1909, belongs to Paramar or Pomwar branch of Agnikul Rajputs a. daughter of the heir-apparent of Cutch State June 1928, a. 1924 Educ. Daly College Indore and Mayo College, Almere State is 784 sq miles in extent and has population of 101,446 value of 11 lacs. Regent His Highness the Rani Shiv Kumwar Sahiba, D.B.E. Address: Narasingarh, C.I.

NARLIK, BISHOP OF (RT. REV. PHILIP HENRY LOYD, M.A.), b. July 8, 1884 Educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, (late Scholar and 1st class Classical Tripos) On being ordained Deacon in the Diocese of London, became Chaplain to the Eton College Mission and Curate of St. Mary of Eton, Hackney Wick Vice-Principal of Ouddesdon College from 1912 to 1916, when he came to India as an S. P. C. Missioner First-in-charge of Mtd. 1916-1917, Chaplain to Bishop, Primate of Bombay 1917-1919, S. P. C. Missioner at Ajmernagar 1917-1922, Consecrated Bishop Suffragan of Ahmednagar and Assistant Bishop of Bombay, 1922 Appointed first Bishop of the new Diocese of Nasik, 1923 Address: Nasik.

NATARAJAN, KARAKERI, B.A. (Madras University), 1909, Editor, The Indian Social Reformer, Bombay, A. 24th Sept. 1928. Educ. St. Peter's H. S., Tanjore. Pres. Coll., Madras, Govt. Coll., Kumbakonam and Law Coll., Madras Headmaster, Arya H. S., Triplicane, Madras, Asst. Editor, the Hindu Madras, Pres., Madras Prov. Soc. Confr., Kurnool, 1911, and Pres., Bombay Prov. Soc. Confr., Bijnapur, 1918 President, Mysore Civic and Social Progress Conference, 1921, and President National Social Conference, Ahmedabad, 1921, General Secretary, Indian National Social Conference, 1923-24 President, 40th Indian National Social Conference, Madras, 1927 Publications: Presidential addresses at above Conferences, Report of Census of Hyderabad (Deccan), 1911. A Reply to Miss Katherine Mayo's "Mother India" (G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras) Address: The Indian Social Reformer Office, Fort, Bombay, and "Kamakshi House," Bandra, Bombay.

NATESAN, THE HON. MR. G. A., head of G. A. Natesan & Co., and Editor, The Indian Review, Member, Council of State, b. 26th August 1873 Educ. High School, Kumbakonam, St. Joseph's School, Trincomopoly H. H. School, Triplicane, Presidency College, Madras University, B.A. (1897), Fellow of the Univ. and Commissioner, Madras Corps. Has taken a leading part in Congress work. Joined Moderate Conference, 1919 Sec., Madras Liberal League, Joint Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1922, visited Canada on Empire Parliamentary Delegation in 1928 Publications chiefly patriotic literature and speeches, etc., of public men, What India Wants, Autonomy within the Empire Address: George Town, Madras.

NATKURHAL, TRIMOVANDAS MANGALDAS J.P., Hon. Mag. and Fellow of Univ., Bombay Sheth or Head of Kapol Banya community resigned presidentialty after tenure thereof for 25 years, 1912 a. 28 Oct. 1856. Educ. St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay Was for 20 years an elected Mem. of Bombay Mun. Corps., has been Hon. Mag. since establishment of Courts of Bench Magistrates in Bombay Address: Sir Mangaldas House, Lamington Road, Bombay.

NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR, b. 13 June 1889 Educ. at Nizam College, Prime Minister of Hyderabad, 1912-14 Address: Hyderabad, Deccan.

NAWANAGAR, H. H. MAHARAJA JAN SHRI RAJENDRAN, G.O.B.I., G.B.S., K.O.B.I., Hon. Lt.-Colonel in army, b. 5 October, 10th September 1872, Educ. Rajmangar Coll., Rajkot, Trinity Coll., Cambridge. First appearance for Sussex O.C.C., 1895, head of Sussex averages same year, head of Sussex averages, 1896-1902, champion batsman for all England in 1896 and 1900, scoring 2,780 runs with an average of 50.91, went with Boddard's All England XI to Australia, 1897-98, served European War, 1914-15 represented India first Meeting of League of Nations at Geneva in 1920, also 2nd Meeting in 1922, also 4th Meeting in 1924. Address: Jammagar, Kathiawar.

HAZEMUDDIN, TUN HOY KWAWA, M.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E., 1927, Minister for Education, Government of Bengal. A. July 1884 m. Shahr Banoo d. of U. M. Ashraf Educ. at Allahgarh, M.A.O. College, and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Chairman, Dacca Municipality, from 1922 to 1930 Member Executive Council, Dacca University, 1924 to 1929, Member, Bengal Legislative Council from 1923 Address: Part Bagh, Ramna Dacca.

NEEDHAM, BREYNT-COLONEL RICHARD ARTHUR, B.Sc., M.D., D.P.H., F.R.C.P. (Edinburgh), D.S.O. (1916) C.I.E. (1919), & 1877 Inspector of Medical Education in India on behalf of the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom, on special duty, Railway Road Address: Simla and Lahore.

NEHAICHAND MUNTAKIN BAHADUR M.A. (Allahabad) Akbari Member Indore Cabinet Educ. Mair Central College, Allahabad Worked as Professor Tutor to a Rajputana Prince Private Secretary to the Prime Minister, Indore State, Customs, Akbari and Opium Commissioner Subah and Member of the Revenue Board Address: 15, Tukoganj Indore, Central India.

NEHRU PANDIT SHAMAL, M.L.A., Journalist, & 16 June 1879 m. Oms d. of Pandit Niranjan Nath Hukku Educ. at Allahabad Member All India Congress Committee, Provincial Congress Committee (J.P.) Allahabad Town Congress Committee, Allahabad Municipal Board, Chairman, Allahabad Public Health Committee, Member Allahabad Improvement Trust, Member, Khilafat Committee Member Legis. Assembly, six months imprisonment and fine for non co-operation (1921-22) Publication Founder of 'The Democrat' newspaper of Allahabad Address: Allahabad U.P.

NEILSON, WILLIAM HAINCASTER O.B.E. (1919) V.D., J.P., M.A., M.A.I., Chairman Bombay Port Trust, & 21 Feb 1875, m. Ethel Maud, only d. of the late Frank Phillips of Plymouth Educ. Mr Strangway's School, Dublin, Trinity College, Dublin Asst. Engineer Kevham Dockyard Extension, Devonport, Asst. Engineer, Calcutta Port Commissioners 1905, Port Engineer, Chittagong Port Commissioners, 1907, Chief Engineer, Karachi Port Trust 1916; Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust, 1922, Chairman, Bombay Port Trust, 1923 Controller of Munitions and Member Priority Committee, Indian Munitions Board, Karachi Circle, 1917-18 Col Commanding Bombay Batt., A.F.I., Hon. A.D.C. to H.E. Lord Irwin, Member, Municipal Corporation G.I.P. Ry., B.B. & C.I. Ry., S.D. Advisory Committee and Improvement Trust Committee, Member of Council Inst. C.E., Inst. Mech. E. and Am. Soc. C.E. Past President, Inst. Engrs. (India) and Indian Ports Assoc., President, Bombay Y.M.C.A., Vice-President, Bombay Vigilance Assoc. and Social Hygiene Council, Hon. Pres. Maclellan, Trustee of St. Thomas' Cathedral Public News Report on Grain Elevators in Canada and United States Address: North End Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill Bombay.

NELSON, SIR ARTHUR EDWARD, Kt. (1889), C.I.E., O.B.E., M.A., I.C.S., Member, Executive Council, Central Provinces & 1878, m. 1916 to S. McLachlan Educ. Newcastle High School and Magdalen College, Oxford, Joined the Indian Civil Service in 1899, MH 1900 served as Asst. Commissioner, Registrar, Judicial Commissioner, Provincial Superintendent, Imperial Gazetteer and Superintendent of Lithography, served in Finance Department, Government of India, 1910, reverted to C.P. Government, 1919, became Settlement Officer, 1918, Deputy Commissioner, 1915, Commissioner of Excise, 1916, and Chief Secretary to the Chief Commissioner in 1920, Member, C.P. Executive Council, 1927 Address: Nagpur, C.P.

NEOGY KSHITIH CHANDRA, M.L.A., representing, since 1921, the non-Mahomedan Electorate, Dacca Divn., N. Bengal Vakil, High Court, Calcutta, Journalist & 1883 Educ. Presy. Coll. Calcutta, Dacca Coll. m. Sreematy Lila Devi Some time a member of the All India Council of the Nat. Lib. Fedn. Elected Member of the Dacca Univ. Court, 1921-24 one of the Chairmen of the Leg. Assembly since 1924 Address: 48, Toynbee Circular Road, Warl, Dacca, and P. 323 Bnna Road, Tollygunge P.O., Calcutta.

NEPAL HIS HIGHNESS PROJJWALA NEPALA TARADISHA MAHARAJA BHADRABHUK SHUK SHERA JUNG BAHADUR RANA G.C.B. (Hon 1908), G.C.S.I. (Hon 1905), G.C.M.G. (1919), G.C.V.O. (1911), D.C.L. (Hon Oxford, 1908), F.E.S. (Hon 1912), Thong Lin-Pingma-Kokang Wang-Syan, (Chinese, 1905), Grand Croix de la Legion d' Honneur (1929), Prime Minister, Marshal and Supreme Commander-in-Chief & 8th July 1893, m. 1st 1878 Shri Bada Maharani Chandra Loka Bhakta Lakshmi Devi (born 1867) of a high Thakuri Kahatriya family of Nepal, died 1905 2nd 1905 Shri Bada Maharani Bala-kumari Devi (born 1889) eldest daughter of Commander Colonel Hari Bikram Shah, a high Thakuri Kahatriya in the country Educ. Durbar High School, Katmandu, and is an alumnus of the Calcutta University Entered Army as a Colonel, 1878, Major General in the Nepal Army 1889, General Commanding Southern Division, 1887, Senior Commanding General (Western Command), Director of Public Instruction and in charge of the Foreign Office of Nepal 1887-1901 Commander-in-Chief of the Nepalese Army, March 1901 became Maharaja Prime Minister, Marshal and Supreme Commander-in-Chief of Nepal, June, 1901 Honorary General in the British Army, 1919; Honorary Colonel, 4th Gurkha Rifles, 1904 instituted the most valiant Order of the Star of Nepal and himself in Projjwala-Nepala-Taradishah, i.e., Grand Master of the most valiant Order, visited England and other parts of Europe as State guest, 1906, rendered magnificent help to Britain in men, money & materials during the war, 1914-18, presented 21 machine guns to the King, submitted help to Britain during the War-takan Campaign and Third Kabul War,

- 1917-19 In recognition of this help Nepal receives an annual gift of ten lakhs rupees from the British Government to be paid in perpetuity concluded and signed a new Treaty of Friendship between the Governments of Nepal and Great Britain, 1923, has effected decided administrative and other improvements in the country and has abolished Suttee (1926) and slavery throughout the kingdom after liberating 70,000 slaves at a cost of Rs. 35,00,000 1924-26 *Publications* Has translated several Military books into Nepalese *Address* Singha Durbar, Katmandu T. A. Marshal Baxaul.
- NEVILL, HENRY RIVERA B.A., O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1920), C.I.E. (1921) Commissioner (on leave) b 24th May 1876 m Euphan M.B.E., d of T. Maxwell Esq., of Irvine Ayrshire, d. 1928 *Educ* Charterhouse Oriel College, Oxford Entered Indian Civil Service 1899, posted to U.P., Commanded U.P. Horse, 1918-17, services placed at disposal of C. in C. Nov 1917 Asst. Adjutant-General at A.H.Q. and from August 1921 to April 1923 Director of Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Collector and Magistrate, Agra, Nov 1923 *Publications* Dist. Sessions of the United Provinces *Address* Jhansi.
- NEWBOULD, HON. SIR BARNABUR BRYNKT Kt. (1924), Putney Judge High Court, Calcutta, since 1916 b 7 March 1867 *Educ* Bedford Sch., Pembroke Coll. Cambridge Ent. I.C.S. 1885 *Address* Bengal United Service Club, Calcutta.
- NEWMAN, HAROLD LANGFOLD, C.I.E. (1930), Chief Conservator of Forests Donkey Presidency b Aug 6, 1878 m Mary, d of the late Prof. T. A. Hearson, A.M. I.C.E. *Educ* Marlborough College and Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill. Joined the Indian Forest Service as Assistant Conservator on November 15, 1901, apptd. Conservator 1st Jan 1922 Chief Conservator, Feb 1923 *Address* Poona.
- NICHOLSON, SIR FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, K.C.S.I. (1925), K.C.I.E. (1902), C.I.E. (1899), Kaimar Hind Medal, First Class, 1st Jan 1917 b 1848 m 1876 Catherine, O.B.E. d. of Rev. J. Lechler three s *Educ* Royal Medical College, Epsom Lincoln Coll., Oxford Entered Madras Civil Service, 1869 Member Board of Revenue, Madras, 1899, Member, Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1897-99 1900-02 reported on establishment of Agricultural Banks in India, 1905, Member of Finance Commission, 1901 retired, 1904, Econ. Director of Fisheries, 1905-1918. *Publications* District Manual of Combarators, Land and Agricultural Banks for India, Madras Fisheries Bulletin Note on Agriculture in Japan *Address* Surinder Conoor, Nilgiris.
- NIRAL SINGH, REV. CANON SOLOMON, B.A., Evangelistic Missionary, Chawha Rajput of Mainpuri and Jagdhar by birth, b 15 Feb. 1882, m 1870 d of Subbar Sundar Singh, a Tiloi Chandi Bala of Balaswara, three s three d *Educ* Govt. H.S., Lakhimpur, Canning Coll., Lucknow Ordained, 1891, from Osnaburg in All Saints Cathedral, Allahabad, 1906 *Publications* An English Grammar for the use of the middle classes in Urdu, Translation into English of the Urdu Entrance Course Majma Sakbun, 1873-75, Khulasa-i-Isaiah (in two parts) Risala-e-Sai Gai or Plain Speaking Verses on Temperance in Urdu, Munajat Asi Verses on the Coronation of King Edward VII and George V in Urdu *Address* 2, Pioneer Road Allahabad.
- NILOLY MACHINAJA BROWNISHAWKER M.A., LL.M. Officiating Additional Judicial Commissioner Nagpur b 30th August 1886 m Dr Indirabel Nyngi M.B.B.S. (Bom.) *Educ* at Nagpur Practice at the Bar since 1910, President Municipal Committee Nagpur 1925-1928 Member University Court Nagpur 1924-27 President Univ. Union 1924-25 Chairman Local Board of Directors Bharat Insurance Co. Social and Political Reforms activities *Address* Craddock Town Nagpur C.P.
- NORMAND, ALEXANDER ROBERT, M.A., B.Sc., Ph.D., Prof. of Chemistry, Wilson Coll. Bombay b Edinburgh 4 March 1880 m 1909 Margaret Elizabeth Murray Esq. Royal H.S. and Univ. Edinburgh *Address* Wilson College, Bombay.
- NORMAND CHARLES M.A., WILLIAM BLYTH D.Sc. Director General of Observatories b 10th September 1889 m to Alison Mc Lennan. *Educ* Royal High School and Edinburgh University Carnegie Scholar and Fellow 1911-1913 Meteorologist, Simla, from 1913-1915 and 1919-1927 I.A.R.O., with Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, 1916-19 mentioned in despatches, 1917 Director-General of Observatories, 1927 *Publications* Articles in Chemical and Meteorological Journals. *Address* Meteorological Office, Poona.
- NORRIS, ROLAND VICTOR D.Sc. (London) M.Sc. (Manchester), F.I.C., Professor of Biochemistry Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore b 24 October 1887 m Dorothy, only d of Robert and Myrion Harrop, Manchester *Educ* Ripon Grammar School and Univ. of Manchester Schuch Research Assistant, Univ. of Manchester, 1909; Research Scholar, Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine, 1910-11, Beit Memorial Fellow 1911-13 Physiological Chemist Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Mukdosar, U.P. 1914 war service Captain I.A.M.C. attached 163rd Mahratta Light Infantry, 1916-18 Indian Agricultural Service Agricultural Chemist to Govt. of Madras 1918-24 appointed Prof. of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science, July 1924, Econ. General Secretary, Indian Science Congress *Publications* numerous scientific papers in various technical journals. *Address* The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.
- NORTON, BARDLEY, Barr-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn) b 10 Feb 1852 Called 1878 *Educ* Rugby Sch., Marlton Coll., Oxford Advocate of the High Courts of Bengal (1888), and

Madras (1870) Member of the Legislative Assembly, as elected representative of the non-officials of Madras Presidency, 1921
Address Bar Library, High Court Calcutta

NOYCE FRANK SIR RT (1929) ICS C 51 (1924) CBE 1919 & 4 June 1878 *Edu* Salisbury Sch. and St Catharine's Coll Cambridge. *Edu*, d of W M Kirkus of Liverpool. Entered ICS 1902. Served in Madras, Under Sec. to Govt of India Revenue and Agricultural Dept., 1914-16. Secretary Indian Cotton Committee, 1917-18. Controller of Cotton Cloth, 1918-9. V. President and subsequently President, Indian Sugar Committee, 1919-20. Member Burma Land Revenue Committee, 1920-21. Indian Trade Commissioner in London, 1922-3. Secy to the Govt of Madras Development Department, 1923-24. President, Indian Coal Committee, 1924-25. President, Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry), 1926. Attached Officer and Asst. Commissioner, Royal Commission on Agriculture in India, 1927. Secretary to the Government of India Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1929. *Publications* England, India and Afghanistan (1902). *Address* Gortou Castle, Strim

NUNAN WILLIAM, BA TCD (1902), MB BCh., TCD (1905), MD (1906) Admits trative Medical Officer Bombay Port Trust b 28 Jan. 1880. m. Joanne Honorine Thibault de Chanvalon, Paris *Edu.* Clongowes Wood College Kildare University of Dublin Trinity College Certifying Surgeon Bombay 1914. Coroner of Bombay 1910-1919. Police Surgeon of Bombay. Prof of Medical Jurisprudence Grant Medical College Bombay. *Publications* Lectures in Medical Jurisprudence, The Mental Factor in Disease. *Address* Douglas House, Colaba Bombay

OATEN, EDWARD FARLEY, MLC M.A., LL.B. Director of Public Instruction Bengal b 24 Feb. 1864. m. Dorothy Alison Fegan 2nd d of late E G Filla. *Edu.* Skinner's School, Tunbridge Wells, Tonbridge School, Sidney Sussex College Cambridge (Scholar). On staff Llandoverly Coll, 1908-9. IES as Prof of History, Presidency Coll Calcutta, 1909-16. Trooper Calcutta Light Horse to 1916, thence to 1919 in I.A.B.O. attached 11th KEO Lancers in N W Frontier and in the Punjab, including Waziristan campaign, 1917, L.A., 1917. Ag. Captain, 1919. Offg Asst. Director for Mahomedan Education, Bengal, 1919. Offg Inspector of European Schools, Bengal 1920. Offg. Principal, Hughli College 1921. Asst. Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, 1921. Director of Public Instruction, Bengal 1924; Nominated member, Bengal Legislative Council, 1924 to present day. Fellow Calcutta University. Major, A F India 1927 in command of 2nd (Calcutta) Bn University Training Corps. *Publications* "A sketch of Anglo-Indian Literature", "European Travellers in India. Glimpses of India's History", contributed to 'Cambridge History of English Literature'. *Address* United Service Club, Calcutta.

PADSHAH THE HON SAIED MAHMUD SAHIB BAHADUR, B.A., F.A.U. Member, Council of State. Member of the Board Committee Council of State. Vakil b 1887 m d of the late Saeed Syed Mir Husain Salah Bahadar a Mahomedan millionaire of Chittaur. *Edu* Presidency College Madras. Joined the Bar in 1916, became Member of the Reformed Madras Legislative Council 1921. agitated in the Council for the separation of the Judicial and Executive functions of the Temperance Movement encouragement of cottage industries etc. first joined the Council of State in 1924 and got re-elected to it in 1925. became a J.R.W of the Andhra University and President of Madras Provincial Muslim League in 1926. Presided over All India Press Employees Conference held in Calcutta in 1927. Thrice nominated Panel Chairman of the Council of State, presided over several Provincial Muslim Conferences. *Address* Bikaner.

PAGE THE HON MR JUSTICE ARTHUR, KC (1922) Chief Justice Burma High Court b 1878. *Address* of late Nathaniel Page. J.P. (Carlisle) Barry m Margaret d of K. Symes Thomson, M.D. F.R.C.P. *Edu.* Harrow Magdalen Coll Oxford Classical Honours Moderations 1897. Literae Humaniores 1899. BA 1899. Bar at Law 1901. Conservative Candidate, Derby Borough, Jan 1910 served European War in France and Flanders A.B., E.N.V.I. 1914. 2nd Lieut Royal Marine Artillery. Captain 1917. Pulang Judge Calcutta 1923. *Publications* "The Licensing Bill, is it Just?" 1903. Shops Act (Joint author) 1911. Legal Problems of the Empire in Oxford Survey of the British Empire, 1914. Imperialism and Democracy, 1917. War and Alien Enemies 1914. various articles on Political and Social subjects. Harrow School cricket and football eleven and five player. *Address* High Court Rangoon

PAKENHAM WALSH, RT REV HERBERT, DD (Dub.) Principal Bishop's College Calcutta b Dublin 23 March 1871. 3rd son of late Rt Hon William Pakenham Walsh, Bishop of Osnery and Clara Jane Ridley m 1910, Clara Ridley, y d of Rev Canon F C Hayes. *Edu.* Chard Grammar School, Birkenhead School Trinity College Dublin Deacon, 1896, worked as a member of the Dublin University Brotherhood, Chobna Nagore, India, 1896-1908, Principal, S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, 1904-07, Head of the S. P. G. Brotherhood, Trichinopoly, Warden, Bishop Cotton School, Bangalore, 1907-14, Bishop of Assam, 1915-23. *Publications* St Francis of Assisi and other poems, Nisbet, Altar and Table (S.P.C.K.) Evolution and Christianity (O.L.S.) Commentary on St John's Ep (S.P.C.K.), Daily Services for Schools and Colleges (Longman's) and Divine Healing (S.P.C.K.) Antiphonal Prater (Madras Diocesan Press). *Address* Bishop's College, 234, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta

PALEARRET, CHARLES ROWLAND, M.I. Mech. E., M.I.E.E. Member for Industries and Commerce, Indore State b 12 Dec. 1872

St. Louise Bourne, d. of Charles Beasant
London *Edue* Catholic College, Christ
Church, New Zealand Director of Indus-
tries and Commerce, Hyderabad, Deccan
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PALANPUR, NAWAB MAJOR H H ZUBDA
TULWIK DEWAN MAHADEWAN TALEY
MUHAMMAD KHAN MAHADEWAN, K.C.I.E.
(1920) K.C.Y.O. (1922) b July 7 1888
State has area of 1,750 sq miles and popula-
tion of over 230,000 Address Palampur

PAL, BIPIN CHANDRA, Journalist b 7 Nov
1888 *Edue* Presidency College, Calcutta
Sub-Editor, Bengal Public Opinion 1883-84
Sub-Editor Tribune, 1887-88 Secretary
and Librarian, Calcutta Public Library
1890-92, License Inspector Calcutta Corpora-
tion, 1892-93 visited England and America
worked as a Brahmo Missionary started
'New India' 1901 and afterwards 'Bande
Mataram' convicted in 1907 to simple
imprisonment for 6 months for contempt of
court, left for England 1908 where he started
'Swaraj' (monthly) in 1911 sentenced on
returning at Bombay to simple imprisonment
for one month on a charge of sedition start-
ed 'The Hindu Review' in 1912 Address
Calcutta

PALITANA THAKORE SAKRE OF SHRI BANA
DURJINIMANSINGHJI (Gobal Rajput) K.C.I.E.
b 3 April 1900 Invested with full powers
27th Nov 1918 A member of the Chamber
of the Rajkot Rajkumar College Address
Palitana.

PANANDEKAR, SATYASHRATI GOPAL, M.A.
(Bombay), 1916 Ph.D. (Econ London), 1921
D.Sc. (Econ, London), 1926 Professor of
History and Political Economy, Elphinstone
College, Bombay b 18 July 1894 m. to Indira,
d. of S. A. Sabnis Esq. Solicitor, High Court,
Bombay *Edue* Elphinstone College, Bombay
and School of Economics, Univ of London
Some time Professor of Political Economy,
University of Decca (1921-23) Publications
Economic Consequences of the War for India
Wealth and Welfare of the Bengal Delta.
Address Elphinstone College, Fort, Bombay

PANCKRIDGE, HUGH RANER, B.A.
Barrister Judge High Court Calcutta (April
1930) b Oct 2 1886 *Edue* Winchester
College and Orl College Oxford
Called to Bar Inner Temple, 1909, Advocate,
Calcutta High Court 1910, Standing Counsel
Renzal 1926, Officiating Judge 1929
Additional Judge 1929 Indian Army
Reserve of Officers, 1914, Capt 1918
mentioned in despatches by Field Marshal
Lord Allenby, served in France and Palestine
Address Bengal Club Calcutta, and Oriental
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PANDALAI, THE HON'BLE MR. JUSTICE K
KRISHNAN, B.A., B.L., Bar-at-Law, LL.D.
(Lond.) 1914, Judge, High Court, Madras
b April 1874 m J Narayana Aiyangar. *Edue*
Mavelikara, Trivandrum and Madras
Practised law in the State of Travancore from
1898 to 1911 Proceeded to England and was
called to the Bar in 1913 Judge High

Court, Travancore, 1913-14, awarded LL.D.
by London University for thesis on Mahabhar
law Practised at Madras 1914-19, appointed
Judge, Small Cause Court, 1919, Chief Presi-
dency Magistrate 1924, Judge, High Court,
1928. Publications Editor of Series of
Science Primers in Malayalam, author of
Printer on Chemistry, author of Succession
and Partition in Malabar Law Address
Lanark Hall Rundell's Road, Vepery, Madras

PUNDIT VISHNU DISAMBER PATILSHAR,
GAYANACHRYA, b 1872 m Mrs Hanabai
Patilshar *Edue* Mra] State Publication 60
Masr books or notations. Address Gan-
dharva Maha Vidyalaya Shri Ram Nam
Ashram, Pan-bhavati Nasik

PANNA MAHARAJA MAHENDRA OF HIS HIGH
NESS SIR MAHENDRA MAHARAJA YADVENDRA
SINGH BAHADUR K.C.I.E. b 1893 m 1912
Princess Shri Manhar Kunwar (died 1927)
d. of His late Highness Maharaja of Bhav-
nagar m again 1928 Princess Shri Gopal
Kumari of Isarda Rajputana eldest sister of
H H Maharaja of Jaipur, Son and Heir
apparent Prince Narendra Singh Ja Dev
b 1915 by first Maharani Sahiba. The State
has an area of 2,500 sq miles and a population
of about 200,000 Address Panna State
Bundelkhand, Central India

PANANJYE GOPAL RAMCHANDRA, M.Sc.
A.L.S. Professor of Physics Royal Insti-
tute of Science Bombay b 20 January
1891 m. Mrs. Mallini Paranjye Esq. Poona,
Heldberg and Berlin. Bombay University
Research Scholar at Bangalore for three
years then for some time Assistant in the
Physical Chemistry Department of the Indian
Institute of Science, Bangalore since 1920
Professor of Physics in the Indian Educa-
tional Service at the Royal Institute of
Science Bombay Fellow of the Univ of
Bombay Publications Papers on "The
Cathode fall in several gases Helium
Neon, etc." "Vapour pressures of concen-
trated solutions," "Elastic constants of
certain materials," "Use of neon lamp for
intermittent illumination," "Use of Carbon
Dioxide Gas in Mercury Interrupters."
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PANANJYE, RAGHUNATH PURUSHOTTAM, DR
M.A. (Cantab.), B.Sc. (Bombay), D.Sc.
(Calcutta) Member, India Council (1927)
b Mar 1, 1878. *Edue* Maratha
H S, Bombay, Ferguson Coll, Poona,
St John's Coll, Cambridge (Fell.), Paris
and Göttingen. First in all Univ exams
in India went to England as Govt
of India scholar, bracketed Senior Wri-
gler at Cambridge, 1899 Prime and Prof
of Math., Ferguson Coll, Poona, 1903-04,
has taken prominent part in all social polit-
ical and educational movements in Bombay
Pres., Vice-Chancellor of Indian Women's
Univ., 1918-20, Bombay Leg. Council,
1913, represented the University of
Bombay, 1916-23, 1928 Awarded the Kaiser-i-
Hind Gold Medal in 1918, Member, Bombay
Government 1921-23, 1927, Member, Reforms

Inquiry Committee 1924, Auxiliary and Memorial Forces Committee, 1924 Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee 1924-25 Elected to Bombay Council to represent Univ in 1928 appointed Minister, 1927 resigned on appointment to India Office. *Publications* Short Lives of Gokhale and Karve *Address* India Office, Whitehall, London

PARTAB RAHADUR PING, RAJA, TALUQDAR of Kila Partabgarh, C.I.H. Hon Magistrate, Hon Mem of U P Leg. Council, b 1866. *Address*, Kila Partabgarh, Oudh

PARTABGARH, H. H. RAM SINGH RAHADUR, MAHARAJA of b 1908 & 1929 as eldest s of Rao Raja Sir Madho Singhji. K.C.L.E., of Sikar in Jaipur, 1924 Educ. Mayo College, Ajmer and passed his Diploma Examination from that College in 1927 State has an area of 888 sq miles and population of 87,114, salute of 15 guns. *Address* Partabgarh, Rajputana

PASCOE, SIR EDWIN HALL, Kt (1928), M.A., Sc.D. (Cambr.), D.Sc. (London), F.G.S., F.A.S.B., Director, Geological Survey of India since 1921. Editor Memoirs and Records of the Geological Survey of India Mining and Geological Institute of India, President in 1924 Treasurer and Editor of Transactions 1920-1930 President of the Governing Body Indian School of Mining and Geology Corresponding Member, Imperial Institute Trustee, Indian Museum, Calcutta Member of Council, Indian Institute of Science b 17 Feb. 1878 s. M.A., d. of James Maclean of Beauty, Inverness. Educ. St. John's College Cambridge (Foundation Scholar). Joined Geological Survey, 1906, Kangra Earthquake Investigation, 1906, Survey of Burma Oil fields, 1905-09, accompanied Makwarl Punitive Expedition, Naga Hills, 1910, deputed Persian Gulf, Arabian Coast and W Persia 1913 Slade Oilfields Commission in Persia and Persian Gulf, 1913-14, Punjab and N.W. Frontier 1914-16, Commn as 2nd Lt in I.A.R.O., 1918, on Active Service, Mesopotamia, 1916-17, promoted to Superintendent Geological Survey of India 1917, on Deputation to Mesopotamia, 1918-19 *Publications* The Oilfields of Burma The Petroleum Occurrences of Assam and Bengal, Petroleum in the Punjab and N.W. Frontier Province Geological Notes on Mesopotamia, with special reference to occurrences of Petroleum, and several shorter papers in the Records, Geological Survey of India and elsewhere *Address* Geological Survey of India 27, Charingcross, Calcutta

PATEL, VALLABHAI JHABERHAI BARAT LAW Born of a Patidar family at Karamnad near Nadiad, Matriculated from the Nadiad high school, passed District Board's examination and began practice on the criminal side at Godhra, went to England and was called to the Bar at Middle Temple. On return from England started practising in Ahmedabad. Entered public life in 1916 as an associate of Mr. M. K. Gandhi who had established his Satyagraha Ashram at Ahmedabad. Came into prominence as a Satyagraha leader first at Kaira and then in the Nagpur national flag agitation and elsewhere, and in the Bardoli no-tax campaign

On suspension of non-co-operation movement and incarceration of Mr. Gandhi joined Ahmedabad Municipality for the first time and became its President, 1927-28 *Address*: Khadra, Ahmedabad

PATEL, VITTHALRAI JHABERHAI, first elected President of the Indian Legislative Assembly, Educ. Ahmedabad and Kargand, member of the Bombay Corporation Chairman, Schools Committee, 1923-24 Bombay Legislative Council and the Imperial Council, President of Bombay Corporation, 1924-25; Chairman of the Reception Committee of the Special Bombay Congress of 1918, member of Civil Disobedience Committee which toured India in 1923 Elected President, Legislative Assembly, Aug 1925, re-elected President, Legislative Assembly, in Jan 1927 *Address* Delhi and Simla

PATIALA, MAJOR-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS FARZAD-I-KHANSI DAULAT JINGOL SINGH A MAJUR I ZAMAN AMIR-UL-UMMAH MAHARAJA DEVIKAJI RAJ RAJENDRAN YADU VANDEVATANS BHATTI KILA JIRUNHAN SHREE MARANRAJ I RAJAN MAHARAJA SIR BHUPINDER SINGH MOHINDER RAHADUR MAHARAJA DEVIKAJI of C.B.S.I., ex 1921 G.C.I.E., ex 1911 G.C.V.O. ex 1922 G.D.E., ex 1918, V.R.O.S., P.Z.S. M.R.A.S., M.B.A. A.F.C.I., V.R.I.L.S. Hon A.D.C. to the King Emperor since 1922, b October 1891 Educ. Aitchison Collg. Lahore A member of the Standing Committee of Chamber of Princes and Chancellor of Indian Princes Chamber (Narendra Mandal) 1926 1927, 1928, 1929 and 1930 Hon Major General in British Army and Hon Col 15th Ludhiana Rifles, served with Indian Expeditionary Forces during European War 1914 on the staff in France Belgium Italy and Palestine in 1918 Afghan War 1919 Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy, Grand Cordon of the Order De Leopold of Belgium Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of the Roumania, Grand Cross of the Order of the St. Saviour of Greece Represented India at the Imperial War Conference and Cabinet, 1918 and League of Nations Assembly 1925, Patiala is the Premier State of the Punjab is 4,922 sq miles in extent, and has a population of 14,99,789 and a revenue of Rs 1,28,50,000, the ruler receiving a salute of 19 guns Recreations, Shooting, Cricket (Captained I.C.C. at Bombay 1928) Polo, Motoring, President All India Gun Dog League Patron All India Coursing Club Vice President, Indian Kennel Association Owns the biggest Kennel in India *Address* Patiala (Punjab) --India Chail (Simla Hill)

PATIL, RAO RAHADUR SIR ANNEPU PARASURAMADASS, Kt (1924), High Court Vakil, Gwaliam, landholder, member of the Madras Legislative Council, Minister of Education, Public Works and Mines 1921-27 Delegate to Round Table Conference, 1930 *Publications* Rural Economics, A Study of Rural Conditions in the Madras Presidency, Studies in Local Self Government. *Address* Commoplian Club, Madras

FATTANI, Sir PRABHAKAR DALPATRAM, C.I.E. (1922), C.S.I. (1927) Agent to Governor General in Rajputana and Chief Commissioner Ajmer-Merwara b 1872 m Augusta Rachel d of the late General Roberts Educ Mari borough Coll, R.M.C.B. Sandhurst Entered Queen's Royal Regt, 1892 80th Dogras 1894, served in Warisistan Expedition 1894 & (Medal and Clasp), N.W. Frontier, Malakand Chakdara, Mamad Valley, 1897-8, (Medals and two Clasps), subsequently served in Political Department, Govt of India. In N.W. Frontier Kashmir and Rajputana acted as Political Secretary to Govt of India and was appointed A.G. in Rajputana in 1925 Address The Residency, Mount Abu

PATTERSON, STEWART BRACELEY AGNEW, C.I.E. (1922), C.S.I. (1927) Agent to Governor General in Rajputana and Chief Commissioner Ajmer-Merwara b 1872 m Augusta Rachel d of the late General Roberts Educ Mari borough Coll, R.M.C.B. Sandhurst Entered Queen's Royal Regt, 1892 80th Dogras 1894, served in Warisistan Expedition 1894 & (Medal and Clasp), N.W. Frontier, Malakand Chakdara, Mamad Valley, 1897-8, (Medals and two Clasps), subsequently served in Political Department, Govt of India. In N.W. Frontier Kashmir and Rajputana acted as Political Secretary to Govt of India and was appointed A.G. in Rajputana in 1925 Address The Residency, Mount Abu

PAVY DASTURJI SAHEB CORSEJI BRACHJI First High Priest of the Parsi Sect (Reform Section) of the Parsis in Bombay elected 1920 Order of Merit from the Shah of Persia 1929 to be presented in April 1931 with a Commemorative Volume of Oriental Studies being the work of one hundred of the world's foremost Orientalists born 9 April 1868 sons three daughters, three Education public and private schools Navsari Ordained into Zoroastrian priesthood 1871 first Principal of the Zard Pahlavi Madrasa (Zoroastrian Theological Seminary) at Navsari appointed, 1889 High Priest of the Parsis at Lonava elected, 1912 Younger and trustee of the Basmé Jashné Ruz Hormazd (Society for the Propagation of Zoroastrian Knowledge) also trustee of the Mullan Anjuman Behetari Fund (Foundation for the Betterment of the Zoroastrian Community) Publications Rish Zarthosti (4 Zoroastrian Catechisms) Part 1, Bombay 1901 Vase Khurshed (Lectures and Sermons on Zoroastrian Subjects) Bombay, 1904 Resalah Khurshed (Essays and Addresses on Zoroastrian Subjects) Parts 2, 3 Bombay 1917 1921 Zarthosti Sahitya Abhyas (Zoroastrian Studies) Parts 1, 2 Bombay 1922 1928, Iranian Studies, Bombay 1927 many articles in Gujarati newspapers and scientific journals Address Bombay also Pavy Street, Navsari and Pavy Bagh Vijapur

PAVY FARMON DASTUR GURSWAJI Chief Engineer North Western Railway Created C.I.E., 1930 Eldest son of Dasturji Sahab Gursuji Brachji Pavy Education Alpha stone College, and the Royal Indian Engineering College at Cooper's Hill Associated and Fellow of Cooper's Hill Appointed Assistant Engineer, North Western Railway, 1900 Executive Engineer, 1908, Superintending Engineer 1924 Address Office of the Chief Engineer, North Western Railway, Lahore.

PAVY MERWANJI BRACHJI J.P. (Bombay) L.R.C.P. (London) L.M. & S. (Bombay), L.M. (Dublin), (Captain (I.M.S.) of the Parsi Pioneer Battalion, medical practitioner Bombay born, 15 October 1866 Education Grant Medical College of Bombay, Rotunda Hospital of Dublin and London Hospital Cricket Career The first Parsi cricketer to play for the Middlesex County XI in 1895 Was one of the members of the Second Parsi Team that toured England in 1888 and was the principal bowler Played for twenty-nine years for the representative Parsi Team of Bombay celebrating the Jubilee in 1910 and captained the Parsi team for twenty-four years 1889-1913 Has been the Chairman of the Parsi Selection Committee since 1915 President of the Baronet Cricket Club and the John Bright Cricket Club of Bombay since 1887 Public Life Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Zoroastrian Physical Culture and Health League and the Sir Dinshaw M. Petit Gymnasium in Bombay Hon. Treasurer of the Advisory Committee of the Parsi Pioneer Battalion, Member of the Managing Committee of the Parsi Co-operative Housing Society Vice President of the Bombay Scout Association and Chairman of the Scout Committee Joint Hon. Secretary of the Bombay Olympic Association Publications Parsi Cricket Physical Culture The Team Spirit in Cricket Clubs Parsi Gymkhana Willingdon Sports Club Address Colaba Castle Colaba Bombay

PEARS, STEWART EDMUND, C.I.E. (1916) C.E.I. (1923) Resident in Mysore b 2 Nov 1875 m Wilfred M. Barton Educ Edinburgh University and Trinity Hall Cambridge Entered Indian Civil Service 1893 served in W.F. Province from 1901 onwards as Political Agent to Tochi Kurram, Khyber and Malakand Delegate to Anglo-Afghan Conference at Mamooria in 1920 Resident in Warisistan, 1922-24 O.C. A.G. in Baluchistan May to October 1921 Resident in Mysore (June 1920) Address Bangalore Southern India

PERIEN, MOST REV FERDINAND S.J., C.S.I. Catholic Archbishop of Calcutta, since 1924 b Antwerp, 22 Sept. 1870 Joined Society of Jesus, 1897, nominated Superior of Jesuit Mission in Bengal 1913 Consecrated Co-adjutor Bishop Dec 1921 Knight Commander Order of the Crown, Knight Commander Order of Leopold Address 32, Park Street Calcutta

PERINI, Rt. Rev PAUL, S.J., D.D. Bishop of Calicut, since June 1923, b Brandola, Italy, Jan 1807 Educ various Colleges of Society of Jesus in Austria, England and Belgium Joined Society of Jesus, 1833, Rector and Prin of St. Aloysius Coll. Mangalore, for six years Bishop of Mangalore, 1910-23. Address Bishop's House, Calicut

PETIT, SIA DINSHAW MANOOGJEE, 2nd Baronet & of late Francis Dinshaw Petit, 2nd son of 1st Baronet, b. 7 June 1873 & his grandfather, Sir Dinshaw Manojjee under special remainder, 1901, and changed his name from Jeejeebhoy Framji Petit to Dinshaw Manojjee Petit. Merchant and cotton millowner, at one time Member Bombay Legislative Council J.P. for Bombay, a Delegate of Parsee Ch. Matrimonial Court of Bombay, Pres. of Association for Amelioration of Poor Zoroastrians in Persia the Petit Charity Funds, Petit Institute, and Parsee Orphanage, and Chairman and Member of Managing Committees of the principal Parsee charitable institutions in Bombay President of the Bombay Presidency Association in Dubai, & of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy 3rd Bart. and has leave Address Petit Hall Malabar Hill Bombay

PETIT, JHANAOR BOMAJEE, Merchant and millowner b. 21 Aug. 1870 m. Miss Jiljee Sorabjee Patuck M.B.F. Kalsari Hind Silver medalist Advs. Port High and St. Xavier's Institutions J.P. merchant and mill-agent, Member Bombay Municipal Corporation, The Bombay Improvement Trust Board Bombay Development Board and the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners Association (President 1915-16 and 1923-29) Indian Merchants Chamber (President, 1919-20) and Indian Industrial Conference (President 1918) President Bombay Textile Association Vice President Bombay Presidency Assocn., Fellow of the University of Bombay, Trustee of Parsee Panchayat founder and Managing Director of *The Indian Daily Mail* Founder and President of the B.D. Petit Parsi General Hospital Indian Economic Society Bombay Progressive Association Landlords' Association and New High School for Girls (Bombay) Founder and Honorary Secretary of the Imperial Indian Citizenship Association and the Victoria Memorial School for the Blind Delegate of the Parsi Ch. Matrimonial Court (1902-1922), Member of Bombay Legislative Council (1921-1923 and 1927-30) Ex-Officio Committee (1921-24), Indigenous Industries Committee (1915-1917) Industries Disputes Committee (1921) and the University Bazaar Committee (1924) Address Mount Petit Pedder Road Cumballa Hill, Bombay

PETMAN, CHARLES EARLE BEVAN, C.I.E. b. 9 September 1866 m. 1920, Amy widow of John William Hensley, deceased, late Director of Indian Govt. Telegraphs and of Rev. Edwin Pope deceased formerly Vicar of Paddock Wood Kent and Rec. of Lat-ohington, Essex Educ. Privately and at Trinity College, Cambridge, Advocate Calcutta H. Court, 1892, and of Chief Court Punjab, 1893, Government Advocate, Punjab, 1909, Judge of the High Court, Lahore, from April to Aug. 1920 and from Oct. 1920

to Febr. 1921 Publications 'Report on Frauds and Bribery in the Commissioner's Department' F.W.D. Contract Manual' (Revised Edition) Address Lahore.

PETRIE, SIR DAVID, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E. Director, Int. Intelligence Bureau, Home Department at Government of India, 1921 & 1879 Educ. Aberdeen Univ. Ent. Ind. Police, 1900 Asst. Dir. C.I.D., Simla 1911-12; Spec. duty with Home Dept., June 1915, on special duty with H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught 1921, on staff of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-23, Senior Superintendent of Police, Lahore Member of the R. Comm. on Public Services, 1923 Address. C/o Lloyds Bank Bombay

PIYARE LAL, LALA M.L.A. God Medalist in Law (1880) Punjab Univ. Advocate, High Court, b. 21 Aug. 1858 Educ. Delhi Govt. College Lahore Govt. College President, Delhi Bar Association Had been a member of the All India Congress Committee before the introduction of Civil Disobedience, late Vice President Municipal Committee Delhi Hon. Secretary Board of Trustees, Hindu College, Delhi, Member Executive Council Delhi Univ. represented Delhi province in the Imperial War Conference at Delhi in 1918 Represented Delhi General Council in the Legislative Assembly from 1924-26 is connected with various Jain Institutions Address Chandel Chowk Delhi

POCHKHANAWALA, BORANI NUNRAWJI (Certificated Associate of the Institute of Bankers (London) 1910 Managing Director, Central Bank of India Ltd. b. 9 Aug. 1881 m. Bai Sakarbai Ruttonji Educ. New High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay Joined Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China and after serving the Bank for 7 years and the Bank of India for 5 years, founded the Central Bank of India Was appointed member of the Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee by the Govt. of India in 1921 Address Buena Vista, Marine Parade Worli Bombay

POSA MAUNG, L.S.O. (1911) K.S.M. 1898, b. Toungoo, 18 May 1862 Educ. St. Paul's R.C. H. Sch. Toungoo Asst. to Civil Officer Nyaung-U Column II, B. Expeditionary Field Force 1895-97 Burma Medal with clasps 1895-97 Senior Member, Burma Provincial Judicial ser. since 1911 Interpreter to Prince of Wales during visit to Burma Jan. 1906 Also to three Viceroys, 1898, 1901, 1908, Dist. Judge 1918 Off. Divisional Sessions Judge, 1918, Retired, June 1918, Asst. Dir. Recruiting, July to Dec 1918, Mentioned in despatches Address Thabe

PRADHAN, GOVIND BALWANT, B.A., LL.B., Finance Member, Government of Bombay, 1923 & May 1874 m. Ramabai, & of Mr. P.B. Pradhan, retired Assistant Engineer Educ. B.J. High School, Thana Elphinstone College, and Govt. Law School, Bombay Practised at Thana, became Public Prosecutor of Kolaba, 1907, resigned in 1920, for 20 years a member of Thana Municipality, for several years its Vice-

President and for 7 years its elected President, Member of District Local Board, Thana for 8 years, was one of the Directors of Thana District Co-operative Credit Bank President Thana District Boy Scouts Movement, is one of the Vice-Presidents of the Chandrasena Kayastha Prabhu community elected at the Indore Parliament, elected to the Bombay Council in 1924, re-elected in 1926 by the Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts Non-Mahomedan Rural Constituency, Minister of Forest and Excise, 1927-28. *Address* Balvart Bag, Thana and Beau Hen, Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

PRAMATHANATH, BANERJEE, Professor Dr MA (Cal) D Sc Econ (Lond), Barrister at Law, Minto Professor of Economics Calcutta University since 1920 & November 1879. *Educ* at Presidency College, Calcutta and London School of Economics England Professor in the Bishop's, City, Elton and Scottish Church Colleges, Calcutta 1905-1913, Member, Bengal Legis Council, 1923-30. Fellow Calcutta University, Member of the Syndicate Calcutta University Dean, Faculty of Arts, Calcutta University 1929-30, President Council of Post-Graduate Teaching in Arts, Calcutta University 1924-30, President, Bengal Economic Society since 1927. President, Indian Economic Conference, 1930. *Publications*: A Study of Indian Economics (First Edition, 1911), Public Administration in Ancient India, Fiscal Policy in India, A History of India Taxation, Indian Finance in the Days of the Company and Provincial Finance in India. *Address* 981 Bechu Chatterji Street, Calcutta

PRASAD, GAYEN, M.A. (Cantab.), D Sc., Huntingdon Professor of Higher Mathematics in the Calcutta University; Life President of the Benares Mathematical Society, President, Calcutta Mathematical Society, Patron, Allahabad University Math Assocn & 16th Nov 1876. *Educ.* Ballia, Allahabad, Cambridge, Göttingen. Member of Court, Council and Senate, Hindu Univ (1924), Member of Court, Executive and Academic Councils and Faculty of Science, Allahabad Univ, Fellow of Calcutta University and Vice President, Indian Association for Cultivation of Science. Member of the Senate and Ex-Councils of the University. *Publications*: Constitution of Matter and Analytical Theories of Heat (Berlin 1903) text-books on Differential Calculus and Integral Calculus (London, 1909 and 1910), Mathematical Research in the last twenty years (Berlin, 1922), "The place of partial differential equations in Mathematical Physics (Calcutta, 1924), "An Introduction to the theory of elliptic functions and higher transcendental (Calcutta, 1928), "Lectures on recent researches in the theory of Fourier series (Calcutta, 1928) and many other original papers published in the mathematical and scientific journals of England, Germany Italy and India during 1900-1924. *Address* 2, Bains Vay, 1, Ansonia, Corporation Street, Calcutta, and 27, Benares Cantt.

PRASAD, THE HON JUDGE SIR JWALA, B.A., LL.B., Judge Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916, Acting Chief Justice, 1921 &

25th March 1875, son of Babu Jagdan Sahay, late Deputy Collector and Magistrate of Bhuziara, Proprietor Bahua, Bihar and Orissa in 1888, & of Munshi Mangul Sen Singh, Zamindar and retired Dy Commisisoner. *Educ* Arrah Zillah School, Patna College, Calcutta University, Minto Central College and Allahabad University B.A. 1st Class Honours and Justice Medalist 1893, LL.B., and Justice Bursary 1895. Vakil Calcutta and Allahabad High Courts Government Pleader Sahabud, 1903 Vice-Chairman, Local Board, 1904 Member of Sahabud District Board, 1904 Secretary of Government Arrah Zillah School, 1908, Founded Purdah Girls School at Arrah, 1913, Inaugurated Zillah School Boarding House, 1913. Fellow of Patna University Member of Syndicate and of the Faculty of Law and Board of Examiners in Law President, League of Educationists President, All India Kayastha Conference 1915. *Address* Ral Sahab, 1914. Ral Bahadur, 1915. Ag Chief Justice in 1924. Ag Chief Justice, 1926. *Address*, Patna

PRENTICE, WILLIAM DAVID RUSSELL, M.A. (Edinburgh) LL.B. (1928), ICS, Member, Bengal Executive Council & 5th Sept 1877. *Educ* Florence Mary, youngest & of J F Kane (died). *Educ* George Watson's College Fettes, Edinburgh University and Christ Church Oxford. *Address* United Service Club, Calcutta

PRICE, EUGENE LESSWART, B.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law C.I.E., O.B.E., F.R.E.S., Merchant French Consular Agent at Karachi since 1914 & 8th July 1874. Member Legislative Assembly, 1920-21 and 1929 Municipal Council Karachi, since 1926, Member, Hides Cess Enquiry Committee, 1929-30. Vice-President, Karachi Municipal pality 1929. *Address* 'Newcroft', Ghisri Road, Karachi

PUDUKKOTTAI, HIS HIGHNESS SRI BRINAD ANNA DAS RAJA RAJAGOPALA TONDAMNARAHADUR, R.A.J. of & 1923. Installed 19th November 1928. Minor The State has an area of 1,179 sq miles and population of 426,813 and is ruled by the Tondaiman dynasty for centuries. Salute 11 guns. *Address* New Palace Pudukkottai

PUDUMJEE, NOWROOJI, 1st Class Sardar of Deccan, Bombay, O.L.B. & 1841. *Educ* Poona Coll under Sir Edwin Arnold, war mem of Bombay Leg Council, Promoter and Chairman of several Industrial and Banking Companies. *Address* Pudumjee House, Poona

PURSHOTAMDAS THAKURDAS, SR., ET. (1923), O.L.B. (1919), M.R.E. Non Official Member, Indian Legislative Assembly (Indian Commerce), Cotton Merchants & 30th May 1879. *Educ* Elph. Coll., Bombay President, East Indian Cotton Association Member Lord Inchcape's Retrenchment Committee, Governor, Imperial Bank of India. Member, Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance (1926). *Address* 11, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill

PURVES, ROBERT SAMUEL, O.L.E., F.W.D., retired, b. 1858. Educ. Thomson Coll., Bombay, B.A. Eng., 1897. Supdt. Eng., 1907. Ch. Eng. and Sec. to Govt. Punjab Irrigation Branch, 1913-14, retired, 1916 since residing at Hyderabad Eng. and Irrigation Export. Address: c/o Messrs King Russell & Co., Calcutta.

QUILON, BENEF OF THE BENEFIT. LT. REV. A. M.

RADHAKRISHNAN S. M.A., D. Litt. (Hon.) King George V, Professor of Philosophy and President, Post Graduate Council in Arts Calcutta University b. 5th Sept 1888 Educ. at the Madras Christian College. For some time Professor of Philosophy Presidency College, Madras, Mysore University, Upton Lecturer in Comparative Religion, Manchester College, Oxford Hilbert Lecturer 1929 1931 Publications: Philosophy of Rabindranath Tagore, The Reign of Religion in Contemporary Philosophy Indian Philosophy in the Library of Philosophy, Philosophy of the Upanishads, The Hindu View of Life, The Religion we need, Kalki or the Future of Civilization, article on Indian Philosophy in Encyclopedia Britannica, and several others on Philosophy and Religion in Mind, International Journal of Ethics Hilbert Journal etc. Address: University, Calcutta

RADHANPUR H. H. MAHOMED JALALUDDIN KHAN BARI, BAKADUR, NAWAB OF b. 1st April 1839, Pathan. Babi, Mahomedan Educ. Rajkumar Coll. Rajkot. S. brother, 1910 State has area of 1,150 sq miles, and population of 67,789 Salute 11 guns. Address: Radhanpur

RAFAEL, HENRY, THE REV. S.J., D.Sc. Mathematics (Madrid) 1905, Ph.D. (Madrid) 1918, D.D. (Barcelona) 1919 Professor of Mathematics, St. Xavier's College b. 10th November 1884—Barcelona (Spain) Educ. University of Barcelona 1900-1904, University of Madrid 1905 University of Madrid 1913 1918 University of Barcelona 1918-1919 Assistant Professor (Govt. Service) University of Barcelona 1908-09 Joined the Society of Jesus on 1st October 1908 Priest on 21st July 1913 Director of the Magnetic Department—Observatorio del Ebro (Tortosa) Spain, Professor of Mathematics and Mathematical Physics Instituto de Artes and Industrias, Madrid, 1921-23, Professor of Mathematics at St. Xavier's College (1924), Publications: Doctoral Thesis: Solution of generalization del Problema de Malinetti (1905), several articles in the Spanish Mathematical Review "Revista Matemática", several articles in the Catalan Mathematical Review "Anales del Instituto de Ciencias", several articles in the Spanish Scientific Review "Iberica" eight lectures on Theory of Relativity in the Spanish Review "Anales de la Sociedad de Ingenieros del Instituto de Madrid" Address: St. Xavier's College Bombay

RAFUDDIN AHMAD, MAULVI, Bar-at-Law, F.P. Minister of Education, Bombay Govt. Educ. Deccan College, Poona and University College, London. Was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple in 1892, practised for some years at the Privy Council. As a journalist was

a regular contributor to the *Nineteenth Century*, *The London Times*, and *The Pall Mall Gazette*, holder of Queen Victoria Diamond Jubilee Medal First elected to Bombay Council in 1902, appointed Minister, Bombay Government in June 1923 and re-appointed Minister, Bombay Government in Nov 1928 Address: The Chalet, Pawal Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

RAHIM, THE HON. SIA. ABDUL, M.A., ET (1919); b. September, 1867 m. Near Fattana Begum Educ. Government High School, Madras, Presidency College, Calcutta, Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1890, practised as Advocate, Calcutta, Presidency Magistrate, Calcutta, 1900-03 Follow Madras University, since 1908, Member of the R. Commission on Public Services, 1912-13, officiated as Chief Justice, Madras, July October 1916, and July to October 1919 Publications: Principles of Mahomedan Jurisprudence Address: College Bridge House, Egmore Madras

RAHIMTOOLA FARALIBRAHIM D.A. M.L.A., J.P. Merchant (Messrs Faralibrahim Ibrahim and Company Limited) b. 21st October 1890 m. Fatmahan d. of Alimohammed Farambhoy Educ. St. Xavier's High School and College Bombay Member Bombay Municipal Corporation 1919 Member Schools Committee 1920 Its Chairman in 1922 and again in 1926 Trustee Bombay Port Trust since 1921, Member Advisory Committee Bombay Development Department 1922 Member, Advisory Committee appointed to advise Government about liquor shops in Bombay City, 1922 was appointed by Government on Bombay Securities Committee, Member of the Committee of the Indian Merchants Chamber since 1921 Member of Executive Council of the Bombay Presidency Boy Scouts Association representative of the Corporation on B. & C. I. Railway Advisory Council Secretary, Imperial Indian Citizenship Association, Member Standing Finance Committee for Railways Railway Board Member, Haj Committee, 1929 Chairman, Reception Committee of the Bombay Presidency Muslim Educational Conference President Bombay Presidency Urdu Teachers Conference, Director, Sultanias Cotton Manufacturing Co. Director, Tata Construction Co., Ltd. represented Bombay Government on the Committee of Sir Harcourt Butler Technological Institute to advise Government of U. P., Secretary and Promoter of All India Muslim Conference, Secretary, All India Minorities Conference, Member, Central Broadcasting Advisory Council Director Tata Iron & Steel Co., Ltd. Bombay Electric Supply & Tramways Co., Ltd. Automobile Acceptance Corporation, Member Standing Committee for Haj and Kart India Association, London. Address: Jamali Building Hornby Road Fort, Bombay

RAHIMTOOLA, SIR ISRAHIM, C.S.I., C.L.E. President of the Legislative Assembly (1931) b. May 1862, was Mem. of Imp. Council; Mem., Bombay Leg. Council; Mem., Exec. Council, Bombay; President, Bombay Legislative Council (1928) Address: Padder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay

RAINY, Sir GEORGE, K.C.S.I. (1930), K.C.I.E. (1925), C.B.I. (1921) C.I.E. (1918), Member of the Victoria's Council, Commerce and Railways 1927 b 11th Feb. 1875 *Educ* Edinburgh Academy and Merton Coll. Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1899, Under Sec. to Govt of India Commerce and Industries Dept. 1904-09, Member, Imperial Delhi Committee, 1914-16 Dy Sec to Govt of India Finance Dept., 1916-19 Chief Secretary to the Government of Bihar and Orissa, 1919-20 President of the Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24 *Address* Invercarr, Simla

RAJKOT, THAKOR SAMER, SHRI DHARMENDRA SINGH LAKHARAJ b 4th March 1910 *Educ* Rajkumar College, Rajkot and Highgate Public School Middlesex. Being a minor is not yet invested with ruling powers and the State is under a Council of administration. The State has an area of 282 square miles and a population of 90,993. Salute of 9 guns. *Address* Rajkot

RAJPIPLA, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI SIR VIJAYSHIR, MAHARAJA OF K.C.S.I. (1925) b 1890 s to the gadi in 1915 *Educ* at Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot, and subsequently with the Imperial Cadet Corps in Dehra Dun. Enjoys permanent hereditary salute of 13 guns. *Address* Rajpipla, Rajpipla State.

RAJWADE, MAJOR-GENERAL BAO RAJA GANPATRAO RAGUNATH BAO RAJA MAHARAJA BANADUR SATKAT JUNG C.B.E. A.D.C. Army Member Gwalior Govt and Inspector General, Gwalior Army, Member of the Council of Regency, ranks as First Class Sardar in the Bombay Presidency and in L.P. of Agra and Oudh b Jan 1884 m Dr Miss Nagubai Jochi d of Sir Moropant Joshi of Nagpur. *Educ* Victoria College. *Address* Gwalior

RAMAIA A. M.A., Fellow of the Royal Economic Society (London), Vakil, Madras. Adviser Madras Ramnad Chamber of Commerce b 1894 *Educ* Madras Christian College, and Madras Law College. Gave evidence before the Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee (1924-25) and the Currency Commission (1925-26). Secretary, Madras District People's Association 1926 to 1927. Frequently contributes to the British press articles on Indian subjects especially economic and financial. *Publications* A National System of Taxation, Monetary Reform in India, Law of Sale of Goods in India. *Address* Lakshmi Vilasam North Vell Street, Madras 8 India

RAMANADAS PANTULU, THE HON V.B.A., B.L., Advocate Madras b Oct. 1878 *Educ* Madras Christian College. Member, Council of State since 1935. Leader of the Swarajist Party in the Council of State since 1926. President, Madras Central Urban Bank Ltd. (Provincial Co-operative Bank of Madras). President, Madras Provincial Co-operative Institute, Member of Senate and Academic Council of Madras University. Chairman, Telugu Board of Studies and Member, Board of Studies and Faculty of Law. President Indian Provincial Co-operative Banks Association

since 1923, Member, Central Banking Inquiry Committee, Member of the Governing Body of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, Member, All India Congress Committee and President Madras Andhra District Congress Committee. *Publications* Commentaries on the Madras Estate Land Act (Land Tenures). *Address* Farhatbagh, Mylapore Madras.

RAMAN, Sir CHANDRASEKHARA VENKATA, K.T. M.A. Hon Ph.D. (Prieberg) Hon I.L.D. (Glasgow) Hon D.Sc. (Calcutta) F.R.S. Awarded Nobel Prize for Physics (1930). Felt Prof of Physics Calcutta University b 7th November 1883 m Lokasundarammal. *Educ* A.V.N. College, Visagapatnam and Presidency College, Madras. Enrolled Officer Indian Finance Dept. 1907. Felt Prof Calcutta Univ. 1917. Hon. Secy Indian Association for the Advancement of Science 1919. British Association Lecturer (Toronto) 1924. Research Associate California Institute of Technology 1924. President, Indian Science Congress 1928. Mendenhall Medalist Rome, 1929. Fellow of the Institute of Physics. Asiatic Society of Bengal. *Publications* Experimental Investigations on Vibrations, Theory of Brown Instruments, Molecular Diffraction of Light, Music-Instruments, X-ray Studies and numerous scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Physics which is conducted by him and in British and American journals. *Address* 210, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta

RAMA RAYANINGAR, SRI P. RAJA SRI. RAJA OF PANGAL, M.A. K.C.I.E. b 1886 *Educ* Triplicane Hindu High School. Presidency College was nominated Fellow of the Madras University. Represented Zemindars of this Presidency in Imperial Legislative Council from 1912-1916. Was invited to Imperial War Conference in 1918. Again returned to Imperial Legislative Council in 1919, gave evidence before Joint Committee of Parliament on behalf of All-India Zemindars. Pleaded also the cause of non-Brahmins of Madras. Elected leader of the non-Brahmin Party, President, South Indian Liberal Federation presided over the All India non-Brahmin Congress Amarak, 1925. Chief Minister to Government in charge of Local Self Government, Madras, 1923-24. *Address* Tawker's Gardens, Royapettah Madras.

RAMASWAMI AIYAR, SRI CHETPAT P. K.C.I.E. (1925) B.A., B.L. C.I.E. (1923); Law Member Madras Executive Council b 12 Nov 1878 m Sitakakshmi, d of C.V. Sundaram Shastri and sister of Justice Kumaraswami Sastri. *Educ* Wesley College. Presidency College and Law College, Madras. English and Sanskrit University Prizeholder. Enrolled as Vakil, 1903 and as Advocate, 1923. For many years member of the Madras Corporation and Standing Committee. Fellow and Syndic of Madras University. Trustee of various educational institutions. Secretary to Congress, 1917-18, connected with the National Congress until 1918. Gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Reforms, 1919. Also before Weston and Southborough Committees. Member of Committee to draft

Regulations for Madras under the Reform Act Represented Madras Presidency at War Conference, Delhi Returned to Legislative Council by University of Madras, 1916, and by City of Madras, 1920 Advocate-General 1920-1923. Member, Executive Council 1925 Delivered the Convocation Address, University of Madras, 1924, Senior Member and Vice-President, Executive Council April 1925 Represented India at the League of Nations Assembly at Geneva as a substitute delegate in 1926 and as delegate in 1927 Resumed practice at the Bar March 1928 Appeared before the Butler Committee on behalf of some of the Indian States, April 1928, delivered the Sri Krishna Rajendra Jubilee Lecture to the Mysore University July 1928 Appeared in the Patila Enquiry for H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala along with Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru Elected to the Legislative Assembly by the Tanjore Trichinopoly Constituency 1930 *Publications* Various pamphlets and articles on Financial and Literary topics *Address* The Grove Cathedral Madras and De' l'ale Colacacound

RAMACHANDRA RAO DWANANATHADUR M. P. A. B.L. Kalar-I Hind Gold Medal Advocate High Court Member Legislative Assembly 1924-26 & Sept 1928 in M. V. Yamma Educ at Presidency College Madras Member Madras Legislative Council 1910-1923 Member of the deputation of the All India Moderates in 1919 and Member of the Lytton Committee on Indian Students, 1921 Member, Indian Sanatorium Committee 1924 President, Prohibition League 1926 President All India States Subjects' Conference 1927 President, Madras Co-operative Central Land Mortgage Bank 1930 *Publications* Development of Indian Polity *Address* Pillor Madras Presidency

RAMESAM THEKON Mr Justice VERA D. A., D.L., Judge, High Court, Madras. & 27 July 1876 in Lakshminarasamma Educ Hindu Coll., Visagapatam Presidency Coll. Madras and Law Coll., Madras Practised as High Court Vakil at Visagapatam from 1896 to 1900 at Madras 1900-1920, Govt Pleader 1916-20 appointed Judge 1920 *Address* Gopal Vihar Mysore, Madras

RAMPAL, RAJA see KUTLER

RAMPAL R. HIS HIGHNESS ALLAH FARZAND-I DILPIZIR I DAULAT I INGILISHIA MUKHLES UT-DIAULAN KASIR UL-MELE ANIR UL-UMRA NAWAB SAYED MOHAMMAD RAZA ALI KHAN BAKADUR MILTAIU JENO Born 17th Nov 1903 Succeeded 20th June 1930 State has area of 892 square miles and population 453,708 Permanent Salute 15 Guns *Address* Rampur State, U.P.

RANGACHARIAR DEWAN BHADUR TIRUVEN KATA, B. A. B.L., O.L.E. (1925), M.L.A. since 1920 Vakil, High Court, Madras & 1963 M. P. Ponnammal, & of S Rajagopala Aiyangar of Srirangam Educ S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, Law College, Madras School master for 3 years; enrolled as Vakil, High Court, Madras, 1921, Professor, Law Coll., 1896-1900; Member, Madras Corps since 1906 Member, Madras Legis Council, 1916-1919, Member, Indian Bar Committee, Mercantile Marine Committee Escher Committee,

Flooded By President, Leg Assembly Member Indian Colonies Committee on deputation at London with the Colonial Officer; President Tri-graph Committee, 1921, Member Frontier Committee; Chairman Madras Publicity Board Represented India at the opening by R. R. H. the Duke of York of the Federal Parliament at Canberra, Australia, 1927 Chairman Indian Cinematograph Committee 1928 Vice-Chairman, Madras Bar Council Publications A book on Villian Paachayala *Address* Elltharson House Vepery, Madras

RANGANATHAN AROOT B.A., B.L. Minister for Development, Madras & 28 June 1879 Educ Christian and Law College, Madras Entered Government Service in 1901 resigned Deputy Collectorship in 1915 entered Legislative Council in 1920 for Bellary District, re-elected in 1923 and 1928 Went to England as a member of the National Convention Deputation in 1924 Minister for Development Madras December 1925 to March 1928, Hon Secretary, Young Men's Indian Association Madras from 1916, Hon Organising Secretary and Treasurer Reconstruction League 1928 *Publications* Editor 'Praja Bandhu' a Telugu Magazine devoted to the education of the Harijans Author of 'Indian Village' as it is. *Address* Shant-Kunj Adyar Madras 4

RANGASWAMI IYENGAR, A. R.A. (1897), B.L. (1901) Editor The Hindu Madras & 187 Educ Coimbatore High School and the Presidency Coll., Madras Clerk in the Chief Secretariat practised as a pleader in Tanjore joined The Hindu then bought and took up the editorship of The Swadesamiran and from 1928 has been Editor of The Hindu Elected to the second and third Legis Assembly for Tanjore All India Swatantra Party, 1925-27 General Secretary of the Congress 1926-27 *Publications* The Indian Constitution *Address* 4, Mowbrays Road, Mysore Madras

RANGASWAMY AYYANGAR, K. V. Land holder & 1836 Member of the old Imperial Legislative Council from 1916-1920, elected by the Zamindars of Madras Presidency elected representative of the Legislative Assembly from 1928 again by the Madras Landlords and a Congressman of the Nationalist Party Connected with the founding and management of National College, Trichinopoly President of the Chittur Conference Chairman of the Madras Prov Confs and Trichinopoly Dist Confs Member of the Council of State from 1920-25 President Madras Provincial Conference, 1925 *Address* Vandana Vilas Srirangam Madras Presidency

RAYGOON, BISHOP OF, since 1910 Dr REV WOLSTON CRAWFORD STUART F.F.F.F., D.D. & 1911 A mile Kathleen & of late Herbert Hardy of Dauchurst, Sussex, three Educ Clifton Coll., Emmanuel Coll., Cam Ordained 1894 Curate of Bishopwearmouth, Sunderland, 1894-98 Curate of St Agnes, Bristol in charge of Clifton College Mission, 1898-1900, Vicar of St Agnes, Bristol, 1900-1904 S.P.G. Missionary, Mandalay, 1904-19 *Address* Bishopscourt, Rangoon.

RAJTESHINIJI see Kawanagar.

RANKIN, THE HON CHIEF JUSTICE SIR GEORGE CLARKE, K.T. (1858), High Court, Calcutta. b 12th August 1877 m Alice Maud Amy Bayly Esq., Trinity College, Cambridge Barister (Lincoln's Inn) 1894, Northern Circuit R. Garrison Artillery 1916 18 Address 9, Camo Street, Calcutta.

RAO, RAO SARIN S M RAJA RAM, Editor, The Wednesday Review b 24th December 1878 Educ. S. P. G. and St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly Started *The Wednesday Review* in 1905 and *The Savindar and Progress* (monthly) incorporated into the *Federalist and Savindar India* in 1919 Publication Life of Sir Subramania Aiyar K.C.I.E. for sometime Ay Chief Justice of Madras. Address Trichinopoly and 16, Harrington Road, Chetpet, Madras

RAO VINAYAK GANPAT, B.A. (Bom.), 1905 B.A., LL.B. (Cambr.), 1913, called to the Bar 1914 Professor of French at the Elphinstone College, Bombay b 24 September 1888 m Miss B. E. Kothare, d. of Mr R. N. Kothare Solicitor Educ., Elphinstone Middle School, Elphinstone High School, Elphinstone College St. John's College Cambridge, Grenoble University (France) Hon Professor of French at the Elphinstone College, 1914-1917 Hon Professor of French at the Wilson College, 1914 1917 1921 1928 Officer d'Academie Prof of Law at the Government Law College, Bombay, 1923-1924 (June), Asst Law Reporter, India Law Reports, Bombay Series for some time joined the Educational Service Prof of French at the Elphinstone College from June 1924 Justice of Peace 1937 Nominated member of the Bombay Corporation Member of the Schools Committee Bombay Municipality, District Commissioner Municipal Boy Scouts Association, District Commissioner Municipal Boy Scouts Association, Honorary Second Lt in the University Training Corps Address 347, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay (2)

RATILAM COL H H SIR SAJAN SINGHI K.B.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H.R.H. The Prince of Wales, Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of Bikaner b 15th Jan 1890 s father (Sir Ranjit Singhji K.C.I.E.) 1893, m 1902, d. of H. H. Maharaja of Kotah descended from younger branch of Jodhpur family and maintained moral supremacy over Rajput Chiefs in Malwa, served European War (France) from April 1915 to May 1918, mentioned in despatches presented with Croix d'officier of the legion d'Honneur Served Afghan War, 1919 Member of Managing Committee, Mayo College, Ameer, Mem., Managing Committee, Dely College, Indore, Vice-President, Central India Rajputa Bha Marial Sabha Rajputa 15 guns Address Ranjit Bihla Palace, Bikaner

RUTNAGUR, SOMNATH MURKHERJI J.P. M.B.A. (Lond.) Journalist and Technical Adviser b 21 January 1885, m 7th Jan. 1903 Dhanubai M. Banaji Educ., Fort High School, Bombay and received practical

training as mill manager in local cotton mills Founder and Editor of the *Indian Textile Journal* since 1880 Publications "Electricity in India" (1912) Bombay Industries The Cotton Mills (1927) with an Introduction by H. K. Sir Leslie Wilson, Governor of Bombay Men and Women of India (1908), published under the patronage of Their Excellencies the Viceroy of India and the Governors of Bombay and Madras Joint Editor, *Indian Municipal Journal and Sanitary Record* (1900 to 1908) Member of the first Managing Committee of the Bombay Sanitary Association inaugurated by H. H. The Governor in 1903 Nominated on the Board of Bandra Municipality by Government for 1917-1920 and Chairman of the War Publicity Committee for the Bandra Mahal in 1918 Author of several patented inventions and Director of the Patents Department of M. O. Rutnagar & Co since 1890 Address Hill Road, Bandra, Bombay

RAWLINSON HUGH GEORGE Principal, Deccan College, Poona Fellow, Bombay University b 12th May 1880 m 1910 to Rose only d. of Lt-Col J. F. Fitzpatrick, I.M.S. Educ. Market Bosworth Grammar Sch and Emmanuel Coll Cambridge (Exhibitioner and Scholar B.A. 1st Class Classical Tripos 1902 M.A., 1903) Lecturer in English and Classics, Royal College, Colombo, 1903-08, Hare University Prize, 1902 Entered I.E.S. as Professor of English Literature Deccan Coll, Poona, 1908 Ag Principal Gujarat Coll Ahmedabad, 1914 ditto, Deccan College 1915 Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, 1916 Principal Karnatak Coll Dharwar 1917-23 Publications *Bactria, the History of a Forgotten Empire* *Indian Historical Studies*; *Shilpajit*, the Maratha Intercourse between India and the West *The Beginnings of British India*, an Account of the Old English Factory at Surat New Edition of Forbes' *Ras Mala* and *Ovington's Voyage to Surat* *History of Napier's Rules*, Contributor to Vols II and IV, Cambridge History of India Address Deccan College, Poona

RAY, PARTHASW CHANDRA, Editor of The Indian World (Calcutta) b 1870, m 1898 Educ., Mymensingh Villa School and Presidency College, Calcutta Founder of the National Liberal League (the first Indian liberal organisation), Calcutta, Secretary, 21st and 26th Sessions of the Indian National Congress, held in Calcutta in 1906 and 1911 Secretary, Bengal Social Reform Association from 1906 to 1914 Member of the Liberal Deputation to England, 1919, and the Bengal Landholders' Delegation to England in 1920 Donor of a library (in the name of the late Mr Gokhale) to the Indian Association of Calcutta (1919), Editor-in-Chief of the *Samakal* from January 1921 to June 1924 joined the Swaraj Party in April 1925 Publications "Poverty Problem in India," "Indian Famine," "Our Demand for Self-Government," "A Scheme of Indian Constitutional Reform," "A Catechism on Indian Politics" and the "Life and Times of O. R. D." (Published by the Oxford

University Press) Member National Liberal Club, London, S W Address 8, Elfin Road Ballynagar Calcutta

RAY, SIR PROFULLA CHANDRA, Kt C.I.E., D.Sc (Edin.), Ph.D. (Cal.), Prof of Chemistry, Univ Coll of Sc., Calcutta, Bengal, 1861 Educ. Calcutta, Edinburgh Univ Graduated at Edinburgh D.Sc., Hon. Ph.D., Calcutta Univ., 1908 Hon D.Sc., Durham Univ., 1912 President, National Council of Education Indian Chemical Society, Founder and Director, Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works Ltd Address College of Science Calcutta

READYMONEY, SIR JENANIE COWANIE JENANIE as JENANIE

REED, SIR STANLEY Kt K.B.M., J.L.D (Glasgow), Editor *The Times of India* Bombay, 1907 1823, 6 Bristol, 1872 1891, Lillian, d of John Humphrey of Bombay Joined staff, *Times of India*, 1897 Sp Correspondent, *Times of India* and *Daily Chronicle* through famine districts of India 1900, tour of Prince and Princess of Wales in India, 1905-06 Amir's visit to India, 1907 and Persian Gulf, 1907, Jt. Hon Sec Bombay Press, King Edward and Lord Hardinge Memorials, Es Lt-Col Commr Bombay L. E. Represented Western India at Imp. Press Conf., 1909 Address *The Times of India* Salisbury Square House, Fleet Street London E C

REID, COLONEL CARTWRIGHT C.B. (June 1917) M. Inst C.E. Engineer in Chief Vizagapatam Harbour & 7 Nov, 1864 m Julia, only d of late Henry Miller Educ Kirkby Lonsdale Grammar School Articled to Thomas Reid, O E Wakefield and Normanton Entered Admiralty Service (1888) as Asst Civil Engineer served at Pembroke, Halifax, Raguinall and Chatham, was Superintending Civil Engineer, Malak, Chatham and Remyth and Deputy Civil Engineer-in-Chief Admiralty Lt-Col Royal Marines for reconstruction of Belgian Ports. Acted as a Consultant to Calcutta Port Trust in connection with proposed King George's Dock Scheme and Beira Port re South-of-Arab Leased by Admiralty (1921) for construction of Vizagapatam Harbour Address Vizagapatam Harbour, Vizagapatam

REILLY HENRY D'ARCY CORNEILLUS, Judge of the Madras High Court, & 15th January 1876 m to Margaret Florence Wilkinson (1908) Educ Merchant Taylors School and Corpus Christi College, Oxford Indian Civil Service (Madras), arrived November 1899 Registrar of the High Court, 1910 1913 District and Sessions Judge 1916 Address The Albany, College Road, Madras, S W

REMEDIOS MONSIEUR JAMES DOS, B.A. J.P. (Oct 1918), Chaplain, St Teresa's Chapel and Principal, St Teresa's High School, since 1904 & 6th August 1975 Educ at St Xavier's College and at the Papal Seminary, Kandy, Ceylon. Address St Teresa's Chapel, Orfegum, Bombay

RESHIMWALL, KUMAVARAO GOVIND, B.A. (Allahabad) Revenue Minister, Bihar State, & April 1879 Educ St. Xavier's High School Bombay and Muz Central College, Allahabad, Revenue Training in Central Provinces worked in Settlement Department as Assistant Settlement Officer in 1907 08 then as Inspecting Settlement Officer in 1910 then in Revenue Department as Amin (Tehsildar) Sub (Collector) Director Land Records then as Settlement Officer Address Nandlalpura Indore City

REYNOLDS, LEONARD WILLIAM, B.A. (Oxon), C.S.I. (1828) C.I.E. (1911), M.C. (1916) President of Council of Regency Jajpur State & 23 Feb 1874 m Blanche Mortlock Las, 1919 Educ Bradford Coll Exeter Coll, Oxford ICS 1898 Asst. Collector Allahabad Div U.P. 1902 Asst to the A.G.G. in Central India 1902-07, Asst Secretary Foreign Department, Government of India, 1908 Dy Secretary Government of India, Foreign Department, 1911 Commissioner, Ajmer Merwara, 1916 Resident, Western States of Rajputana, 1916 President, Council of Regency Jajpur State Rajputana, 1924-27 Agent to the Governor-General Rajputana, Chief Commissioner Ajmer Merwara, 1927 Address The Residency, Mount Abu

RICE STANLEY Private Secretary to H H the Maharaja Gaskwar of Baroda & 1869 m Veronica Crossman Educ Winchester and New College Oxford I.C.S. (Madras) 1890 retired 1918 Publications: *The Challenge of Asia* (Murray) Tales from the Mahabharata in English verse (Belwyn and Boush) numerous articles in the Nineteenth Century Fortnightly Quarterly Criterion, Asiatic Review, etc Address Baroda

RIVETT-CARNAK HERBERT GORDON British Trade Agent, Gyantse, Tibet, & 1892, 3rd son of John Thurlow Rivett-Carnac retired D.I.G. of Police m June 1925, Cecilia, w d of Lt Colonel R. S Pottinger Educ Bradford Coll (Berks) and R.M.C. Entered Army 1911 Served during War on General Staff in Mesopotamia and as Asst Political Officer Amara Foreign and Asst Political Department December 1923 Assistant Resident, Kolhapur Assistant to A.G.G. Madras States Agency November 1927 is Major, Indian Army, and British Trade Agent Tibet and Assistant Political Officer, Shikim Address Gyantse and Yatsing, Chumbi Valley

RIVETT-CARNAK JOHN THURLOW retired Dy Insp. General of Police, Eastern Bengal and Assam 2nd s of late Charles Forbes Rivett-Carnac, Bengal Civil Service, and gr s. of Sir James Rivett-Carnac, Bart., Governor of Bombay 1833-41 & 1866 m 1837, Edith Emily, d of late H. H. Brownlow and has four sons and one daughter. Entered Indian Police, 1877, retired 1911, served in Burma campaign 1885-7 (medals), and in Chin Lushai expedition, 1899-90 (medals). Address Shillong, Assam.

BYINGTON, Rev OSMUND STANSFELD
Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1912); Mission
Priest in Diocese of Bombay, Hon Canon of
St. Thomas' Cathedral, Bombay & London
1883. Educ. Rugby, Scholastic Examination,
London, Oundle College Priest,
1876 Publications Commentaries on the
Psalms, St. Luke and St. John, a Manual
of Theology Meditations on the Gospel of St
Mark (all in Marathi) Address Betgeri
Gadag, Dharwar District, Bombay

ROBINSON, Sir SYDNEY MADDOCK, KT Chief
Justice, High Court, Burma (1922) & 3 Dec
1885 Educ. Hereford Cath Sch., Brasse-
noss Coll., Oxford Called to Bar, Middle
Temple, 1888, Govt. Adv and Leg Coun-
sel to Punjab, Govt. Puisne Judge, Ch Court
of L. Burma, 1908-1920 Chief Judge, 1920-
1922 Address 1, Leeds Road Rangoon

RODGER, Sir ALEXANDER, KT (1930) O B E
(1919) Inspector General of Forests to the
Government of India & 11 Aug 1875
Education Blairlogie and Cooper Hill I F S
in Burma and India Joined in Burma 1898,
served under Munitions Board, 1916-1920 in
charge of Burma Exhibit at Wembley
1922 24 Inspector General of Forests 1926
Publications Hand book of Forest Products
of Burma, List of Trees Shrubs etc in
Burma many other forest pamphlets and
papers Address Dobru Dun U F

ROGERS PHILIP GRAHAM, B A (Oxon), C I E
(1924), I O S Offg Director-General since 1928
& April 3 1877 m. Eliza Scott O Connor
Educ. Christ's Hospital Kable College,
Oxford Joined Bengal Civil Service,
December 1901 and served as Assistant,
Joint and District Magistrate and Collector
Personal Assistant to Ch Commissioner of
Assam 1904 Private Secretary to Lieut
Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam, 1905
joined P.W.D. Office 1909 Postmaster-General
Bombay 1922 27 Dy Director-General
1927 Offg Director General 1928 Address
Simla

ROTHERA, Sir PERRY KT M Inst C E,
M I C E (India) O B E (Military Division)
and mentioned in despatches (1918) Agent
South Indian Railway & 9th February
1877 m. Miss L S Legrice Educ. Rugby
School Served articles with the late Mr Ed
Perry C.E., on extension of Great Central
Railway to London Joined South Indian
Railway, 1898 Publications Awarded
Telford and Indian Premier by Institute of
Civil Engineers 1912 for paper on Erection of
Girders for large span bridges Address
Trichinopoly, S India

ROUSE Sir ALEXANDER MACDONALD, KT 1930
C.I.E., F.R.S.E., Chief Engineer, Delhi, & 14 Sep
1878 m. Jean Lou Jameson, March 1912
two s. Educ. St Paul's Sch., E.I.E.O
Cooper's Hill Address Delhi,

**ROW DEWAN SHAHJAHAN CONJEEVARAM KRI-
SHNASWAMY Vakil, High Court, Madras &**
Aug. 12 1867 Educ. Presy Coll., Madras
m. a gr. d. of the late Raja Sir T
Madhava Row, K C S I, Vakil, Madras
High Court, 1889 Joined Provincial Judicial
Service 1894, Rao Bahadur in 1911, gave
evidence before the Public Services Com-
mission, 1913 M.L.A. (nominated), acted
as Judge High Court, Madras, 1921, retired
as District Judge 1932, rejoined the Bar,
made Dewan Bahadur, 1923, appeared
in the High Court at Madras in 1923 in the
Succession Case relating to the Tanjore
Palace Estate for the Senior Prince of
Tanjore Address Muthu Bang, St. George's
Cathedral Road, Madras

ROW, DIWAN BAK-DUR RAGHUNATHA ROW
RAMACHANDRA, C S I, & 27 September
1871 Educ. Trivandrum and Presidency
College Madras, Statutory Civil Service
1890-92, transferred to Provincial
Service, Collector, Registrar Co-op Credit
Societies, Secretary to Govt of Madras
Collector of Madras Address Madras

ROY, Rt Rev AUGUSTINE, Bishop of Columbo-
more since 1904 & France, 1883. Address
Catholic Cathedral, Colombo

ROY, Sir GANENDRA PRASAD, KT (1926),
Member of the Institute of Electrical Engi-
neers & 6 Feb 1372 m. Mertha,
Goodvee Chuckerbutty Educ. Cooper's
Hill Appointed Assistant Superintendent
of Telegraphs on 1st Oct 1894 Superinten-
dent of Telegraphs on 4th Nov 1907 Direc-
tor of Telegraphs on 1st Oct 1916 and Post-
master-General Bengal and Assam, on 1st Feb
1920 was Postmaster-General, Burma, from
14th Dec. 1921 to 13th April 1922 Post-
master-General, Bengal and Assam, from
1st December 1922 to 25th April 1923
Dy Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, from 24th Dec
1923 to 29th Feb 1924 Ch Engineer Tele-
graphs from 1st March 1924 to 7th Aug 1926
Director General of Posts and Telegraphs
1926-27 Address Simla.

ROY, SURENDRA NATH, SASTRA VACHASPATHI
B A., B.L. (Calcutta Univ.), Vakil, High
Court, Calcutta, and Landholder & April
1892 Educ. St. Xavier's College, Hindu
School and Presidency College, Calcutta
Enrolled as Vakil of the High Court, 1883
enrolled Advocate, 1924, elected Vice-Chair-
man of the Garden Reach Municipality (first
Municipality in Bengal) in 1907, has
been elected Chairman, South Suburban
Municipality since 1900, Commissioner, Cal-
cutta Corporation, from 1896-1900, Member
Dist. Board of 24 Parganas from 1916
1922 elected Member, Bengal Legis
Council in January 1913 and elected to Coun-
cil at subsequent elections, elected by the
Members of the Bengal Legis Council as
President of High Prices Committee, elected
first Deputy President of the Reformed
Council in Feb. 1921, acted as Presid. from
May 1921 to Nov 1923, introduced the
Bengal Primary Education Bill in the
Bengal Legis. Council and got it passed by
the Council in 1919, elected Member of Bengal

Legislative Council from 1913-1929, was first member of Sanitary Board Bengal for nine years was elected representative of the Bengal Legislative Council to the Indian Institute of Science nominated by Bengal Government to the High Court. Retrenchment Committee presided over by Sir Alex. and Muddiman served as Deputy President Bengal Legislative Council. Is a secretary of Bengal Landholders Association member of the Indian Association was Chairman of the All Bengal Ministerial Officers Conference held at Burdwan. *Publications* (1) A History of the Native States of India. A Local Self Government in Bengal. Financial Condition of Bengal. Suggestions for the solution of the present Economic problem etc. *Address* Behala, Calcutta.

RUNCHOREIAL SIR CHINTOHAI MADHON LAL, Second Baronet, c. 1913 b 18 April 1906 S of 1st Baronet and Sulochana, d of Chuni Lal Khushairam father, 1916 m 30th November 1921 with Tasmami, d of Javerlal Bulakhiram Mehta of Ahmedabad (Father was first member of Hindu community to receive a Baronetcy) *Res* Son 1 dayam b 2, July 1929 *Address* Shantikunj Shalimar Ahmedabad

RUSHBROOK WILLIAMS, LAURENCE FREDERICK M.A. B Litt (Oxon), 1920, O.B.E. 1929 C.B.E. (1929) Foreign Member of India Cabinet b 10 July 1891 m 1923, *Wife* d of Frederick Chance one of Educ. University College, Oxford, Private Study in Paris Venice Rome Lectures at Trinity College Oxford, 1921 travelled Canada and U.S.A. 1913 Fellow of All Souls 1914 attaché General Staff, Army Headquarters India 1918 Professor of Modern Indian History Alibabad University, 1915-1919 on special duty with the Government of India, 1918-1921 in India, England and America Official Historian of the Indian tour of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales 1921-22 Secretary to the Indian Delegation at the Imperial Conference, 1923 Director of Public Information, Government of India, to end of 1925 Political Secretary to Representative of the Indian Princes at the League of Nations 1925 and Substitution Delegate to the Assembly *Publications* History of the Abbey of St Albans, Four Lectures on the Handling of Historical Material, Students Supplement to the *Asiatic Researcher*, A Sixteenth Century Empire Builder India under Company and Crown India in 1917-18 India in 1919 India in 1920 India in 1921-22 India in 1922-23 23-24 1924-25, General Editor, 'India of Today' and India's Parliament, Volumes 1, 2, 3, seq *Address* Patna.

SABNIS, RAO BHANUPUR SIR RAGHUNATHRAO V. Kt (1925) B.A., C.I.E b 1 April 1857 Educ. Bombay H.S., Kolhapur, Elphinstone Coll., Bombay Est. Educ. Dep. held offices of Huzur Chitral and Ch. Rev. Officer, Kolhapur, Diwan Kolhapur State, 1898-1905, retired (1905) Fellow of Royal Soc. of Arts, Asiatic Soc., Bombay Ex. President of the Itikha Panchayat (District Local

Board) Kolhapur (Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Bank of Kolhapur Ltd.) *Address* Shalapur Kolhapur

SADIQ HASAN, S. B.A. Bar-at-Law, Member Legis Assembly, President of Messrs. K. B. Shakkh Guitan House & Co., Carpet Manufacturers b 1898 Educ. Amritsar, Lahore and London. President Anjuman Islamia Amritsar President Lumada (Lah. Amritsar) taken active interest in Modern education and political movements President Punjab and N.W.F. Province Post Office and R.M.S. Association 1924-25, President over All India Muslim League Conference 1924 Chairman Board of Directors, Muslim Bank Lahor *Address* Amritsar

SAGAR, LAJA MOTI HAI BHANUDAR, Sir Kt 1930 B.A., LL.B. B.A. Bahadur (1922) Advocate High Court of Judicature at Lahore b 23 Nov 1878 Educ. Forman Christian College Lahore Passed LL.B. in 1898 Began to practice as a pleader at Delhi in 1897 where he soon acquired a lucrative practice Shifted to Lahore in the Chief Court in 1916, officiated as a Judge of the High Court in 1921 for 4 months was appointed an additional Judge of the High Court in 1922 made an Advocate in August 1921, resigned Judgeship and reverted to the Bar in October 1924 was elected 1st Ind. High Court Bar Association in 1921 and again from 1927-1930 appointed Honorary Vice-Chancellor of the Delhi University in May 1926 has been a fellow of the Punjab University for several years having been elected by the registered graduates. Was granted Honorary degree of LL.D. by the Delhi University in 1929 was appointed Vice-Chancellor Delhi Univ. for a further period of two years in May 1928 Again appointed as Vice-Chancellor for a further period of 2 years in May 1930 *Address* Advocate Lahore

SAGHADA, Rt. Rev. ENNAHUEL, Vicar Apostolic of Eastern Burma and Titular Bishop of Triss since 1909 b Lodi 1880 *Address* Toungoo, Burma

SAYIYD ABDUR RAHMAN, KHAN BHANUDAR, M.L.O., Retired Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar) b 1864 Educ. St. Francis de Sales s., Nagpur Supdt., Commissioner's Office, Hoshangabad Extra Asst., Commissioner, Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar), 1918-1921, Dy. Commissioner, Yeola, Ber. Asst. to Commissioner of Berar in C.F. Commission Official Recorder, Berar President of many Municipalities and District Boards, Berar Mahomedan representative in C.F. Council, *Address* Akola

SATLANA, HIS HIGHNESS RAJA SANID BHARAT BHAKA NIDHI DUGEN SINGH BHANUDAR b 18 March 1891 Succeeded the Gadi, 15 July 1918 m first the d of H.H. the Maharawat of Parbargarh and after her death to the d. of the Bahad of Mala in Udaipur Educ. Mayo College, Ameer, Saluted 11 guns *Address* Saliana, C.I.

SAKALATVALA, NOWROJI BAPUJI, C.I.E. (1924) J.P., Director, Tata Sons, Ltd. A. 10 Sept 1874, m. Goolbal, d. of Mr Hormasji B. Baidvala. Educ. at St. Xavier's College, Chairman Bombay Millowners' Association, 1916, Employers' Delegate from India to the International Labour Conference, Geneva 1921, Member, Legislative Assembly; representing Bombay Millowners' Association, 1922. Address Bombay House, Fort, Bombay.

SAKALATVALA, SORABJI DORABJI, B.A. Director Tata Sons Ltd., 6, March 1879, m. Meherbai d. of late Major Divacha, I.M.S., Educ. at St. Xavier's College, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association 1924. Vice President Indian Central Cotton Committee, Member Advisory Board of the Council of Agricultural Research. Address Bombay House, Fort, Bombay.

ST JOHN, Lt.-Colonel Sir Henry Beauchamp K.C.I.E., C.B.E. Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner Baluchistan. b 26 Aug 1874. m. Olive d. of Colonel C. Herbert, C.S.I. 1907. Educ. Sandhurst. Ent. Army, 1898. Address Quetta.

SAMALDAS, LALUBHAI, see LALUBHAI

SAMUILLAH KHAN, M., B.A. LL.B. High Court Pleader. Vice President Government Free Employees' Union (1929-1930) b 1889. m. Miss Drumnissa A. Jaihl. Educ. M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Worked on many war committees during the war. Secy. Prov. Khilafat Committee O.P. 1920-24. Secy. Anjuman High School Nagpur (1923). Vice-President Nagpur Municipal Committee 1921-23, one of the secretaries of the Silver Wedding Fund at its start, was Member, All India Congress Committee and the Central Khilafat Committee from 1921-23 non-off-operated from practice from 1921-24. a member of Swami party Member Legislative Assembly 1924-26. Whip of the Swami Party in the Legislative Assembly, 1925 and a Member of the Executive Committee of the Anjuman High School Institute since 1915. Hon. Secretary, District Bar Association Nagpur since 1927. President, Railway Mail Service Association (Branch) Nagpur (1926). Address Sadar Bazar, Nagpur C.P.

SAMSI, HURESH AZHUR, C.I.E. (1919) Director General, Posts and Telegraphs, April 1927 b 1 May 1875. m. Millicent Helen Langford. Educ. St. Paul's School and Peterhouse, Cambridge, B.A., (1897). Entered I.C.S., 1896. Punjab Commission, 1899-1907, P.M.G., 1907. Director of Postal Services, M.W.F., 1917-18. Temp. Lt.-Col., R.E., Aug. 1917-May 1918. Three times mentioned in despatches. Postmaster-General, Bombay Circle, 1920-1922, Off. D.G. 1922-23, 1924 and 1925. Director-General April 1927. Delegate to the Brussels Telegraph Conference, 1928. Delegate to Postal Congress of London, 1929. Postmaster-General Post Office of India in the Great War. Address Loyds Bank, India.

SAMTHAR, H. H. MAHARAJA Sir Dux Singh Dux, MAHARAJA OF KULLE. b 8 Nov 1865, S. 1896. Address Samthar, Bawal Khand.

SANJANA SHANKAR-UL-ULKHA DASTUR, D.D., D.A., Ph.D. J.P., Senior Head Priest of the Parsi Bombay b 18 Nov 1857. m. Shrinabai Baskonji B. Baskonji. Educ. Elphinstone High School, Proprietary College School, and Elphinstone College Fellow and Examiner in Avesta and Pahlavi University of Bombay, since 1887 awarded Sir Jamsetji Fellowship, 1885, and Sir Jamsetji Gold Medal 1889. Principal Sir Jamsetji Zarthosti Madressa since 1899, Editor of Pahlavi Vandidad Niranistan and Maimoi-Kherad. Editor and Translator of Pahlavi Karmame Ardashir, and Pahlavi Dinkard of which Vol. 19 was published very recently. Has translated into English German works and papers by Geiger, Speiser and Wiedemann (Clarendon Press, Oxford). Has preached a number of religious sermons and published several English and Gujarati essays and papers on Parsi history and religion, and on "The Alleged Practice of Consanguineous Marriages in Ancient Iran, The Position of Zoroastrian Woman in Remote Antiquity, and on Dastur Tansar's letters to the Court of Tabaristan. Early in 1925 European and Indian Scholars issued a Commemorative Volume in honour of the Dastur, entitled Indo-Iranian Studies. In June 1927 on the occasion of the Fourth Centenary Jubilee the Doctorate of Philosophy was conferred on the Dastur by the University of Marburg (Germany). Address Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

SANKARANARAYANA ATTAR, S., M.A., B.L., Advocate, Tinnevely. b 14 May 1890. Educ. Presidency Coll., Madras, Law College Madras and Trivandrum. Graduated in Arts 1910, and in Law 1923. m. Rukmanjini Ammal of Kodangudi, Tanj. Dist. (1928). Zamindar of Nayinagararam, Tinnevely District. Proprietor of Kayatar Estate, Tinnevely Dist. Winner of S.P.G.A. Gold Medal 1920. Special Lecturer Elementary Teachers' Conf., at Tinnevely, 1923. Chairman of the Reception Committee, first Tinnevely Postmen's Conf., 1924. Witness, Tamil University Committee 1927. Author of several articles on metaphysics, Law and Education, as "Do Finite Individuals have a substantive or an Adjectival Mode of Being," "Maintenance to a widow—Quantum and Style of Life," "The Necessity for a Concurrence Clause in Indian Educational Institutions" etc. Has contributed much to public discussion on the Madras Univ. Act, Madras Hindu Religious Endowments Act, and other enactments of the legislature. Address Zamindar of Nayinagararam, Vannarpet, Tinnevely.

SANKARAN NAIR, Sir Chettur, Kt., C.I.E., 1912, B.A., B.L., Member, Council of State, (1923), b 11 July 1867. Educ. Madras Presidency College, High Court Vakil, Govt. Pleader and Judge,

Prosecutor to the Govt of Madras Advocate-General, Judge High Court Madras for many years a Member of Madras Legislative Council President of the Indian National Congress at Amraoti President of the Indian Social Conference at Madras President of the Indian Industrial Exhibition Madras Founder and for some time Editor Madras Review Madras Law Journal and Daily Newspaper Madras Standard Member of Governor-General's Executive Council in India, 1915-1916, Member of Council of the Secretary of State for India 1918-1921 Elected Member Council of State, Novr 1925 Chairman, Central Legislature Committee with Simon Commission 1928 Publications Contributed articles to English periodicals author of 'Gandhi and Anarchy' Address Cosmopolitan Club Madras

SANT, MANARANA SHRI JORAWASSINGH
RAJA OF 24 March 1881 S 1896 Address
Bant-Rampur, Rewa Kantha Agency

SAPRU, SURESH BHADUR, M.A., LL.D., K.C.S.I.
(1928) & 8 Dec. 1878 Widower Educ. Agra College, Agra. Advocate, High Court, Allahabad, 1896-1926, Member, U P Leg Council, 1918-19, Member, Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20, Member, Lord Southborough's Functions Committee, 1918-1919, Member of Moderate Deputation and appeared as a witness before Lord Selborne's Committee in London, 1919, Member All-India Congress Committee (1904, 1917), President, U P Political Confc., 1914, President, U P Social Confc. (1918), President, U P Liberal League, 1918-20, Fellow, Allahabad Univ. 1910-1920, Member, Benares Hindu University Council and Senate and Syndicate Law Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council retired (1922) Member of the Imperial Conferences in London (1923) presided over the All India Liberal Federation Poona (1923), Member of the Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924 Publications - has contributed frequently to the press on political, social and legal topics edited the *Allahabad Law Journal*, 1904-1917 Address 10 Albert Road, Allahabad

SARDAR GHOSH BAKSH KHAN RAISAKI
SIR, K.C.I.E., premier Chief of Sarawan Baluchistan.

SARKAR, Sir JADUNATH Kt M.A. C.I.E.
M.L.C. (Bengal) 1899 (English Gold Medal) Prentissand Roychand Scholar (Monat Gold Medal) Hon. Member of Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain (1923) Sir James Campbell Gold Medalist Born Sir R.A.S., Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University 1928-28 Indian Educational Service (ret.) & 10 December 1870 m Kadambini Chaudhuri Educ. Presidency Coll Calcutta Some time Univ. Professor of Modern Indian History, Hindu University of Benares (1917-19) Sir W. Meyer Lecturer (Medals University) 1923, Reader in Indian History Patna University (1920-22) Publications India of Aurangzeb Statistics, Topography and Roads (1907), History of Aurangzeb, 2 Vols (Shiva) and Sir James Campbell Administration Studies in Mughal India Anecdotes of Aurangzeb

Chakranya His Life and Teachings, Economics of British India India Through the Ages, Edited and continued W. Irvine's *Later Aspects* 2 Vols Address Auckland Road Darjeeling

SARMA, Sir B. NARASIMHA, K.C.S.I. & Jan
1867 Educ. Hindu Coll., Vizagapatam Rajamundry Coll and Presy Coll., Madras. Subsequently teacher, Professor and at the Bar in Vizagapatam and Madras Law Member of Governor-General's Executive Council, 1930-35 President, Railway Rates Advisory Committee (1930) Address Calcutta

SARMA, S.K. B.A. LL. Bader. & 4 April
1880 Educ. P. B. College Trichinopoly, founded the *Wednesday Review* in 1905 and Asst. Editor till 1917 Asst. Editor and leader writer *Indu Prabhat* Bombay 1909-07, Witness, Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance (1919) and Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee (1924) Publications Monetary Problems A Note on the Rise of Prices in India, 'The Exchange Crisis and Towards Swarni' Address Teppakulam P. O. Trichinopoly

SARVADHAR, Sir DEVA PRASAD, Kt
(1919) B.L. M.A. B.L. (Calcutta), LL.D. (Aberdeen) LL.D. (St. Andrews) Solicitor (Nuvadwa) Viharitankar (Dacca) Vidya Sadhakar (Bharatpur) Jagatnath (Bharat) Jnan Sanjhu (Puri) Advocate and Solicitor Khowra (Calcutta) University Bannur Jirra and Dhuli Universities, Dean Faculty of Law and Inter Vice-Chan and Dean Faculty of Arts (Calcutta Univ. late Mem of Council of State late member of Indian Legislative Assembly and Bengal Council & 1862 m 1885 Nagendranandini 2 s. Nirmal (B.L.) and Nikhil (M.B.) and 3d Rajni, Nihar and Nwaja Educ. Namsahwar pore, Sanskrit College Hare and Howrah Schools Presidency College Calcutta For several years Mem of Mun. Corps of Calcutta Mem of Imp. 15th Vice-President, Calcutta Rotary Club, W.M. Lodge Anchor, and Hope Trustee Imp. Museum Pres. various literary social and philanthropic societies and President, Calcutta Licensing Board, Calcutta Temperance Federation Anti Smoking Society The Refuge, Calcutta, University Corps Committee Incorporated Society of Law, Vice-President Indian Association and National Council of Education, Sahitya Parishad Asiatic Society and President Calcutta University Institute Late Mem 14th Gen. Com. (Lon.) and Paddison Com. South Africa Representative of India Government on the League of Nations Geneva Has travelled much all over India Europe and South Africa, Twice represented Calcutta Univ. at the Congress of the Univ. of the Empire, held in England, Publications "Notes and Extracts," Three Months in Europe "Prabhat Patri," Travels in South Africa Address Prasanna 20, Sri Lane Calcutta Clubs, Calcutta and National Liberal India.

SARSOON Sir (ELLISON) VICTOR, 3rd Baronet, M
L.A. & 1809 & 30 Dec. 1881 s. of 2nd Baronet and 1st time, & of A. Levy, s. father 1924

Edue Harrow Trinity College, Cambridge.
Chairman, E. D. Jackson & Co., Ltd., etc.,
late Capt., R. A. F. *Address* Bombay

SASTRI **SIR** (ALAMUR) **VENKATALLI**
KUMARASAMI, KT (1924) & July 1870
Edue Presidency and Law Colleges, Madras
B.A. (1890) B.L. (1894) Vakil 1894 Judge
Small Causes Court 1905-1906 Judge Madras
City Court 1906-1912 District and Session
Judge Ganjam 1912-1914 Member of the
Rowlatt Committee 1918 Chairman Labour
Committee 1920 Judge Madras High Court
1914, Member Criminal Procedure Code
Committee 1917 Offg. Chief Justice, Madras
High Court July 1926 to May 1928 Retired
July 1930 *Address* Kalamur House
Madras N. I.

SASTRI **THE** **RT** **HON** **V** **S** **SRINIVASA**
PC 1921 (C. H. (1890) & Sept 22, 1869
Edue at Kumbhakonam Started life as a
School master, joined the Servants of India
Society in 1907 succeeded the late Mr Q. K.
Gokhale in its Presidency in 1915 Member
Madras Legislative Council 1913-16 elected
from Madras Presidency to Imperial Legis-
lative Council 1916-20 (heavily associated with
Mr Montagu during his tour in India in 1918
Member Southborough Committee gave evi-
dence before Joint Parliamentary Committee
on Indian Reform Bill 1919, served on
Indian Railway Committee, represented
India at Imperial Conference 1921 and at the
meeting of the League of Nations at Geneva
and the Washington Conference on the reduction
of naval armaments during the same year.
Appointed Privy Counsellor and received the
freedom of the City of London, 1921
undertook a tour in the Dominions as the re-
presentative of Government of India 1922,
elected Member Council of State, 1921
delivered the Kamala Lectures at the Calcutta
University on the Rights and Duties of
Indian Citizenship since published in book
form High Commissioner for India in South
Africa 1927-29, Member Royal Commission
on Labour 1929 *Address* Servants of India
Society, Bombay or Poona

SAUNDERS **COLONEL** **MACAN**, D.S.O., Offg.
Director Military Operations, Army Head-
quarters, India & 9 Nov 1881 m. Marjory
& of Francis Bacon *Edue* Malvern College
R.M.A., Woolwich Lieut., Royal Field
Artillery, 1903 Lieut., Indian Army, 1907,
Capt., 1912, Major, 1918 Lt.-Lieut.-Col.,
1919, Col 1923, in India till 1914 except for
a year in Russia, Staff Capt., 2nd Royal Naval
Brigade 1914, operations in Belgium and
siege of Antwerp Operations in Gallipoli,
1915, from 1st landing to evacuation, G.S.O.
3rd Egypt to March 1916, Brig-Major, Eastern
Persian Field Force to April 1917 Operations
in Mesopotamia, 1917-18, G.S.O.
& Intelligence Officer with Major Gen.
Dunsterville's Mission through N.W. Persia
to the Caucasus 1918, G.S.O. 1 Caucasus
Section, G.H.Q. British Salonika Force 1919
(wounded, despatches five times, D.S.O.
Lt.-Col.), P.S.C. Canterbury, 1920,
Military Attache, Teheran, Persia, 1921-24,
D.D.M.L., Army Headquarters 1924-29

Address General Staff, Army Headquarters
(India), Simla.

SAWANTWADI, **HIS** **HIGHNESS** **CAPTAIN** **KERN**
SAWANT **V** *Edue* BAPSANER BHOWSE, RAJE
BAHADUR SARDAR SAHAB OF 6 Aug 20th
1807 m. Princess Shri Lakshmi Devi of
Baroda, *Edue* Malvern College England
Served in the Great War at Mesopotamia
from Oct 1917 to March 1919, attached as
Hon. Officer to 118th Mahrattas *Ad-
dress* Sawantwadi

SCHUSTER, **THE** **HON** **SIR** **GEORGE**
REYHER **K** **C.M.G.**, (1926) **C.B.E.** **M.C.**,
Finance Member, Government of India
& 1881 m. 1908 Hon. Gwendolen
& of Lord Parker of Waddington two &
Educated Charterhouse (Scholar) New
College Oxford (Classical Exhibitioner)
1st Class in Greats, 1903, Bar-at-Law 1905,
partner in Schuster Son & Co. and Director
of numerous companies 1906-1914, served
European War 1914-18, with Q. O. Oxford
shire Hussars and on staff in France North
Russia 1919 A.A. and Q.M.G. Murransk
(despatches four times, M.C., C.B.E. Order of
St. Vladimir), travelled Central Europe to
report on economic conditions for Anglo-
Danubian Association, Ltd 1920 Chief
Assistant to Organizer of International
Credits under League of Nations 1921,
Member of Advisory Committee to
Treasury under Trade Facilities Act, Financial
Secretary Sudan Government, 1922-27
Chairman of Advisory Committee to Colonial
Secretary on East African Loans
Economic and Financial Adviser Colonial
Office 1927-28 Member of East African
Commission, 1927-28 *Address* Govern-
ment of India, Delhi or Simla

SAL, **SIR** **BRAJENDRA** **VATSE**, KT, M.A., Ph.D., D.Sc., Vice-Chancellor, Mysore Univer-
sity, George V Prof. of Mental and Moral
Science, Calcutta Univ., 1914-1920 Extra
Member of Council Mysore Government, 1925
26 & 3 Septem 1884 *Edue* Gen. Assem-
bly's Institution, Calcutta University Del.
Orientalist Congress, Rome, 1899, opened
discussion at 1st Univ. Races Congress, Lon-
don 1921 Mem. Simla Committee for
drawing up Calcutta Univ. Reg. 1905,
Chairman Mysore Constitutional Reforms
Committee 1922-23 Author of New Essays
in Criticism Memoir on Coefficients of Num-
bers Comparative Studies in Vaisnavism
and Christianity Race Origins, etc *Address*
Mysore S India

SALL, **REV** **CANON** **E.** **B.D.** (Lambeth)
D.D. (Edin.) Kaiser-i-Hind Gold
Medallist, & 1839, *Edue* C.M.S. Coll.
London Arr. in India, 1866, Numerous
publications on the history of Islam and on
Old Testament Literature *Address* Vepery,
Madras.

SAN, **JYENDRA** **VATSE**, M.A., Calcutta Univ.
Sen. Prof. of Phy. Sc., City Coll., since 1903
& 1875 m. 1899 *Edue* Hindu Beh., Presi-
dency Coll., City Coll. and So. Assoc. Calcutta,
Publications Elementary Wave Theory of
Light and other small books. *Address*
City College 182/1 Ambarnath Street Calcutta.

SEN, MAI BHADUR NISI KANTA, B.A., B.L. M.L.A., General Manager, *Estate* Nuzurgum Purnea City, and Advocate & 8 March 1904 m. Mrs. Son. Educ. Duca College. Entered Bar in 1894, was Govt Pleader up to 1912, nominated member, Behar and Orissa Leg. Council in 1914, re-nominated in 1916, Elected Member, Legis. Assembly in 1921, acted for 6 months as member, Special Tribunal during Agrah Gaya Bakr-i-d disturbances, was Vice-Chairman Purnea Municipality for 7 years, Vice-Chairman, Purnea Dist. Board, for 12 years up to 1921 when elected Chairman, Purnea District Board. Again re-elected as Chairman, Dist Board Purnea in 1924 and again re-elected as Chairman District Board Purnea in 1927. Address: Ben Villa, Purnea (Bihar.)

SETALVAD, SIE CHIMANLAL HANILAL, K C I E (1924) LL.D., Advocate High Court Bombay & 7 July 1886 m. Krihnanagari, d of Nurbharam Rugmishdas Govt Pleader Ahmedabad. Educ. Elphinstone College Bombay. Pleader, High Court, Bombay, Admitted as Advocate High Court Member Southborough Reforms Committee, 1918, Member Hunter Committee, 1919 Additional Judge Bombay High Court, 1920, Member, Executive Council of Governor of Bombay, Jan 1921 to June 1923 and Vice-Chancellor Bombay University 1917-1929. Address: Setalvad Road, Malabar Hill Bombay

SETALVAD, RAO BHADUR CHUNILAL HANILAL, O.I.C., Bar at-Law, formerly Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay Address: Bombay

SETH RAI BHADUR KUNWAR BIR NERHWAR DAYAL, B.Sc. M.I.C. F.C.S. (London), M.R.A.S. (London), Talukdar of Mulsuddinpur Educ. at Cannington College, Lucknow Member of the Board of High School and Intermediate Education U.P., Member of the Court of Lucknow University, President of the Board of Trustees of Seth Jai Dayal High School Biswan, Member of the managing body of Colvin Taluqdars School, Lucknow Trustee of Raja Raghubar Dayal High School, Sitapur, Member of the Board of Agriculture, U.P., Member of U.P. Cattle-breeding Committee, Member of the Courts of Wards Advisory Committee Sitapur, Member of the Executive Committee of British Indian Association of Oudh, Member of the United Provinces Legislative Council as one of the representatives of British Indian Association of Oudh, Member of U.P. Finance Committee, 1928-29, Member of U.P. Simon Committee, Honorary Special Magistrate. Gave evidence before the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee in 1925. Address: Kotra, Biswan, Dist. Sitapur, Oudh

SETHNA, THE HON SIE FREDERICK CURRIER, Kt., B.A., J.P., O.B.E. (1918), Member, Council of State, & 5 Oct. 1894 Manager for India Sun Life Assurance Co. of Canada, Chairman, Central Bank of India, Ltd., Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, Past President, Bombay Municipal Corporation and Indian Merchants Chamber. Address: Canada Building, Hornby Road, Bombay

SETURATNAM IYER, THE HON MR. M. N., Minister for Development Madras Government & 2nd January 1888. Educ. National High School and St. Joseph's College Trichinopoly. Was nominated President of the Taluk Board Karur, was elected President of the Taluk Board, Kullai, elected President of the Trichinopoly Dist. Board, elected President of the Trichinopoly District Educational Council, Assistant Secretary of the Trichinopoly National College and Hon. Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Trichinopoly Dist. elected member of the Madras Legislative Council from 1921. Address: Boa Bab, Eldama Road, Tenampet, Madras

SHADILAL, SIE, M.A. (Punjab), 1896, B.A. Honours (Oxford) 1898, B.O.L. Hon. (Oxford) 1899, Boden Sanskrit Scholar (Oxford) 1896, Arden Law Scholar (Gray's Inn) 1899, Honourman of Council of Legal Education, 1899, Special Prisoner in Constitutional Law, 1899, Chief Justice, High Court, Lahore & May 1874. Educ. at Govt. Coll., Lahore. Balliol Coll., Oxford. Practised at the Bar 1899-1918; Offg. Judge, Punjab Chief Court, 1918 and 1914. Permanent Judge, 1917, Judge, High Court, Lahore, 1919, Chief Justice, May 1920. Elected by Punjab Univ. to the Leg. Council in 1910 and 1913. Fellow and Syndic, Punjab University. Publications: Lectures on Private International Law, Commentaries on the Punjab Alienation of Land Act and Punjab Pre-emption Act, etc. Address: Lahore.

SHAFI, MIAN SIE MUHAMMAD, KHAN BHADUR, K.C.S.I. (1922), C.I.E. (1916); D. Litt. (Aligarh) LL.D. (Delhi) President All India and Punjab National Liberal League Punjab Provincial Muslim League, Anjuman-i-Islamiyyah and Cosmopolitan Club Lahore. Pro-Chancellor, Delhi University, 1922-1925. President, Anjuman-i-Hinayat-i-Islam Lahore. Legal Advisor Bhawalpur and Khairpur States, & 19 March 1899 Educ. Govt College and Forman Christian College, Lahore. Scholar and Master, Middle Temple, President All India Urdu Confee, 1911, President Iqbalia College, Committee 1907-19, President, All India Muslim League, 1913, Member Court of Muslim University, Aligarh, President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference 1916, President, High Court Bar Association, 1917-1919, President, Punjab Prov. Bar Confee, 1919, Member, Punjab Legislative Council and Imperial Legislative Council from 1909-1919. Education Member, Government of India, 1919-22, Vice-President of the Executive Council and Law Member, Govt. of India (1922-24). President, Indian Soldiers Board 1924 and Punjab Muslim Educational Conference, 1926. Publications: "Punjab Tenancy Act with notes," "Provincial Small Cause Courts Act with notes" and "Law of Compensation for Improvements in British India." Address: "Iqbal Masjid," Mowang Road, Lahore.

SHAHAB-UD-DIN THE HON MR. KHAN BHADUR SIE CHAUDHRY, Kt. (1920) B.A., LL.B., Advocate, High Court, President, Punjab

Legislative Council founder and Proprietor 'Indian Cases, and "Criminal Law Journal" Member Legislative Assembly for 3 years, President Municipal Committee Lahore, for 4 years and elected President Punjab Legislative Council, Re-elected President Punjab Legislative Council in January 1927 *Educ* Government Coll and Law Coll., Lahore Started Criminal Law Journal of India in 1904 and Indian Cases in 1909 Was first elected member, Lahore Municipal Committee in 1912, President of the Corporation in 1923 Elected member, Punjab Leg Council re-elected President, Lahore Municipal Committee 1924 *Publications* The Criminal Law Journal of India Indian Case and two Punjabi poems *Address* 'A' Munias 3 Durand Road, Lahore

SHAHANT, SAMBING CHANDANING, M.A., Retired Principal D J Sind College, Karachi, Zamindar Jamrao and Ex-Member, Legislative Assembly b 1867 m Bilhi Tejumal Manukhan *Educ* Bombay and Poona Professor Wilson College, Bombay, 1892-96 Prof D J, Sind Coll Karachi, since 1898 1916, Principal D J Sind College, 1916-28, Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23, President, Sind Social Conference, Larkana, President Sind Political Conference 1925 President, Amli Panchayat, Karachi 1927 29 President Sind Hindu Association 1928-29 President Sind Hindu Zamindars Sabha 1927, Fellow of the University of Bombay 1919-29, Member of the Board of Studies in English, 1924-29 Chairman Board of Studies in Sindhi, 1926-1929 *Publications* Umar Khayyam Shah Jo-Bazalo Sind Grasses Compromise Bha Khokhar, Tarango Abbias, Sain Jo Sawaro, etc. *Address* Shahant Bldg, Ramnagar

SHAH MOHAMMAD ZUBAIR, Barrister-at-Law b 1888 m d of Shah Mohammad Ayub of Monghyr *Educ* Middle Temple Practised as barrister at Patna 1912-13, at Monghyr, 1914-1920. Non-cooperated and gave up practice in 1920 Presided over Annual session of Bihar Provincial Confee in 1925 at Patna, elected President, Bihar Provincial Congress Committee in 1925 and again in 1926, elected to Council of State in November 1925 Resumed practice in Oct. 1927, Elected Chairman, District Board, in 1924 and 1927 *Address* Fort, Monghyr

SHAH PURA, RAJADHIRAJA SIR NAHAR SINGH, K.C.L.E. b 7 Nov 1858, S Shahpura Gaddi by right of inheritance, 1870 *Address* Shahpura, Rajpootana

SHAKESPEAR, ALEXANDER BLAKE, C.I.E., Merchant, Sutherland & Co., Calcutta b 1873. *Educ*. Berhampstead Was Sec., Upper India Chamber of Commerce 1898-12. *Address* Calcutta

SHAMSHER SINGH, SIR SARDAR, SARDAR RAMADUR, K.C.L.E., C.I.E. Ch. Min., Jind State, b 1890 *Educ*. Jullundur and Hoshiarpur H. S. and Govt Coll, Lahore Served during Afghan War, 1879-80, with march from Kabul to Kandahar Ch. Jus of State High Court, 1898-1903. *Address* Sangur, Jind State

SHANKARSHASTRI, NARASIMHSHASTRI PANDIT JOTIMHARAY, Astronomer, Astrologer and Landlord, b 19 Dec. 1854 m. Anna Purnabai d of Vedamurti Chendramadix of Laxmeshwar Miraj Senior *Educ*. Hosaratti, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar Compiler of the Annual Indian Calendar known as 'Hosaratti Panchang', Publisher of the annual general predictions, *Publications* Annual Indian Calendar Bhamini Diktika in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology) Kalachandrika in Sanskrit Banhiha Tajak-Sara (a treatise on Astrology) with Commentary in Marathi Dalvanja Ratnakar in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology) Gijha Ratna Mala in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astronomy), and booklets regarding the administrations of H. E. Lord Irwin, Viceroy of India and of H. E. Sir Frederick Sykes, Governor of Bombay, and Life of Pant Hare Kundi Maharaj of Belgaum The History of Canopus (Agyatya) in English *Address* Haveri, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar Dist

SHARPE, WILLIAM RUTTOY SHARPE J. P., M. Inst. T. Deputy Chairman, Bombay Port Trust b 11 Dec 1880 m Kate third d of the late T. H. Marsh 1 d *Educ* City of London School and Newville Academy Switzerland Accountant and Branch Manager Grindlay & Co. Ltd., 1902-1913 Joined Bombay Port Trust, Dec 1913, Chief Accountant acting and s p t 1914-15 Secretary, 1918-1923, Deputy Chairman, 1923, Late Captain, Bombay Battalion I.D.F., Chairman St George's Hospital Nursing Association. *Publication* The Port of Bombay *Address* C/o Grindlay & Co. Ltd., Bombay

SHASTRI, PRABHU DUTT Ph.D. (Kiel), B.Sc. Litt. Hum. (Oxon.), M.A. B.T., Hon. M.O.L. (Punjab), Vidyasagar (Calcutta) Shastri-Vachaspathi (Nadia) L.H.S., Sen Prof of Mental and Moral Phil in Presidency Coll, Calcutta, 1912-1928, offg Principal, Hooghly Govt. College, 1927 b 25 June 1885 *Educ*. Universities of Lahore, Oxford, Kiel, Bonn and Paris. Del to and Sectional Pres at 4th Int Congress of Philosophy held at Bologna, 1911, Head of Dept. of Philosophy, since 1912, Calcutta Univ Lect. in Phil. and Sanskrit, 1913-15, invited to lecture in Universities of Geneva, Florence and Rome 1913-14 Visited the U.S.A. and Canada in 1920-22 and invited to address the Universities of Harvard, Cornell, Princeton, Yale, Johns Hopkins and Toronto Invited as Sectional President at 8th International Congress of Philosophy, Naples 1924 *Publications*, Several works and articles on philosophical, educational, literary, religious and social subjects. *Address* Bharati Bhawan, 3, Multan Road, Lahore.

SHEIKH, MAHAMADBEAL, AMIR, Dewan, Junagadh State b 18th October 1901, First Class Amir of the Junagadh State, holding a hereditary Jagir *Educ* at the Mayo College, Ajmer visited England in 1913-14 with His Highness the Nawab Sahab Entered Junagadh State Service in 1920 as Military Secretary to His Highness the Nawab Sahab, and subsequently was appointed Private Secretary to His Highness, and then Hunar

- Secretary was appointed Dewan in 1924
Address Sardarbar, Junagadh Kathiawar
- SHEPPARD, SAMUEL TOWNSEND**, Editor of *The Times of India* since 1923 b Bath, Jan 1880 Educ Bradford and Trinity Coll., Oxford m. 1921, Anne d of the late J H Carpenter Joined the staff of *The Times* (London) as Secretary to the Editor in 1902 Assistant Editor, *The Times of India*, 1907-1923 Temporary Capt. in the Army, 1917-18, employed on the staff of Bombay Brigade. Corresponding Member, Indian Historical Records Commission *Publications* Contributed to *The Times History of the War in South Africa* 'The Bynellia Club a history', 'Bombay Place-names and Street names', 'A History of the Bombay Volunteer Rifles' Address *The Times of India*, Bombay
- SHIB SHEKHARWAR RAY THE HON KUMAR**, B.A., M.I.C. Minister, Government of B.N. gal b 4th December 1887 m to Annapurna Devi d of Bai N N Majumdar Bahadur of Bhagalpur Educ. Central Hindu College Benares and graduated from the University of Allahabad Is the eldest s of Raja Sasi Shekhawar Ray Bahadur of Fahirpur, Bengal Elected member of Rajshahi District Board (1915) Elected member Bengal Legis. Council 1916 by the Landholders of Rajshahi Division re-elected to Council by the same body in 1920 1923 and 1929 Appointed senior Chairman of the Bengal Legislative Council in 1921 and became its first elected President in 1925 Has served on numerous official Committees and has been Vice President of the British Indian Association and President Bengal Hindu Conference Appointed Minister Government of Bengal 1929 Address P O Fahirpur District Rajshahi
- SHILLIDY GEORGE ALFRED** C.I.F. (1931) King's Police Medal (1922) Deputy Inspector General of Police, Northern Range, Ahmedabad b 7th March 1886 m to Mabel Catherine d of Robt Steyn J P Burnhill Dundee Educ. Catmull College Belfast Ireland Joined Indian Police in 1906 as Asst Superintendent of Police, promoted District Superintendent of Police 1916 and Offg Deputy Inspector-General of Police in 1929 Address Shahid Ali Ahmedabad
- SHIRAZ, GEORGE DISPLAY M.A.** Principal, Gujarat College, b Aberdeen, 16 July 1886 m 1911, Amy Zara, d of late George McWaters, Madras Civil Service two s Educ Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen University of Aberdeen, University Prizeman in Economics Professor of Dacca College, 1909, on special duty under Government of India, Finance Department, 1910-13, Member, Govt. of India Prices Inquiry Committee on special duty in office of D.P.I., Bengal, 1913-14 Reader in Currency and Finance in Calcutta University, 1914, Member, Government of Bengal Statistics Committee, and of Board of Agriculture India, 1918, on deputation Imperial Statistical Conference, London on behalf of Govt. of India, Dec 1918-Feb 1920, on special duty India Office

- in connection with League of Nations Work, March 1920 attached International Labour Office and Economic and Financial Section League of Nations (Geneva 1924 and Ministry of Labour, Industrial Court, and Home Office London, Labour Department, Washington Boston and New York, 1925 Hon. Fellow, Royal Statistical Society, 1920, Major, 4th Gordon Highlanders (1920 despatches), T.A. Reserve Regimental List 1921, Director, Labour Office, Government of Bombay, 1921-25 formerly Director of Statistics with the Government of India, Member Bombay Legislative Council Fellow of the University of Calcutta, Fellow of the Univ of Bombay *Publications* Some Aspects of Indian Commerce and Industry Indian Finance and Currency 3rd Impression, 1920 Some Effects of the War on Gold and Silver, 1920 The Science of Public Finance (Macmillan 3rd Edition) Taxable Capacity and the Burden of Taxation and Public Debt (1925) The Future of Gold and Indian Currency Reform (Economic Journal June 1927) A Central Bank for India (Econ Journal Dec 1924) Gold and British Capital in India (Econ Journal Jan 1929) The Re-adjustment of Central and Provincial Finance in Federal Constitutions (Economic Journal Oct 1929) Monetary Policy (Econ Journal Feb 1930) (with an) French Monetary Policy (Econ Journal Feb 1930) Indian Trade etc. Address Gujarat Coll. go, Ahmedabad
- SHOUBRIDGE, HARRY OLIVER BARON**, Associate Coopers Hill and M Inst C.E. (Chartered Civil Engineer, Chief Engineer in Sind b 10 Oct 1872 m b 7 Maud Coopers Westminster School and R I E C Coopers Hill Civil Engineer in the Bombay Public Works Department Address Grindley and Co London and Bombay
- SHUTTEWORTH, GRAHAM DENNISON** Senior Partner Lofit & Forbes, Exchange Brokers Bombay, b 17 June 1889 m Margaret Ellen Anderson (10 March 1917) Educ. St. Lawrence College Ramsgate, and Royal Military College Sandhurst. Commissioned as 2nd Lieut to 2nd Bn York and Lancaster Regt 1909 resigned in 1914 on joining Messrs Lofit & Forbes Exchange Brokers Bombay Enlisted in Lahore Signal Company as Corp Despatch rider and proceeded to France Aug 1914 with 1st Indian Expeditionary Force Granted King's Commission as Captain in Middlesex Regt., January 1915 demobilised 1919 and rejoined (Capt and Forbes. Address Waverley Wilderness Road Main bar Hill, Bombay
- SIFTON, JAMES DAVID, CSI (1929), C.I.E. (1921), L.Q.S.** Member of Governor's Executive Council (1927), Bihar and Orissa (1925) b 17 April 1878. Educ. St. Paul's School and Magdalen Coll Oxford m Harriette May Shuttle of Eye Suffolk. Joined L.C.S., 1901 Served in Bengal to 1910 Transferred to Bihar and Orissa, Sec. to Govt. in Financial and Municipal Dept. 1917, Deputy Commissioner, Ranchi, 1923, Chief Secretary to Govt. of Bihar and Orissa, 1925-27 Acting Governor of Bihar and Orissa 1929 and again 1930 Address Ranchi, Bihar and Orissa

BIKKIN, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR TASHI NAMGYAL, K.C.I.E. (1923). A. 20 Oct. 1893, s. of late Maharaja Sir Tasho Namgyal, K.C.I.E. of Sikkim m. grand daughter of London Schoolkang (Regent of Tibet) *Edw.* Mayo Coll., Ajmer, St. Paul's Sch., Darjeeling *Address* The Palace, Gangtok, Sikkim.

SIMLA, ARCHBISHOP OF, since 1911, MOST REV. ANDREW, R. J. KNEALEy b. 1864 Rnd. Franciscan Order, 1879 Priest. 1887 Guardian of Franciscans, Crawley, Sussex 1898, Minister Provincial for England 1902, first Rector of the Franciscan College, Cowley, Oxford. 1906, elected life member of Oxford Union 1907, Detention-General, Rome, representing English-speaking provinces. 1908, Visitation-General, Irish Province 1910 *Address* Archbishop's House, Simla E.

RIMPSON, TREVOR CLAUDE, C.I.E. (1927) Kings Police Medal (1916), C.I.E. (1927) Inspector-General of Police, Bengal b. 9th February 1877 *Edw.* St. Paul's School London W. Appointed to the Indian Imperial Police by the Secretary of State after open competitive examination in London in Novr 1896 Superintendent of Police 1906 Inspector-General of Police 1919 Inspector-General of Police, 1928 *Address* 16 Harrington Mansions, Calcutta

SINGH, Lt.-Col. BAWA JIWAR, C.I.E. (1918) I.M.B. (ret'd) b. May 6 1883 *Adm.* Government and Medical Colleges Lahore and St Thomas Hospital Medical Schools London Joined I.M.S. 1891 Served in Military Department to 1896 Civil Surgeon, Mofkilla 1906 Secretary, I.G. Prisons, with Civil Medical Administration Burma, 1897 1899 Supdt Central Jail Insula Burma from 1899 to 1909 Inspector-Genl of Prisons, E. Bengal and Assam, 1910 1912, Inspector-Genl of Prisons Behar and Orissa, from 1912-1920, Director, Medical and Sanitation Departments, H. E. H. The Nizam's Govt., 1920 23, and Director Medical Sanitation and Jail Depts., H. E. H. The Nizam's Govt., 1923 24, *Address* Ranchi, Chota Nagpur

SINGH, GAYA PRASAD, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Pleader, Muzaffarpur *Edw.* Muzaffarpur and Calcutta. Was a sub-deputy magistrate and collector for a few years but resigned subsequently, now practising as a pleader, was a member of the Muzaffarpur Municipal Board of the Sudder Hospital Committee, and of the Local Advisory Committee on Excise an elected member of the Legislative Assembly since 1924, a member of the Standing Finance Comm'n. since 1924 one of the founder members of the Aero Club of India and Burma, a member of the Governing Body of the Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad. *Publication* Pictorial Kashmir *Address* Muzaffarpur (Bihar)

SINGH, RAJA BAHADUR SURY BAKSH, O.B.E. (1919), Taluqdar of Oudh b. 15 Sept 1868 m. granddaughter of Raja Gangaram Shah of Khalighar (Oudh) *Edw.* at Sikapur and Lucknow President, British Indian Assocn of Taluqdars of Oudh Member, first Leg Assembly. *Publication* "A Taluqdar of

the Old School" by "Heliodes" and "Arbitration" *Address* Kamapur P.O., Sikapur D.L. (U.P.)

SINGH, THE HON SIKHAR SIR JODHDEVA, K.T. (1899) Taluqdar, Alia Estate, Khar, District. Minister of Agriculture (1926) b. 25 May 1877 m. Winifred May O'Donoghue Contributor to several papers in India and England. Has been Home Minister, Patiala State. Fellow of the Punjab Univ. Press of Sikh, Eduol Cones served on Indian Sugar Committee, Indian Taxation Enquiry Commission and Sikken Committee, Member of Council of State, Editor of *East and West. Publications* Kamia, Narjahan, Nasrin Life of B. M. Malabari. *Address* Alia Holme, Simla (East)

SINGH, KUNWAR MAHARAJ, M.A. (Oxford), Bar-at-Law C.I.E. b. 17 May 1878, m. to Miss Maya Das, d. of the late Rai Bahadur Maya Das of Faraspur (Punjab) *Edw.* Harrow Hall Coll., Oxford, Bar-at-Law, Middle Temple 1902 Ent. U.P.C.S. as Dy. Coll., 1904, Asst. Sec. to Govt. of India. Dept. of Education, 1911 Mag and Coll. of Hamirpur, U.P., 1917 Secy to U.P. Govt. 1919 Dy. Secretary Govt. of India Education Dept. 1920-23 Dy. Commissioner Bahraich 1923 Commissioner, Allahabad, 1827 Commissioner Benares, 1928; Allahabad 1929 *Publications* Annual Report on Co-operative Credit Societies in the U.P., 1908 1919 Reports on Indian Emigration to Mauritius and British Guiana and various contributions to the press *Address* Allahabad

SINGH, SIR RAMCHAND, G.C.I.E., K.B.E. D.J.M., Maharajadhiraja of Darbhanga, Mem. Exc. Council, Bihar and Orissa, (1912-1917), Mem. of Imp. Council, 1899-1900, b. 16 Jan 1860 Twice married, two s. one d. b. Maharaja Bahadur Sir Lakshminchandra Singh, G.C.I.E., made hereditary Maharaja Bahadur, 1907 hereditary Maharajadhiraja, 1930 *Edw.* Queen's Coll., Benares and privately under the late Sir Chester Macnaghten Principal, Rajkot College privately. *Life-Press*, Behar Landholders Assoc., Makhel Mahamabha Bharat Dharma Mahamandal and also Pres., Hindu Univ. Soc., Behar Panchayat Assoc., etc. A member of the Indian Police Commission and of Indian Familo Trust, Pres., Prince of Wales Reception Committee for Bengal, 1905, Indian Industrial Conference, 1908 Religious Convention held at Calcutta, 1910, and Allahabad 1911, All-India Hindu Conference, April 1915, All India Landholders Assocn. and Bengal Landholders' Assocn. Member, Council of State, since 1920. *Address* Darbhanga.

SINGH THE HON RAJA SIR RAMPAI, K.C.I.E., (1918); Member, Council of State Taluqdar b. 7 Aug 1847 m. niece of Thakur Jagannath Singh late Taluqdar of Dhanawan Estate in Gonda Dist. *Edw.* at Rae Bareilly High School and M.A.O. College, Aligarh President-elect of the second U.P. Social Conference held in Lucknow in 1906 and of All-India Social Conference in 1910, presided over 5th All-India Hindu Conference at Delhi in 1915, elected President, British Indian Association of Oudh

In 1921 and was re-elected in 1924. Was Fellow of Allahabad Univ. until 1909 and is Secretary of Kshatriya College Lucknow, Member of the Executive Council of the Lucknow University and of the Court of the Hindu University of Benares, of the Board of Directors of Mahaluxmi Sugar Corporation, Lucknow, also Director of the Allahabad Bank. *Publications*: Pamphlets entitled "Talukdars and the British Indian Association" (1917) and "Talukdars and the Amendment of Oudh Rent Law" (1921) and contributions to the press on social, political and religious topics. *Address*: Kharri Sudauli Raj, Dist. Rae Bareilly, Oudh.

SINHA, BHOGAR KASHYAP, Zamindar and Jagirdar. Educ. Government College, Jabalpur. Hon. Magr., 2nd Class, sitting singly, has been member of the C.P. Council on behalf of Zamindars for two terms has been elected Member, Legislative Assembly on behalf of C.P. Zamindars. This Beohar recognized by Government—hereditary distinction. Khas. Ann. Darbar of H. B. the Governor, C.P. exempted from Arms Act. Is Chairman of the District Council and Member of Communication Board, C.P. *Publications*: Hindi Shastra Siddhanta Bar. *Address*: Jabalpur.

SINHA THE HON. MR. ANUGRAH NARAYAN M.A. B.L., Zamindar July 3 1889. Educ. Patna and Calcutta. Joined the High Court, Patna, as Vakil, appeared in the famous "Bairam Case of the Durrani Raj" as junior to Mr. O. B. Das. Mr. Brindavan Ayyangar and the late Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee joined Non-Cooperation Movement 1921, at present Chairman of Gaya District Board and Member Council of State representing Bihar and Orissa. Chairman, Reception Committee of the All India Untouchable Conference held at Patna in 1925. *Publications*: *Notes* Translated History of Ancient Magadh from Bengali into Hindi. *Address*: Villa Poleswan, P. O. Aurangabad Dist. Gaya (Bihar and Orissa).

SINHA, BRUPENDRA NARAYANA, B.A. & A. BARADAR (1916) B.A. (Calcutta), and Zamin dar & 15th Nov. 1888 m. first Rank from Kumari and on demise Rani Surya Kumari Educ. Presidency College, Calcutta. Member of the Dist. Board of Murshidabad for 12 years 1st Class Hon. Magr., Vice-President, British Indian Association, President, All India Cow Conference Association, Trustee of the Indian Museum, President of the India Art School elected to the Bengal Council in 1926, elected as a co-opted member of the Royal Statutory Commission, Member of the Finance Committee, Member of the Public Committee, Member of the Revenue Committee, Member of the E. B. Railway Local Advisory Committee and Minister to the Govt. of Bengal. Re-elected to the Bengal Council in 1929. *Address*: 54, Gariahat Road, Ballypunge, P.O., Calcutta, or Nashipur Rajpatti, Nashipur P.O., Dist. Murshidabad, Bengal.

SINHA, KUNAR GANGAWAN, M.A. (1881) M.L.A. (1924 1930), Hon. Research Scholar of the Calcutta University, (1923-25), Proprietor Srinagar Raj & 24 Sept. 1898 Educ. at Nonsmyr Zilla School (1907-10) Purnea Zilla School Presidency College (Calcutta) Government Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta, and Post Graduate Department Calcutta University Elected to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland in 1921 Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1922. Bihar and Orissa Research Society in 1924 and to the Fellowship of the Royal Society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce, etc. In 1923 a commissioner of the Purnea Municipality and a member of the Purnea District Board (1924-27), President of the Social and Religious Department of the Malhill Sammelan, one of the founders of the Nationalist Party in the Legislative Assembly. Joined the Swarajya Party in the Assembly (1925) Elected a Secretary of the Congress Party in the Assembly, 1928 a member of the Road Development Committee and its touring and drafting Sub-Committee 1927-28 President of the Purnea District Congress Committee (1925 1926) President of the Bihar Provincial Hindu Sabha Member of the Executive Committee of the All India Hindu Sabha, 1928 1929 President of the Bihar Provincial Kavi Sammelan (1926) President of the Bihar Provincial Board of the Hindusthani Sevasal (1929) *Publications*: The Place of Vidya in the Ancient and the Medieval India ("read in the second Oriental Conference") A Note on the Jangala Dena and Discovery of Bengali Dramas in Nepal and "On some Malhill Dramas of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries" (published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal) "Is Dharmat religion Buddhism?" (read in the Third Oriental Conference, Madras, 1924) Joint editor of the typical selections from Malhill proposed to be published by the Calcutta University an Editor of the 'Barhut Inscriptions' published by the Calcutta University in 1926 and author of several works under preparation. *Address*: "Srinagar Darbar," P. O. Srinagar, Dist. Purnea (Bihar).

SINHA, THE HON. LALA SUKENDR, Land lord, Jagirdar and Banker & 5 Jan. 1888 Educ. Agr. College Member U.P. Legislative Council from 1909 1920 Member, Council of State from 1920-26 when re-elected to the same Council from the four Northern Divisions of the Agr. Province. Hon. Secy., U.P. Zamindars Association President Rishikul Ashram and founder Aynurad College Haridwar Member (1) Indian Central Cotton Committee (2) Board of Agriculture, U.P. (3) Member Haridwar Improvement Committee, (4) Patron, Edward High School, Muzaffarnagar Director of the Muzaffarnagar Bank, Ltd., Ex-General Secretary All-India Hindu Sabha and Ex-Honorary Secretary, Meerut College. Member, U.P. Little Breeding Committee. *Publications*: Translation of the "Gita" and "Yoga Patanjali" in Hindi. *Address*: "Anandbhawan," Muzaffarnagar U.P.

SINHA, NARENDRA PRASAD, Major I.M.S., retired, Consulting Physician, Mem., Advisory Council India Office & 30 Sept. 1888. *Educ.* Calcutta, Univ. Coll., London Ent. I.M.S. 1893, retired 1903

SINHA, SACHCHIDANANDA, Barrister, First Indian Finance Member, Ex Member, Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa Government 1921-22 also President of Legislative Council 1921-22 & 10 Nov 1971, m the late Brinatti Radhika, d of the late Mr Sewa Ram, of Lahore *Educ.* Patna College and City College, Calcutta Called to the Bar (Middle Temple) 1893 Advocate Calcutta High Court 1898 Allahabad High Court, 1898 Patna High Court, 1916 Founded and edited *The Hindustan Review*, 1879-1921 Twice Elected Member, Imperial Legislative Council, Elected Legislative Assembly, 1920, also elected its first Deputy President, Feb. 1921 Established and endowed in 1924 the Brinatti Radhika Institute in memory of his wife, which building contains, besides the largest public hall in Patna the Sachchidananda Sinha Library a splendid collection of classical and current works in English. Visited England in 1927 where he in writings and speeches made notable contributions to the discussion of Indian Reforms as embodied in the system known as Durbachy. Resumed Editorship of the *Hindustan Review* in 1929 Publication The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Behar *Address* Patna, Behar

SIRMOOR, LIEUT.-COL. H. H. MAHARAJA SIR AMAR PRASAD BAHADUR, K.C.I.E. & 26 Jan 1898 m. d of the late His Excellency Maharaja Deb Shamsher Jung, Bana Bahadur ex-Prime Minister of Nepal in 1910 *Educ.* under European and Indian Private tutors *Address* Sirmoor, Nahan

SIROHI, H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJ MAHARAO SIR SAMUT RAM SINGH BAHADUR, K.C.I.E. & 27 Sept 27, 1888 s to the gadi, April 29, 1920 *Address* Sirahi, Rajputana

SITAMAU, H. H. SIR RAJA RAM SINGH, RAJA OF K.C.I.E. & 1890, descended from Rathor House of Kaoli Baroda m thrice *Educ.* Daily Coll., Indore, Hindi and Sanskrit poet and keen student of science and ancient and modern philosophy, is entitled to a salute of 11 guns & by selection by Govt of India in default of direct issue, 1900 *Address* Ramnivas Palace, Sitamau, O I.

SIVAGANANAM PILLAI, DEWAN BAHADUR SIR TIRUVELLY NELLAIPPA, B.A. & 1st April 1861 *Educ.* Madras Christian College Service under Government Retired as Dy Collector, President, Dist Board, Tirunelveli 1920-22 Minister of Development, Madras 1923-26 *Address* 77 North Car Street, Tirunelveli

SIVASWAMI AYYAR, SIR P. S., K.C.I.E. 1915, C.B.I. (1912), C.I.E. (1908) Retd Member, Executive Council, Madras & 7 Feb 1864 *Educ.* S. P. G. College, Tanjore, Government College, Kumbakonam Presidency College, Madras High Court Vakil, 1886, Asst. Professor, Law College, Madras, 1888-90; Joint

Editor, Madras Law Journal, 1893 1907 first Indian Representative of the University of Madras in the Madras Legislative Council, 1904-07 Advocate-General, 1907 Member of Executive Council, Madras 1912-17, Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras, 1916-18 Vice-Chancellor of Benares Hindu University, 1918-19 Elected to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the districts of Tanjore and Trichinopoly, 1920 President of the second and ninth Sessions of the National Liberal Federation at Calcutta 1919 and Akola 1928 Member of the Indian Delegation at the Third Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva, 1922 Nominated Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly 1924 Publication Indian Constitutional Problems (1928) *Address* Sudharma Edward Elliot Road, Mylapore, Madras

SLOAN, TENNANT M.A., C.I.E. (1930) Secretary to Government United Provinces, & 9 November 1884 m Glad Hope & of E. Hope Robertson, Glasgow *Educ.* Glasgow Academy Glasgow University and Christ Church Oxford Joined Indian Civil Service 1909 served as Assistant Magistrate and Collector, Assistant Settlement Officer, Under Secretary to Government Magistrate and Collector Deputy Secretary and Secretary to Government in United Provinces and also as Under Secretary and Deputy Secretary in Home Department of Government of India *Address* Dar ul Ishaq Lucknow

SMITH ARTHUR KIRKP M.A. (Cambridge) Solicitor to Government Public Prosecutor Master of the Bombay House & 20th Aug 1878 *Educ.* Charterhouse Trinity College Cambridge Articled to Freshfields Solicitors London, and admitted a Solicitor in 1904 joined Little & Co., Bombay in 1909 *Address* Bombay

SMITH, SIR HENRY MONCKLEIFF, KT (1923) C.I.E. (1920), President, Council of State (Dec 1924) & Dec 23, 1878 *Educ.* Blundell's School Tiverton, Sidney Sussex Coll., Cambridge I.C.S., 1897 Asst Commr in U.P. Dist and Sessions Judge, 1908 Addl Sec to U.P. Govt, 1914 Dy Sec to Govt of India, 1915 Joint Sec, 1919 Secretary, Council of State, 1921-23 Secy to Govt of India, Leg. Dept., and Secretary, Leg. Assembly 1921-24, Chairman, Indian Red Cross Society and St John Ambulance Association (Indian Council) since 1924 Knight of Grace of St John of Jerusalem President All India Lawn Tennis Association *Address* Simla or Delhi.

SMITH, SIR THOMAS KT (1921) V.D. (1914) Chevalier of the Order of the Crown (Belgium) (1910), Managing Director, Muir Mills Co., Ltd., Cawnpore & 28 Aug 1875 m. Elsie Maud d of Sir Henry Ledgard & 1907 & 1st Member of the Hunter Committee on Punjab disorders, 1919 Presd., Upper India Chamber of Commerce 1918-1921, Member, U.P. Leg. Council, 1918-20, Fellow of Allahabad University, 1913-22, Commandant, 15th Cawnpore BtBns, 1913-22 Representative of Employees in India at International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1925 *Address* Westfield Cawnpore, and Merlewood Virginia Water Surrey

SOAMES, GEOFFREY EWART B.A. (Oxford), C.I.E. (1927), I.C.S., Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam 8 Jan. 1881 m Una Sweet (1915) *Educ* Eastbourne College and Merton College, Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service, began service in 1900 in the Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam, assigned to the Province of Assam after the reconstitution of the Provinces. *Address* Shillong Assam

SOLA, THE REV MARCIAL, S J Ph D, M A Former Principal of the Ateneo de Manila Institution from 1910-1920 Professor of Logic and Philosophy at St Xavier's College Bombay 6 Nov 7 1873 in the province of Barcelona, North of Spain Ordained at St Louis Mo U S A in 1906 *Educ* Vich, Spain and at St Louis University Mo U S A Went to the Philippines On the staff of the Manila Observatory under the Spanish and the American Governments from 1897 to 1903 A Delegate to the World's Fair held in St Louis, U S A in 1904 Prof for several years at the Ateneo de Manila Philippines and Principal of that institution from 1916 to 1920 On the Staff of St Xavier's College Bombay since 1922 *Pub* *Heads* Author of *The Meteorological Service of the Philippine Islands* A Study of Seismic Waves Contributor to the monthly review *Razon y Fe* edited at Madrid Author of *A Compendium of the Science of Logic*. *Address* St Xavier's College, Cruckshank Road Fort Bombay

SOLOMON CAPT WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE, Kaisar-i Hind Medal (First Class) Associate Royal British Colonial Society of Artists Director, Sir J J School of Art, Bombay Curator, Art Section Prince of Wales Museum Bombay 6 Sea Point Cape Town 1880 s of late Saul Solomon M I A m 1906 Gwladys, d of Rev G W Cowper Smith Twynbridge Wells, one s *Educ* Bedford Grammar School University School Hastings and abroad Studied under Sir Arthur Cope E A and J Watson Nicol, and at the Royal Academy schools London Took the highest prizes and medals for figure painting and decorative painting Took the Gold Medal and Travelling Scholarship for Historical Painting Exhibited many pictures and portraits at Royal Academy appointed Principal, Sir J J School of Art Bombay, 1919 founded the class of Mural Painting under H F Lord Lloyd's direction, 1920 served in Gallipoli Mesopotamia and India 1914-1919 *Publications* "The Charm of Indian Art" "The Bombay Revival of Indian Art" "The Women of the Ajanta Caves," etc *Address* School of Art Bungalow, Bombay

SORABJI, CORNELIA Kaisar-i Hind Gold 1st class medal (1909) Bar 1st Class (1921) Legal Adviser to Purbachandra, Court of Wards, Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and Assam, and Consulting Counsel from 1904 to 1922 *Educ* Somerville Coll., Oxford Lee and Pemberton, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London, Bachelor of Civil Law Examination Oxford, 1902 Bar-at-Law, Lincoln's Inn, 1903 *Publications* — "Sun Babes" (1904) Between the Twilight" (1908) "The Purbachandra

(1916) 'Sun Babes' (2nd Series Illustrated) 1920 Therefore (1924) contributions to the *Nineteenth Century*, *Westminster Gazette*, *The Times* and other newspapers and magazines *Address* Bar Library, Calcutta

SPENCE, SIR REGINALD ARTHUR KT, Managing Director Thipson & Co. Ltd 6 March 1880 *Educ* Christ's Hospital Arrived in India Feb 1901 formerly Lieut Bombay Light Horse Dist Secretary, Bombay Natural History Society, and Fchey Thipson Sanitarium Nashik Hon Treasurer Bombay Education Society Chairman Bombay Branch European Association 1924-1930 Dist Grand Master Mawana, b C Bombay and Dist Grand Master M C Bombay was member Indian Legislative Assembly 1921-1923 Sheriff of Bombay 1929 Member of Council of State July 1930, M L C Bombay, August 1930 Editor Journal of Bombay Natural History Society Kt of the Order of St John of Jerusalem (1930) *Address* Byculla Club, Bombay

SRINIVASA IYENGAR S b 11 Sept 1874 *Educ* Madura and Presidency College Madras Vakil (1898) Member of Madras Senate 1912-16, President Vakil Association of Madras, President, Madras Social Reform Association, 1916-20 Follow of the Madras University Member All India Congress Committee Member Indian Legislative Assembly Advocate General, Madras, 1916-20 President, Indian National Congress, 1926-27 *Publications* A book on law reform (1909) Swamy Constitution in 1927 *Address* Mylapore Madras

SRINIVASA RAO, RAI BHADUR PATRI V M V KATA B A B L, High Court Vakil Gunter, and Member, Legis Assembly b 1877, m to d of Rao Bahadur Baru Ramanaras Pantulu Garu *Educ* Town High School and Noble College, Musilipatam, and Christian Coll and Law Coll, Madras Joined Coomaras Bar, 1903 and Gunter Bar in 1906 Vice-President, Gunter Dist Board for 6 years, was Municipal Councillor for some years was member, Kistna Flood Committee, Secretary of the First District Congress Committee *Address* Gunter

STANDLEY, ALFRED WILLIAM EVANS Associate of Coopers Hill College, Member of Council of the Institution of Engineers (India) Chief Engineer and Secretary, P W D, Bikaner State b 20 Nov 1886 m Una d of H F D Bunington L.C.A. (retd) *Educ* Royal College of Mauritius and then at Royal Indian Engineering Coll., Coopers Hill, Jolite P W D in U.P. Irrigation Branch, as Asst Engineer in 1891, Construction of Gangao Dam, Upper N J Canal in 1896 services lent to Bikaner Municipality in 1896 as Resident Engineer for construction of drainage and sewerage and water-works. Promoted Ex Engineer in 1899 services lent to Bikaner State, 1903-06, during which several irrigation schemes, water works and central electric power station were designed and constructed, also originated the investigation of the feasibility of irrigating the North tracts of the State from the Sarda river which has eventually led to Bikaner getting a share

of the water in the Solani Valley Project now under construction. Sanitary Enggr. to Govt., U P in 1906 and 1908. Promoted to Superintending Engineer, 1912, and then Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government, P.W.D., Irrigation Branch, U P in 1918 and retired in 1921. Publications: Papers on "Subsoil Percolation" and "Wood Absorption of Reservoirs" in the Journal of the Institution of Engineers (India), Vol. II. Address: Bikaner, Rajputana.

STANLEY, LIEUT. COLONEL RIGHT HON. SIR GEORGE FREEMANCK P.C. (1927) G.O.I.E. (1929), C.M.G. (1916) Governor of Madras (1929) b 14 October 1872. m. 1903 Lady Beatrice Taylor (C.B.E., 1929) y.d. of Marquess of Headfort and d. Edna Willington Woolwich. Entered R.N.A. 1891. Captain 1900 served S. Africa 1899-1900. European War 1914-18 (despatches) (M.G.) Adjutant, Hon. Artillery Company 1904-9. Controller of H.M.'s Household 1916. Financial Secretary to the War Office 1921-22, M.P. (C.) Preston 1918-23. Parliamentary Under Secretary Home Office 1923-28. Parliamentary Secretary, Ministry of Pensions, 1924-29. Address: Government House, Madras.

STEIN, SIR AUREL K.C.I.E., Ph.D., D.Litt. (Hon. Oxon.), D.Sc. (Hon. Camb.), D.O.L. (Hon. Punjab), Fellow Brit. Acad., Correspondant de l'Institut de France, Gold Medal Hist., R. Geogr. Soc. etc. Indian Archaeological Survey, Officer on special duty b Budapest 28 Nov 1883. Educ. Budapest and Dresden, studied Oriental Languages and Antiquities at Vienna and Tubingen Universities and in England, 1889-99. Principal, Oriental College and Registrar, Punjab University, app to I.E.S. as Princ. of Calcutta Madrasah, 1899. Inspector-General of Education, N.W.F. and Bahawalistan, 1904. Carried out archaeological explorations for Indian Govt. in Chinese Turkestan, 1900-1, and in O. Asia and W. China 1906-08, transferred to Archaeological Survey, 1909, carried out geographical and archaeological explorations in O. Asia and Persia, 1912-16. on N.W. Frontier and in Baluchistan, Khuzistan and Kalat, 1926-28, retired 1929. Publications: *Kashana's Chronicle of the Kings of Kashmir*. Sanskrit text, 1902, trans. with commentary, 2 vols. 1900, *Spent-Burned Ruins of Khaton*, 1908-1921. *An ancient Khaton*, 1908 (2 vols.). *Ruins of Desert Cutchay*, 1912 (2 vols.). *Srinidhi*, 1921 (5 vols.). *The Thousand Buddhas. Memoir on Maps of Chinese Turkestan and Khotan* (3 vols.), *Inscribed Aia*, 1928 (4 vols.), *On Alexander's Track to the Indus* and numerous papers on Indian and Central Asian Archaeology and Geography. Address: Srinagar R.I. United Service Club, London.

STILL, CHARLES, C.I.E. Indigo Planter b 1849. Educ. privately. Address: Sathi Factory, Champaran.

STOKES, HOPKINSON GABRIEL, C.S.I., C.I.E., B.A. Member Executive Council, Madras m. Alice Henrietta d. of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, Bart., Dec. 1922. 1st Member, Madras Board of Revenue, 1925, Dy. Sec. Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1908-11. Fin. Dept., 1911-18. Fin. Mem., Imp. Delhi

Committee 1918-15. Priv. Sec. to Governor of Madras 1915, Pol. Agt., Bangalore, Madras, Secy to Madras Govt., Local and Municipal Dept., 1918-19. Administrative Adviser, Kiangfurt Fleetside Commission, 1920, Member Board of Revenue, Madras, 1921, Secy to Madras Govt., Development Dept., 1922. 2nd Member Board of Revenue, Madras, 1924. Ch. Secretary to Government of Madras 1929. Educ. Officer, Oriel Coll., Oxford. Ent. J.C.B. 1896. Address: c/o Blunty & Co. Madras.

STONKY EDWARD WALLER, C.I.E., M.E., M.I.C.E., M.Inst.C.E. late Ch. Eng. of Madras Ry. (retired), 1904. 4th s. of late T. G. Stonky, J.P., of Kyle Park and Arranhill Co. Tipperary, Ireland, m. 1875, Scholier, Gold Medalist and M.E., Queen's University, Ireland, Fellow, Madras University. Publications: various engineering papers. Address: The Gables, Coonoor.

STOW, SIR ALEXANDER MONTAGUE K.C.I.E. (1930), B.A. G.B.E. (1918) Finance Member Government of the Punjab (1928) b 13 December 1878 m. Violet d. of the late Sir John Buntin, K.C.I.E. Educ. Harrow and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Entered Indian Civil Service 1896 and was successively Asst. Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Settlement Officer, Jammu and Kashmir Division, Commissioner, Rawalpindi District, Financial Commissioner, and Chief Commissioner, Delhi, 1920-25. Address: 12, Abbott Road, Lahore.

STRONG, THE HON. LT.-COL. HENRY STUART C.I.E. (1929) Ag. Agent to the Governor-General in Western India States. Appointed Asst. Political Agent and Assistant Resident at Aden in 1902. Two years later he was appointed Political Agent, Mahi Kantha Agency and then Assistant to the Resident at Baroda in 1908. Assistant Resident 1907, Assistant Political Agent, Palanpur 1908, and Kathiawar 1909, Administrator, Pathana State 1912, Assistant Resident at Aden, 1916, Political Agent, Kathiawar 1920. Political Agent, Banas Kantha Agency, 1925, Resident Western Rajputana States, 1926. Address: Rajkot.

STUART, THE HON. SIR LOUIS, C.I.E., I.O.S. Chief Judge, Chief Court of Oudh since 1905 b 12 March 1870. Educ. Chatterhouse, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.O.S., 1891, Jud. Sec. to Govt. and mem. as Mem. of U.P. Council, 1910-12. Addl. Judi. Commissioner, Oudh, 1912, Judicial Commissioner, Oudh, 1921, Palace Judge, High Court, Allahabad, 1922. Address: Lucknow.

STUART WILLIAMS, SIR CHARLES, Kt. M.A., (Oxamb.) B.A. (London) Chairman, Calcutta Port Commissioners. b 5 May 1874, m. Feb 1903, Elizabeth Mary Stuart, 3 sons. Educ. Kingswood Sch., Bath, Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth and Trinity College, Cambridge. Junior Sec. to Agent, E.I.Ry., 1900-08; Dy. Sec. to Agent, E.I.R., 1903-06, Secy. to Agent, E.I.R., 1908-14. Sec., Port Commissioners, Calcutta, 1914-16, Vice-Chairman, 1916. Dy. Chairman, 1921, Chairman, since Novr 1922. Publications: *The Economics of Railway Transport*, 1902, Article on Indian

railways in *Modern Railway Practice*, 1913
History of the Port of Calcutta, 1870-1920
Address: Port Commissioners' House,
Calcutta.

SUBBARAYAN, DR. PARAMASIVA, M.A. B.C.L. (OXON), LL.D. (DURHAM), Zemindar of Kumbakonam & 9 Sept. 1889. M. Radhakrishnan. A. of Mal Sahib K. Rangarao of Mangalore. Educ. Newington School Madras, the Presidency and Madras Christian College, and Wadham College, Oxford. Was Council Secretary for a few months in the first reformed Legislative Council, has been a member of Madras Legislative Council representing South Central Landholders from 1920. Was a member of All India Congress Committee, in 1920. Was Chief Minister, Government of Madras until 1930. Address: 'Kairiawna' Egmore, Madras.

SUBEDAR, MANU, B.A. (Bombay), Dakshina Fellow of the Elphinstone College, B.Sc. (Eco.), London, First Class honours in Public Finance, Banking and Currency, Barrister-at-Law, Gray's Inn, 1912. Director Peninsula Locomotive Co., Ltd., Managing Director, Ameer-Bela Trading Co., Ltd. Educ. New High School, Bombay. First in Merit from the School, Elphinstone College, Bombay. James Taylor Scholar & Prizeman, London School of Economics, London University. South Kensington Gray's Inn. Returned to India in 1914. Lecturer in Economics, Bombay University. Professor of Economics, Calcutta University. Examiner in M.A., Bombay and Calcutta. Secretary, Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills Co., Ltd. (1917), Secretary, Morari Geculdas Spinning and Weaving Mills Co., Ltd., Managing Director, Western India Small Industries Corporation Ltd. (1919). Partner Lalji Narani & Co., Managing Agents of Jupiter General Insurance Co., Ltd. Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Bombay Port Trust sent to England by the Government of India to give evidence on behalf of the Indian Commercial Community before the Balfour-Smith Committee, Managing Agent of the Pioneer Rubber Co. (1920), Director of the Peninsula Locomotive Co., Ltd. (1924), Managing Director Ameer-Bela Trading Co., Ltd. (1926). Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Advisory Board of the Development Department. Wrote separate dissenting report on Back Bay Reclamation Scheme and also on Housing Scheme. Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Bombay Improvement Trust Committee, appointed member of the Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee. Official adviser in various matters of technical finance to the States of Mysore, Junagadh, Jodhpur, and Cutch. Nominated by Government of Bombay to the Municipal Corporation (1920). Address: Kodak House, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay.

SUBRAMANYAM, RAO BANARUDR CARASA SUBRAMANYA, B.A., B.L., Landowner & Nov. 1882. Educ. Kumbakonam and Madras Presidency College, & Balambanna, & C. C. Munnabhai, Barrister-at-Law and Judge in Mysore. Practised as Vakil at Bellary. Chairman, Bellary Municipality, 1904-10.

Vice-President, District Board, Bellary, 1911-1913. Member, Liberal League, Madras, has taken interest in co-operative work and social and political movements elected to the Legislative Assembly, 1920. Appointed President of Bench of Hon. Magistrates, Mayavaram Town in 1923. Publications: Pamphlets on Bubonic Plague and Irrigation Problems of the Ceded Districts. Address: Mayavaram, 8 India.

SUBRAWARDY, THE HON. MR. JUNCTION ZAHRAHUS RAHIM KASBI, M.A., B.L., Kt., Barrister-at-Law, Judge, Calcutta High Court, & 1870. Educ. Dacca and Calcutta. Address: 7, Wellesley 1st Lane, Calcutta.

SUKHDEO PRASAD, SIR B.A., Rao Bahadur (1895), Gold Kaimard Hind Medal (1901), C.I.E. 1902, Kt. Bachelor (1922). Political, Judicial and Finance Member State Council, 1924-26, & March 1922. M. Mohanji, & of Pragnath Hukkoob Educ. at Agra College Settlement, Ambala, 1885. Judicial Secretary, Marwar 1886, Member of Council, 1887. Senior Member, 1901 Minister, 1908, Udaipur Minister, 1914-18. Political and Judicial Member Regency Council, 1923-25. Officiated as its Vice President 1920. Member of Udaipur, 1930, is Baridar of first rank with judicial powers. Holds 3 villages in right of an annual rental of Rs. 25,000. Publications: *Farine Report 1890-1900, Origin of the Rathore*. Agricultural indebtedness. Address: Sikh Asiram, Jodhpur Rajpootana.

SUKTHANKAR, VISHNU SITARAM, M.A. (Cantab.), Ph.D. (Berlin), Research Scholar and Lecturer in the Post-graduate Department of the Bombay University & 4 May 1887. m. Eleanore Bowring (died 6th Aug. 1920). Educ. Maratha High School and St. Xavier's College Bombay, St. John's College, Cambridge (Engl.) and Berlin University. Formerly Asst. Superintendent Archaeological Survey Western Circle, Lecturer in the Post-graduate Department of the Bombay University, Secretary Mahabharata Editorial Board of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute Poona. Publications: *Din Grammatik Sakatayana* Leipzig, 1921, *Vasavadatta*, Oxford Univ. Press, 1923, First Critical Edition of the *Mahabharata*, 1927, Editor-in-Chief Journal of the Bombay Branch, Royal Asiatic Society. Address: Shantaram House, Malabar Hill Bombay, and Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona.

SULTAN AHMAD KHAN SIRDAR SAHIBZADA, MUSTAFIZ UD DAUL, C.I.E. (1924), M.A., LL.M. (Cantab.), Barrister at Law, son of Mirza Ud-daula, Nawab Ghulam Ahmad Khan Bahadur Ahmadji. Appeal Member since 1918. m. 1915, Lucy Poling Hall of Bristol. Educ. at the Aligarh Mahomedan Anglo-Oriental College and Christ's College, Cambridge (called to the Bar at the Inner Temple, London, April 1894. B.A., LL.B., June 1894, M.A. and LL.M. (1905), was Chief Justice, Gwalior State, 1904-8, Law Member of Council, 1909-12, Finance Member 1912-16, and Army Member, 1917, a Member of the Hunter Committee to inquire into causes of Disturbances in Delhi, Punjab, and Bombay, 1919-20. Address: Gwalior, India.

SURAJ SINGH, CAPTAIN, BANADUR, O.B.I., I.O. M. Marshal of the Legislative Assembly & 10 Feb 1878 m. Bhatnagar Educ. under private tutors. Entered army in 1898 as a private soldier, served in Somaliland 1903-04, mentioned for good service Viceroy's Commission 1907 served as Indian Staff Officer of the Cavalry School, Bangalore, 1910-14 and 1919-21, served on the staff of General Sir M. F. B. Remington, Commander of the Indian Cavalry Corps in France 1914-16, France to 1918 Egypt and Palestine to 1919, Afghan War 1919 retired on amalgamation of the Forces in 1921 granted hon rank of Captain 1923, apptd Marshal of Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921 *Publications* Khilafat Marcus Aurelius (Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius in Urdu) Guide to Physical Training for Youths Other Military books in 1901 1907 1910 and 1911 Modern Saints of the Sikhs Series, Vols. I and II in Gurumukhi, 1927 1928 *Address* Kucha Khali, Katra Karan Singh, Amritsar

SURANA SHUREKAR, b 18th Aug 1896, Senior Partner Messrs Tejpal Bridgeland, Calcutta Senior Member Calcutta University Institute since 1918 Member, Legislative Assembly (Bikaner State) 1928 Founder Surana Library, Churu (Rajputana), Asstt Secretary Jain Swatantra Terapanthi Sabha Calcutta 1930 *Address* 7/1 Armenian Street Calcutta

SUTHERLAND, LIEUT COL DAVID WATERS C.I.E., I.M.S. (Retired) as Prof of Medicine, Med Coll, Lahore & Australia, 18 Dec 1871 m. 1916 Princess Bamba Duleep Singh, d. of late Maharaja Duleep Singh Educ. Melbourne and Edinburgh Univ M.D. (Edin), M.B. O.M. (Edin), F.R.C.P. (Lond) F.R.S. (Edin), Fell Roy Soc, Med, London *Address* 23, Jail Road Lahore

SUTHERLAND, REV WILLIAM SINCLAIR M.A. B.D. (Glasgow University), Kalsar-I-Hind Gold Medal (1930) Missionary Superintendent Lady Willington Leprosy Settlement, Chingieput 8 India, b 15 July 1877, m. Elsie Ruth Nicol, M.A. of Melbourne Australia, Educ. Garnethill School University of Glasgow and Theological College of the United Free Church of Scotland at Glasgow Missionary of the United Free Church of Scotland in Chingieput District since 1906, apptd Supdt of Lady Willington Leprosy Settlement in 1925 *Address* Lady Willington Leprosy Settlement Chingieput 8 India

SWAIN, WALTER, O.I.E. (1922) M.L.C., Inspector-General of Police Behar, 1923 b Jan 17 1876 m. Annie Matilda, sec d. of Chas Fox Esq., of Carrow & Gowrie, Scotland Educ. Boeton, Grammar School Assistant Superintendent of Police, 1895, Supdt of Police, 1900, Dy Inspector-General of Police, 1910, Off Insp. Genl of Police, 1920 Delhi Durbair Medal, 1912 Volunteer Long Service Medal, 1910 King's Police Medal, 1918 *Publications* Instructions for Constables (1901) in English Kathi and Bengali, 'Advice on the Construction of Police Buldings' (1921) *Address* The Imperial Bank of India, Patna, R.I.R. and P.O. Khatla, Trans. Nkoia, Kenya Colony

SYED ABUL AAS, Zamindar b 27th Sept 1880 m. Bibi Noor-I Ayesha. Educ. Govt. City School, Patna studied privately English Arabic, Persian and Urdu has always taken keen interest in matters educational. Apptd Hon Magt at Patna 1906, served 20 years as Hon Magt 1906-26 elected member Patna Municipal Board 1906 and 1909 elected member, Asiatic Society of Bengal 1903 elected member of Bihar and Orissa Research Society, Nov 1910; member of Council of All India Muslim League Hon Asstt. Secy, Bihar and Orissa Provincial Muslim League Apptd Member of the proposed London Mosque Committee, 1911, apptd Member of the first Universal Races Congress held at Univ of London, 1911, joined Muslim Deputation which waited upon Lord Hardinge in 1914, elected Member of All-India Muslim University Assocn, 1914, elected Vice-President of Bihar Students' Association and Anjuman Islamia Patna, 1914 served 2 years as Director, Bihar and Orissa Provincial Co-operative Bank, Patna, 1917-18, nominated non-official member, Mental Hospital, Patna, 1928 *Address* Abulass Lane Bankipore, Patna.

SYED, HIR ALI IMAM, K.O.S.I. (1914), O.S.I. (1911) b Neora (Patna), 11 Feb 1869 s of Nawab Syed Imad Imam, Shamshulama m 1891, five s four d Called to Bar, Middle Temple 1899, Standing Council, Calcutta High Court, President 1st Session of the All India Muslim League held at Amritsar 1908 Mem. Muslim League Depn to England 1909 Member of Governor's Legislative Council Bengal 1910, Fellow of Calcutta University, 1908-12 Law Member of Governor-General's Council, 1910-16, Fulma Judge of Patna High Court, 1917, Member, Executive Council of Bihar and Orissa, 1918 President, Executive Council of the Government of the Nizam of Hyderabad 1919 First Indian Representative to sit at the first meeting of the League of Nations Nov 1920 *Address* Mariam Manzil, Patna also Bella Vista, Hyderabad (Deccan)

SYED MOHAMMED FAHREDDIN, The Hon KHAIR BANADUR SIK, KT (1924) B.A., B.L., Minister of Education Bihar and Orissa since 1921 b 1870 m. Musammat Kaniz Banoo of Shahkhpura Educ. at Patna Practised as a vakil in the Mofussil courts and then in the Patna High Court, was the first Government Pleader in the Patna High Court. Member, Legislative Council, Bengal, in the first reformed Council under Morley Minto Reforms Scheme served three terms in the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council was for a long time Secretary of the Bihar Provincial Muslim League Has been a Member of the Senate and Syndicate of the Patna University from its establishment *Address* Bankipore, Patna

SYED MOHMMUD RAHMAN, B.A., LL.B., M.R.A.S., F.R.S.A. (London), M.L.C., High Court Pleader, Akola, born at Saugor, 1893 educated at Allahabad and Allahabad, Senior Vice President, Akola Municipal Board (the premier Municipality of Berar), 1925-1928 Officer-in-Charge of the Akola Municipality

1926 Chairman School Board, Akola Municipality 1925-1927 Member, Governing Body Government High School Akola, (1928-30) Member, C P Legislative Council since 1928 nominated to the Panel of Chairman C P Council Deputy Leader, Democratic Party (Majority Party) (C P Legislative Council Member Governing Body C P and Bharat Literary Academy, Member Executive Council All India Muslim League and All India Muslim Conference President, Anjuman Mufidul Islam Akola, Member, Central Khilafat Committee, some time Hon. Member the *Al-Haq*, Nagpur Member Historical Records Commission (1928), Chairman, Reception Committee, Madras Educational Conference (1928) President C P and Bharat All Parties Muslim Conference, 1928 Address

SIR SIDDIQ AHMED KHAN created Nawab Sir Sir Nawab Jung Bahadur, 1221 Postmaster General of H. E. H. the Nizam's Dominions 1923-1929 b 20th March 1870 oldest surviving s of Late Nawab Sir Sir Durr Jung Bahadur C I F, some time Home Secretary at Hyderabad in 1896 five s two s Educ. privately Entered the Nizam's service 1911 has held several responsible positions, including the Commissioned ownership of (Burgha) Province presented Georgian and Queen Mary Historical Furniture to the National Collection at Victoria Memorial Hall Calcutta 1908 *Publications* Lord Curzon's *Admiral's* *Trifolium* of India 1905 *Trifolium* in India 1907, *Historical Furniture 1908 India of To-day* 1908 *Life of Lord Morley* 1928 *The Earl of Reading* 1924 *British India*, 1930, *The Indian Muslims* 1938 contributions to the English and Indian Press with regard to the Indian political situation Address Hyderabad Deccan

SIR SID RAZA AIL, C B E Member, Public Service Commission (1926) B.A. LL.B. (Allahabad Univ.) b 29 April 1882 m s of his mother's first cousin Educ. Government High School Moradabad and Mahomedan College Aligarh Started practice at Moradabad in 1906 and was a radical in politics, returned to U P Legis. Council 1912, took prominent part in Cawnpore Mosque agitation, elected Trustee of Aligarh College, gave evidence before Labington Commission and Southborough Committee, returned unopposed to U P Council in 1916 and 1920 was one of those responsible for introducing separate Moslem representation in Municipal Boards in U P took active part in negotiating the Congress League Compact in 1916, same year settled at Allahabad, identified himself with Swaraj and Khilafat movements but strongly differing from non-co operation programme, became independent in politics 1930 member of Council of State 1921-1926 elected member of Delhi University Court, was member of North West Inquiry Committee and signed majority report headed two deputations of Moslem members of Indian Legislature to Viceroy in 1922 and 1923 in connection with Turkish question gave non-party evidence before Reforms Inquiry Committee in

1924, President All-India Moslem League, Bombay Session, Decr 1924 Member Govt of India's Deputation to South Africa (1924-1926) Substantive Delegate Government of India's Delegation to Assembly of League of Nations, Geneva, 1925 *Publications* *Essays on Modern Questions* by *Essays on Modern Questions* (1912), *My Impressions of Soviet Russia*, (1920) Address Delhi and Simla

SYKES, MAJOR GENERAL THE RIGHT HON. SIR FREDERICK I C, O I E, C B E, K C P C M O, Governor of Bombay b 23 July 1877, son of Henry Sykes, Addiscombe m 1920 Isahel, s of late Lt Hon A Honar Law one s 15th (The *King's*) *Russians*, and Lt 1901, Lt 1903 Capt 1908 Lt Major 1913 Lt Col 1915 Lt Col 1918 Major General, 1918, employed with West African Regt 1901-4 Intelligents Branch India 1905-8 passed Staff Coll., 1908 O G S O War Office, 1911-12 Commander, Royal Flying Corps Military Wbu, 1912 which he joined and commanded till 1914 some time commanding R F C France, 1914-15 temp Colonel (and Commander) Royal Marines and Wing Captain R F C (Naval Wing) whilst commanding Royal Naval Air Service in the Mediterranean 1914-16 A A and Q M O 1916 A A G War Office 1916 Brig General and Deputy Director War Office 1917 Brigadier General General Staff Supreme War Council Versailles, 1917-18 Major Gen and Chief of the Air Staff 1918-19 Controller General of Civil Aviation 1919-22 served Imperial Command and Commander-in-Chief of the Body guard in African War 1900-01 (severely wounded) Quatermaster with (Lancs) European War 1914-18 (in squares five times, Bc Lt Col Bc Col (M G C B) Member of Imperial War Cabinet (Chief of Air Section, British Delegation at Peace Conference, 1919), *Croix de Commandeur de la Légion d'Honneur* *Croix de Commandeur de l'Ordre de Leopold Belgium* *Vladimir of Russia* Distinguished Service Medal (I S A) Order of the Rising Sun Japan Member of Council of the Royal Aeronautical and Royal Geographical Societies *Lessons* *Lecturer at Cambridge University*, 1921 Director of Underground Electric, London General Omnibus, Anglo-Argentine Tramsways, Marconi Wireless Telegraph, and other Companies Chairman of the Government Broadcasting Board, 1923-28 (Chairman Vice-Chairman or member of numerous Government Committees 1922-28 *Publications* *Aviation in Peace and War*, 1923 and numerous articles, on Political Communications Distance Transport Air and other subjects in various reviews, etc. Address Government House Bombay

TAGORE, ABANINDRA NATH, C I E, Vice Zomindar of Shandipur, Bengal, b 1871 Educ. Sanskrit Coll, Calcutta, and at home Designed Memorial Address to Lady Curzon Oasket presented to King by Corp. of Calcutta 1911, principal work consists in reviving School of Indian Art. Address b Dwar Kanath Tagore's Lane, Calcutta

TAGORE, MAHARAJA BHADUR SRI PRODYOT
CHAKRA, Kt b 17 September 1873,
Edue Hindu Sch., Calcutta, afterwards
 privately Sheriff of Calcutta, 1909. Trustee,
 Victoria Memorial Hall, Trustee, Indian Museum.
 Fellow, Royal Photographic Society of Great
 Britain. Member of Asiatic Soc. of Bengal,
 formerly Memr., Bengal Council. *Address*
 Tagore Castle, Calcutta.

TAGORE, SRI RAHINDRANATH, Kt, D Lit.
 (Calcutta Univ.), b 1881 *Edue* privately
 lived at Calcutta first, went to country
 at age of 24 to take charge of his father's
 estates; there he wrote many of his
 works, at age of 40 founded school at Shantiniketan,
 Bolpur in 1921 this has been his life-
 work ever since, visited England 1912, and
 translated some of his Bengali works into
 English Nobel Prize for Literature, 1913
Publications In Bengali about 35 political
 works, dramas, operas about 33, Story books
 Novels 19, over 60 collections of Essays on
 Literature, Art, Religion and other subjects,
 and composed over 3000 songs published
 periodically in small collections with
 notations in English—Gitanjali, 1912
 The Gardener, 1913 The Crescent Moon,
 1915 Chitra, 1918 The King of the Dark
 Chamber 1914 Post Office, 1914 Sadhana
 1914 Kabir's Poems 1915 Fruit-Gathering
 1916 Humry Stones and other Stories,
 1916 Stray Birds 1916 My Reminiscences
 1917 Sacrifice and other Plays 1917 The
 Cycle of Spring, 1917 Personality, 1917
 Nationalism, 1917 Lover's Gift and Crossing,
 1918 Maah and other Stories 1918 Stories
 from Tagore, 1918 The Parrot's Training,
 1918 The Home and the World 1919
 Gitanjali and Fruit-Gathering, 1919
 The Fugitive, 1921 The Wreck, 1921
 Glimpses of Bengal, 1921 Thoughts Before,
 1921 Creative Unity, 1922 Greater India,
 1922 Gore, 1924 Letters from Abroad,
 1923 Red Oleanders, 1924 Talks in China
 1924 Broken Ties 1924 Red Oleanders,
 a drama, 1925 Fireflies, 1928 Letters to
 a Friend (Unwin) 1929 Thoughts from Tagore
 (Macmillan) 1929, The Tagore Birthday Book
 (1929) Contributes regularly to the Vishwa
 Bharathi Quarterly issued from Shantiniketan,
 Bolpur

TAMBE, SHERPAD BALWANT, B.A., LL.B.
 Home Member, Central Provinces, Govern-
 ment b 8 Dec. 1875 *Edue* Jabalpur (Hikita
 rini School), Amravati, Anglo-Vernacular and
 High School and Bombay Elphinstone
 College and Govt. Law School. Pleader at
 Amravati. Member and Vice-President of
 Amravati Town Municipal Committee. Presi-
 dent, Provincial Congress Committee, Mem-
 ber, U P Legis. Council 1917-1920 and 1924.
 President, U P Legis. Council, March 1925.
 Ag. Governor Central Provinces, 1929
Address Nagpur, C P

TANNAN, MORAN LAL, M. Com (Birm), Bar
 at Law, 1885, J.P., Principal, Sydenham
 College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay
 b 2 May 1885 m Mrs C Chopra *Edue*
 at Govt High School, Gujrat, Forman
 Christian Coll., Lahore, and the University
 of Birmingham. Official Liquidator of the
 Industrial Bank of India, Ltd., in liquida-

tion and the Jt Official Liquidator, the Indian
 Army Uniform Supplying Co., Ltd., in
 Liquidation (both of Ludhiana, Punjab),
 President, 16th Indian Economic Conference,
 1927 Vice-President, the Indian Economic
 Society, 1931-23 Member of the Finance
 Sub Committee of the Indian Merchants
 Chamber and Bureau, Bombay (1931-22);
 Syndic of the Bombay University, 1923-24 to
 1927-28 Secretary, Accountancy Diploma
 Board, Bombay from 1st March 1927; Director,
 Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd.,
 Bombay, 1924 Member Council, Indian As-
 sociate of Bankers, Member, Auditors Council,
 Bombay, Principal and Prof. of Banking,
 the Sydenham Coll. of Commerce and Econo-
 mics, Bombay Chairman, Ex Committee
 of the Seventh Indian Economic Confn.
 (Bombay) *Publications* "Banking Law
 and Practice in India Indian Currency
 and Banking Problems" jointly with Prof
 K T Shah, B.A. (Bom) B.Sc. (Econ)
 London and several pamphlets such as the
 Banking Needs of India, Indian Currency
 and the War etc *Address* The Sydenham
 College of Commerce and Economics, Hornby
 Road, Bombay

TATA, SRI DORAJI JAMSETJI Kt J P
 Senior Partner, Tata Sons, Ltd. b 27th Aug
 1859 s of late Jamsetji Nusserwanji Tata, m
 1898, Meherbai d of H J Bhabha *Edue*
 Chalus Coll. (Hon. Fellow) Camb., Bombay
 Univ *Address* Esplanade House, Wandby
 Road, Bombay

TEGART, SIR CHARLES AUGUSTUS, Kt C.I.E.
 M.V.O. Commissioner of Police, Calcutta b.
 1881 *Edue* Portora Royal Sch., Enniskillen.
 Trinity Coll., Dublin joined Indian Police
 officiated as Dy Insp.-Gen of Police, Calcutta
 1901 *Address* Calcutta

TEHRI MAJOR W H RAJA NARENDRA SHA
SARAS BHADUR, O.S.I. of Tehri-Garhwal
 State b 8 Aug 1896 m 1916 Edir-apparent
 born 1921 Succeeded 1919 *Edue*,
 Mayo College Ajmer *Address* Narendranagar
 (Tehri-Garhwal State)

THAKORRAM KAPILRAM DIWAN BHADUR,
 B.A., LL.B., C.I.E. Vakil, High Court and
 Dist Govt Pleader and Public Prosecutor
 b. 16 April 1868 m. Ratangvari, d. of Keshevar
 Amritrai *Edue* at Bhavnagar Alfred High
 School and Elphinstone College, Bombay
 Apptd. teacher in Govt Scotch J J High
 School of Surat and began practice at Surat
 in 1894, Entered Municipality in 1904, be-
 came Chairman, Schools Committee 1907
 1909 and 1911 and Chairman Managing Com-
 mittee in 1908 and 1917-18 Vice-President
 of the Municipality in 1911 to 1914 and
 President in 1914-17 and again in 1925 for
 the triennium 1923-31. Appointed Chairman,
 Committee of management in 1922-25.
 Chairman of School Board in 1925 Chairman
 of the Balchand Deepchand Girls' School
 Committee and Chairman of the People's
 Co-operative Bank Ltd. Appointed a
 member of the Pract Committee, and witness
 before the Royal Reform Commission, 1910.
 Vice-President, Surat Sarva-janik Education
 Society, 1927-28 *Address* Athwa Lines,
 Surat.

THAKUR, Rao HARADON KASHINATH KESAV, I.A.O., Sec. Div and Sub Judge, Nagpur since 1911; A. 15 Feb. 1930, Sec. Nagar and Jubharpore H. R.; Muir Central Coll., Alambad, Address Nagpur

THOMAS GEORGE AKTHUR, B.A., C.I.E. (1925) Commissioner in Sind since 1924; 4 May, 1877 m. Gwenllian Dorothy d. of Dean Howell Esq., Clifton College and Emmanuel Coll., Cambridge, 1st Class Classical Tripos; Joined I.C.S. in 1900, Asst. Collr. Belgaum, Bijapur and Dharwar, Asst. Collr. Customs, Bombay; Collr. of Customs, Madras, Collr. of Kolaba and Hyderabad, Sind, Secretary Revenue Department General Department and again Rev. Department and Chief Secretary, Member, Council of State; 1927 Ag. Commissioner in Sind (1928) Address Karachi

THOMPSON, Sir JOHN PERROWE, K.C.L.E. (1928), C.B.I. (1919) Chief Commissioner of Delhi, 1928, 8 March 1873 m. Ada Lucia, d. of the late R. V. Tyrrell, Litt. D. Senior Fellow, Trinity Coll., Dublin, Esq. Leeds Gr. Sch. and Trin. Coll. Cambridge, 1st Class Classical Tripos, President of the Union (1886) Entered I.C.S., 1897 Ch. Sec. Punjab, 1916 Member of Indian Leg Council, 1918-19, Member of Reforms Committee, 1918-19, President Railway Police Commission, 1921 Political Secretary Foreign and Political Department, 1923-28 Member of Council of State, 1923-27 Chief Commissioner of Delhi, and Member of Council of State 1928, formerly President, Punjab Historical Society and Fellow and Syndic of the Punjab University Address Delhi

THULRAI, TALQADAR OF RAMA SIR SHKORAJ SIKH BAHADUR OF KHAJURGAON K.C.L.E. Rai Bareilly District b. 1865 m. 1st, d. of Babu Amarjit Singh, y. b. of the Raja of Majhoul 2nd, d. of Raja Somesundar Singh, a Raja of Kundwar, 3rd, d. of the Raja of Bijapur District Educ. Govt. H. S., Rai Bareilly 8 father 1897 descended from King Salivahan whose Sunvat Era is current in India His Kurwar Lal Elma Natt Singh Bahadur Address Thulrai, Khajurgao.

TODHUNTER, Sir CHARLES GEORGE, K.C.S.I. (1921) Fellow of the Royal Asiatic and Royal Historical Societies, b. 16 Feb. 1869 Educ. Aldenham Sch. and King's Coll., Cambridge, Members priseman, Cambridge University, 1888 m. Alice, O.B.E., K.I.H. d. of Captain O. Loack, 63rd Highlanders Served in I.C.S., Madras, also conducted special inquiries into Customs and Excise matters in Kashmir, the O.P. and C.I. States Soc., Indian Excise Committee, 1906, I.O. of Excise and Salt to the Govt. of India 1908-1920 President, Life Saving Appliances Committee, 1918, Secretary to Govt. of Madras, 1918, Member of Board of Revenue, 1918 Member of Executive Council, 1919-21 President, Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee, 1924-26, Member, Council of State, 1928 Private Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore Address Vasantha Mahal, Mysore

TORRE, H. H. AMYD UP-DATTA WAZIRUL MULK KAWAR SIR HAYAT MOHAMMAD IBRAHIM AMI KHAN BAHADUR SAULA JANG, G.O.I.E.,

G.O.S.I. b. 1848 s. 1867 State has area of 16,31,058 acres and population of over 887,398. Address Tonk, Rajputana

TOTTENHAM, Sir ALEXANDER ROBERT LORTON, B.T. (1891), C.I.E. (1925) M.A., I.C.S., Member, Central Board of Revenue, b. 31 July 1873 Educ. Clifton College and Queens College Oxford, joined I.C.S., Madras 1897-1903 Asst. Collector Sub-Officer, Secretary, Board of Revenue (Collector and Com. of I.T. and Member, Board of Revenue, Member Central Board of Revenue 1923 Address Central Board of Revenue Finance Department, Government of India, Delhi and Simla

TRAVANCORE AND COCHIN, SOUTH INDIA, BISHOP in Br. Rev. E. A. L. MOORE M.A. b. Nov. 15, 1870 Educ. Marlborough Coll. and at Oriel Coll. Oxford, Lurate at Aston, Birmingham 1894-96 Missionary of the C.M.S. in S. India from November 1896, C.M.S. Divinity School Madras, 1898-1914 C.M.S. College, Kottayam, 1903-1908, Chairman, O.M.S. District Council, Tinnevely, 1915-1924 Consecrated Bishop on 24 Feb. 1925 Address Bishop's House, Kottayam

TRAVERS WALTER LANGLIST, C.I.E. (1925), O.B.E. (1918), M.L.C. Chairman, Doon Planters Association 1914-20, Vice-Chairman, 1921-1924 Member, Bengal Legislative Council 1920 and of Reformed Council 1921-23 and 1924 to date, Leader, British Group President, European Association, 1929 Member, Jalpalguri District Board 1914-24 Captain (ret'd) North Bengal Mounted Rifles, Address Baradighi Tea Estate, Baradighi P.O., Jalpalguri and Bengal Club, Calcutta

ULENCH, WILLIAM LAUCILOT CHORNER, B.A., M. Inst. C.E. Supt. Engineer I.W.D. b. 23 July 1881, m. Margaret Zephania Huddleston Educ. at Leys School and Dulham University, Indian Service of Engineers. Address c/o P.W.D. Secretariat, Bombay

TURNER CHARLES WILLIAM ALDIS B.A., C.I.E. (1928), I.C.S. Secretary to Government General Dept. Bombay, 8 July 80, 1879 Educ. King Edward VI School Norwich and Magdalen Coll. Oxford Appointed Asst. Collector, Bom. Presidency in 1903 Settlement Officer, Dharwar Dist. 1908-10, Under Secretary Revenue and Finance Departments Bombay, 1912-15, Cantonment Magr. Ahmednagar, 1917-1919 Collector, Ahmednagar 1919-21 Personal Asst. to Lord Lee, Chairman, Public Services Commission 1923-24 Ag. Secretary, Political Department, 1924 Secretary, General Department, 1924-1929 and Secretary, Political Department and Reforms Officer in addition 1930 Address Secretariat, Bombay

TYABJI HIRSHI BADEDDIE, M.A. (Honours), LL.M. (Honours), Camb. 1894, Bar-at-Law Second Judge, Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay acted Chief Judge (retired) b. 11 October 1878 m. Miss Nasir Mohammad Fatehally Educ. Anjuman-e-Islam, Bombay, St. Xavier's School and College, Downing College, Cambridge Practised in the Bombay High Court. Address Almasat, Wankarwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay,

ULLAH, HAY KHAN Archdeacon of Delhi, Archdeacon in Lahore Diocese from 1910-1915 Canon of the Lahore Cathedral 1915-1922 retired 1924 and Spalding Missionary of Toba Tek Singh Mission 6 1887 *Edna*, Baring H S, Batala Lahore Div Coll. Address C/o Q. Khan Ullah, Bag MA, B.T., P S S, Lecturer, Muklan College, Muklan.

UMAR HAYAT KHAN FIWANA THE HON COLONEL NAWAB HANA MALIK SIR K.C.I.B., C.B.E., M.V.O., Member, Council of State Member of the Council of the Secretary of State for India, Landlord 6 1874 *Edna* Aitchison Chiefs College, Lahore, was given Hon Commission in 18th K.G.O. attended King Edward's Coronation Durbar at Delhi served in Somaliland joined Tibet Expedition, was attached to the late Amir of Afghanistan attended King George's Coronation Durbar at Delhi, saw action and service in the world war in France and Mesopotamia. *Mona Star* 1914 Member Provincial Recruiting Board, represented Punjab, Delhi War Conference in 1915, served in the 3rd Kabul War (mentioned in despatches) made Colonel Member, Esher Committee 1920, has been President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India Address Kaira, Dist Shahpur, Punjab

URQUHART DR WILLIAM SPENON MA D Litt (Aberd.) D.D. (Hon Aberd.) Doctor of Law D.J. (Hon Calcutta) Vice-Chancellor (Calcutta University 1924-1930) Principal Scottish Church (Calcutta since 1928 6 1877 as Margaret Macaskill, d of Rev MURDOCH Macaskill, Dingwall *Edna* Aberdeen University New College, Edinburgh Marburg University Göttingen University Professor of Philosophy Duff College Calcutta 1902 Scottish Churches College 1908 Member Indian Universities Congress 1924 and 1929 Dean of the Faculty of Arts Calcutta University 1917, Vice-Chancellor Calcutta University 8th August 1928 to Aug 7th 1930 Principal Scottish Church College since 1928 *Publications* The Historical and the Eternal Christ (1916) Psephism and the Value of Life (1919) Theosophy and Christian Thought (1922) Vedanta and Modern Thought, (1928) Contributor to Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics Address Principals House Scottish Church College, Calcutta

VAKIL, SIRDAR SIR RUSTOM JENAVDIR, KT (1924), Khana Bahadur (1907) First Class Sirdar of Gujarat (1911) Minister in the Bombay Govt (1930) 6 Sept 1878 m. Tehmina s of Dr D E Kothawala Civil Surgeon retired Bombay Medical Service *Edna* Gujarat Coll Ahmedabad Since 1901 Managing Farmer in Nowroji Pestonji & Co, Govt Salt Agents Pioneer of Magnesium Chloride Industry in India, President, Dist Local Board for many years member of Ahmedabad Municipality Dist Scout Commissioner, into Officer Commanding D Coy 12 Bombay Pioneers and Divisional Superintendent Bk John Ambulance Brigade Ahmedabad Since 1925 was member of Imperial Legislative Council from 1918 to 19, has extensively travelled in European

countries, Chairman and Director of several industrial concerns and Railway Boards, helped Government during the War in recruitment of combatants and non-combatants and was awarded medal and certificate by H E Lord Willingdon First Class Magistrate independently in charge of a whole Division since 1911 Address The Rectory, Shahu Bag, Ahmedabad

VAUX, MAJOR HERBERT GREGOR, C.B.I. (1928) C.I.B. (1921), M.V.O. (1922) Military Secretary to the Governor of Bombay 6 1882. as The Baroness Edna von Stockhausen (American), 1916 *Edna*, St Lawrence School, joined the Army 1906, A.D.C. to Governor of Victoria, 1908 to 11, A.D.C. to Governor of Madras, 1911, A.D.C. to Governor of Bengal, 1912-14, Military Secretary to Lord Carmichael, 1914 to 17, Military Secretary to Lord Ronaldshay, 1917 to 22, Military Secretary to Earl of Lytton, 1922-23 Military Secretary to Sir George Lloyd, 1923-24 Military Secretary to Sir Leslie Wilson, 1925-28 Military Secretary to Sir Frederick Sykes since 1928 Address Government House Bombay

VELINKER, SHRIKRISHNA GUNAJI, B.A., LL.B. (Bombay) J.P. (1908), Holder of Certificate of Honour, Council of Legal Education Triality (1909), of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn, Bar at Law, Triality (1909) 6 12 April 1868 m. to Prabavutal, d of Rao Bahadur Mahomed Ramchander Executive Engineer, Bombay *Edna* St. Xavier's College, Bombay Enrolled as pleader, High Court Bombay, in January 1898 called to the Bar in June 1909 In prominent practice in the High Court Bombay and eminent courts of the Presidency One of the Commissioners appointed under the Defence of India Act to try culprits in Ahmedabad and Viramgam areas and murder cases, 1919, President, Tribunal of Appeal under City of Bombay Improvement Act, Sept 1921 to April 1923, Secy P J Hindu Gymkhana, 1897-1903 *Publications* Law of Gaming and Wagering and the Law of Compulsory Land Acquisition and Compensation Address Ratan House, 426 Lannington Road (South) Bombay

VENKATASUBBA RAO, THE HON MR JUSTICE M.A. B.L. Judge, High Court Madras 6 18 July 1878 *Edna* Free Church Mission Institution Madras Christian College and Madras Law College Was enrolled High Court Vakil in 1903 Practised from 1903-1921 in partnership with Mr V. Radhakrishnaiah under the firm name of Messrs Venkatasubba Rao and Radhakrishnaiah Had a large and leading practice on the Original Side of the High Court Election Commissioner 1921-22, apptd to the High Court Bench 17 Nov 1921 President Anandana Samajam, The Madras Sava Sadan Depressed Classes Mission Society and Dist Scout Council Vice-President, Provincial Scout Council Address Peversey, Nungambaukum, Madras

VENKATASWETA CHALAPATI RUNGIA, RAO BHADUR, MAHARAJA SRI RAYU, MAHARAJA OF BOBBILI, G.C.I.B., C.B.E., Maharajah, 1900, Ancient Zamindar of Bobbili, 6 28 Aug 1862 Address Bobbili,

Western India Liberal Association from 1919-27 Was Secretary, Bombay Presidency Association from 1888 to 1916 and President from 1916 to 1918 Was President of the First Bombay Provincial Liberal Conference in 1923, a Chairman and Trustee of People's Free Reading Room and Library since 1917 Publications Pamphlets on Indian Finance, Currency and Economics Agricultural Condition of India, Railways, Currency, Temperance, Military Expenditure, etc., formerly large contributor to leading Indian newspapers and journals for 45 years from 1875 also had published History of Share Speculation, 1863-44, Life of Premchand Roychand, Life of J. N. Tata, see Rise and Growth of the Bombay Municipal Government, four papers on Indian Commerce and Statistics and My Recollections of Bombay (1890-78) Address 311 House, Kavelin Street, Fort, Bombay

WADIA, BOKANJI JANEHI, M.A., LL.B. (Univ. of Bombay) Barrister-at-Law b 4 Aug. 1883 at Rahatibai Hormuji Wadia and subsequently to Perin Nowroji Chintoy of Secunderabad Educ. St. Xavier's College, Bombay and at the Inner Temple, London for the Bar, 1904-6 Was Principal, Govt. Law College, Bombay, 1919-1925 Acting Puisne Judge of the High Court of Bombay for two months from 5th June 1923 and again from January to October 1923 and from 1st Feb to October 1930 Address Quetta Terrace Chowpatty, Bombay

WADIA, C. N. OLE (1919), Millowner b 1899 Educ. King's Coll., London Joined his father's firm, 1938, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association (1918) Address Pedder House, Gumballa Hill, Bombay

WADIA, JANKUNJI ANDARABA, J.P., 1900 Merchant, b 21 Oct. 1867 Educ. Elphinstone Sch. and Coll. and served apprenticeship in Dickinson Arnold & Co. of London, Promoter and Director of Cotton and other industrial concerns Member of Bombay Mun. Corps, from 1901-1921 Publications Writer on Industrial and Economic subjects published two pamphlets against closing of the Minto Address Wilderness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay

WADIA SIR NUSSEERWANJI NOWROOJI K.B.E., O.L.E., M.L.M.B., J.P., Millowner b 30 May 1878 at Evelyn Clara Powell Educ. St. Xavier's College Chairman of the Bombay Millowners' Association, 1912 and 1925 Address Stacey House, Pedder Road, Bombay

WADIA, PERSOONJI ANDARABA, M.A., Professor of Philosophy and History Wilson College, Bombay, b 16 Dec. 1878 Educ. Elphinstone College, Bombay Publications The Philosophers and the French Revolution Zoroastrianism and our Spiritual Heritage Inquiry into the Principles of Theosophy, The Wealth of India, Money and the Money Market in India, An Introduction to Ivanhoe and History of India Address Hornumad Villa, Malabar Hill, Bombay

WALI MAHMOUD HUSSEINALLY, KHAN BARADUR, B.A., LL.B., son of the late Hon'ble Khwa Bahadur Husseinali Beg Edindi, Turkish Consul and Founder of the Sind Madras-

sah-bul-Jahan, Karachi was Member, Legislative Assembly and Fellow, Bombay University Retired Deputy Collector, is Special First Class Magistrate and Landed Proprietor; b 6 Dec. 1880. Witower Educ. Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School Bombay Served Govt. in various departments for 23 years retired in 1915 Address Devoti Villa, McKell Road, Feroz Town, Karachi

WALKER, GEORGE LOUIS, Solicitor and Notary Public, Partner, Messrs. Ibbotson and Co., Registrar of the Diocese of Bombay, b 25 September, 1879 son to Agnes Miriel Porter, daughter of Col. R. S. Porter Dy. Lieutenant of County of Lancaster Educ. Liverpool College War Service, France and Belgium, 4th Aug. 1914 to November 1919 promoted Lieut.-Col. R.F.A. Retired, 1921 Address Byalla Club

WALLACE, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE EDWARD HAMILTON M.A. (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon.), Judge, High Court, Madras, b 15 May 1873 at Anna Richmond Miller London, Educ. High School, Glasgow Glasgow Univ. Balliol Coll., Oxford Passed I.C.S., 1895 Served in Madras Presidency since 1896 Judge of Chief Court Mysore State, 1912 11 Address Cathedral Gardens Madras.

WALWYN, REAR-ADMIRAL HUMPHREY THOMAS, C.B. D.S.O. Flag Officer Commanding Royal Indian Marine, Bombay, b 25th January 1870, 2nd son of the late Col. J. Walwyn, Croftly Bwla, Monmouth in 1912 Eileen Mary van Straubenzee, one daughter of H. M. S. Britannia, Dartmouth Went to sea in H. M. S. Camperdown, January 1898, qualified as Gunner Lieut. 1904 and obtained the Egerton Memorial Prize, Gunner Lieut. of H. M. S. Drake under Prince Louis, H.M.S. Superb, Neptune, Commander 1912, H. M. S. Warpite, 1916-17 (D.S.O.), Capt. 1916, in command destroyer flotillas and Senior Officer Mediterranean Destroyers, 1923, Director of Gunner Division, Naval Staff Admiralty 1924-26, Naval A.D.C. to the King 1927 Flag Officer Commanding Royal Indian Marine, Bombay, 1928 Address Admirals' House, Bombay

WANKAR, CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SRI SRI AMARSWAMI, RAJ SAKES OF KOLH b 4 Jan. 1879, c. 1881 Educ. Rajkumar Coll. State has area of 417 sq. miles, and population of 86,824 Salute, 11 guns Address Wankar Kothlawar

WARD, COLONEL HENRY CHARLES SWINBURNE, C.I.E. (1920), O.D.E. (1916) and Serbian Order of White Eagle (1917), b 12 June 1879 Educ. Winchester and Sandhurst, 1st Comm. 1901, Joined 2nd Bengal Lancers, 1901, Staff College, 1911 11, War 1913-1917 various staff appointments Afghan operations, 1919, G.S.O. 1st Division commanded 2nd Lancers, 1921 22, A.G. Army Headquarters, 1923-25 A.A. and Q.M.G. C.P. District, 1925-26, A.Q.M.G., Southern Command H.Q. 1926-27 retired on 1st April 1927, apptd. Chief of Staff, Bhopal, 1st April 1927, Army Member, Bhopal State Council, 1st May 1928. Address Bhopal, C.I.

WATKIN, FREDERICK BLUNT, M.B.E., V.D.
Member of the Institute of Transport,
Agent to M. & S. M. Railway, 1926 & June
15, 1977 m. Dec 16, 1918, *London* Walter
Edw. St. Paul's School, London Joined
Eastern Bengal Railway, 22nd August 1896,
Madras Railway, 1902, as Asst. Traffic
Manager, afterwards Secretary to Agent,
subsequently appointed Deputy Traffic
Manager After amalgamation of Southern
Maharatta and Madras Railways in 1908,
appointed District Traffic Superintendent
of the Amalgamated system (Madras
and Southern Maharatta Railway), acted
Secretary to Indian Railway Conference
Association 1911, Dy. Traffic Manager, M. &
S. M. Railway General Traffic Manager
M. & S. M. Railway, 1916 Chairman Traffic
Committee Indian Railway Conference
Association, November 1921 to March 1923,
Chairman of Madras Port Trust, 1923
Hon. Colonel and Commandant of the M. &
S. M. Railway Rifles Auxiliary Force, India
Address 'Motetorev, Poyampet Madras.

WATSON, ALFRED HENRY, Editor, Statesman
Calcutta. & 1874. m. Isabelle Morland Beck
& 1927 *Edw.* Rutherford College, London
Editor, *Newcastle Leader* 1895-1902, News
Editor, *Westminster Gazette* 1902-5, Manager,
1909-1921, Managing Editor, 1921 Editor, the
Statesman, 1925 *Publications* Papers on
Tariff Questions and the Most Trust. *Address*
Statesman Office, Calcutta.

WATSON, SIR CHARLES CUMINGHAM, K.C.I.E.
(1929), C.S.I. (1929), C.I.E. (1918) Secretary
Foreign and Political Dept., Government
of India & 1874. m. 1912 Phyllis Marlon, d.
of A. Field, Hove, Sussex *Edw.* Edinburgh
Univ., Christ Church, Oxford, Entered
I.C.S., 1897 Asst. Collr., Poona, 1898 1901,
Political Agent in Kathiawar, 1901-3, First
Asst. to the Agent to the Governor
General in Rajputana, 1904-8 Private
Secretary to H. E. the Governor of
Bombay, 1909-12, Secretary the Govern-
ment of Bombay, Political and Judicial
Departments, 1912-14 Commissioner
Ajmer, 1915-16 Deputy Secretary,
Government of India Political Department,
1916-17 Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana
States, 1917-21, Political A.D.C. to Secre-
tary of State for India, 1921 Ag. Agent to
the Governor-General in Rajputana, 1923
Ag. Resident, Mysore, 1924. A.G.G. in
Western India States 1924-28 *Address* The
Foreign Office, Simla

WATSON, HERBERT EMMETT, D.Sc. (Lond.)
F.I.C. M.I. Chem. & Fellow of University
Coll. London, Professor of General Chemistry,
Indian Institute of Science, & 1886 m. 1917
Miss M. K. Brown. *Edw.* Marlborough
Coll., London, Berlin, Göttingen and Cambridge
Universities, Assst. Prof., Indian Institute of
Science, 1911 apptd. Prof. of General Chemis-
try in 1915 *Publications*: Numerous papers
on physical chemistry and allied subjects.
Address Indian Institute of Science, Hebbal,
Bangalore

WAZIR WAZAN, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE, B.A., LL.B.
Chief Judge of Oudh. *Edw.* Gov-
ernment High School, Ballia, Mair Central
College, Allahabad, M. A. O. College, Aligarh.

Joined the Lucknow Bar in 1903, Secretary,
All-India Muslim League from 1912-29, was
instrumental in bringing about Hindu-Muslim
Pact of 1916 appointed Judicial Commissioner
of Oudh in 1920, and Chief Judge of Oudh,
February 1930 *Address* Lucknow

WHISTLER, JOHN HOWARD, C.I.E., C.I.B., I.C.S.
Commr., Burma Valley, Assam, since
1912 & Banah, 3 Sept. 1871 *Edw.* Char-
terhouse, Trinity Hall, Cam. Mus. I.C.S.,
1891 *Address* Shillong

WHIR, MAJOR-GENERAL G.A., C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.
General Officer Commanding Bombay
District & 1st Dec 1876 m. 1917, Margaret
Irene, d. of Robert More, Woodgate Place,
Saxhill *Edw.* Harrow, Trinity College,
Cambridge Capt. (1902), Major (1912) served
South Africa, 1899-1901 (despatches two),
Queen's Medal & Clasp European War,
1914-18 (wounded), despatches D.S.O.
Bt Lt Col and Col Officer of St. Maurice
and St. Lazarus Croix de Guerre avec
palme Commandant, Requisition School and
Inspector of Cavalry, 1922-28 *Address*
Bombay District Headquarters, Amaye
Building, Colaba

WESTOOTT, Rt. Rev. F., see Calcutta, Bishop of

WHITER, MAJOR FREDERICK NORMAN, C.I.B. M.D.
Asst. Dir.-Gen., I.M.S. (Sanitary)
1914, Sanitary Commr., Govt. of India,
Punjab. *Address* c/o Gladys, & Co., Bombay

WHITTY, JOHN TANZON, C.I.E.
Commissioner, Mumbarpur *Edw.* Chilton Coll.,
New Coll., Oxford, Univ. Coll., London. M.A.
I.C.S., 1894. *Address* Mumbarpur

WHITWORTH, CHARLES STANLEY, C.I.E.
(1937), Chief Mining Engineer to the Govt. of
India (Railway Dept.) & 14 June 1886
Attached to Mining Dept., North Western
Railway, 1900-12 Asst. Coal Supt., Indian
State Railways, 1913-14 lost to G.I.P. Ry.,
1914-17 Officiated as Mining Engineer and
Technical Adviser to Coal Controller, 1918-20
Apptd. Chief Mining Engineer Railway Board,
1921, Member Indian Coal Committee,
1925 Presdt. Indian Coal Grading Board,
1927-28-29 *Address* Bengal Club Calcutta

WILES, GILBERT M.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E.
(1926) C.S.I. (1921) Financial Secretary to
Government of Bombay & 25 March 1880
m. Winifred Mary Fryer *Edw.* Persé
School and St. Cath. College, Cambridge Joined
I.C.S. in India 1904, Asst. Collector and Asst.
Political Agent, Supt., Land Records, 1910,
Asst. Collr. and Collector 1914-1920, Chairman
Cotton Contracts Board 1918-1920, Deputy
Secretary, Home Department, 1921-23 Secy
General Department 1923, Secy. Finance
Department, since 1923, President, Bombay
Art Society, since 1926 *Address* Secretariat,
Bombay

WILKINSON, HENRY RUSSELL, B.A., C.I.E.
(1927), I.C.S. Magistrate Collector, Chit-
tagong & March 11, 1883 m. Theodora Dalme-
die *Edw.* Chilton and Queen's College,
Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service in
1912 and posted to Bengal Private Secre-
tary to H. E. the Governor of Bengal, 1922-27
Address Chittagong, Bengal.

WILLIAMS, GEORGE BRANNEY, M. INST. C. E., M. I. MECH. E., F. R. SAN. E., F. R. G. S. Member of Council, Institution of Enquiries (India), late Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal, Consulting Engineer & 7 April 1872, m Dorothy Maud, d. of E. Thorp of Cheshire Hulme, Cheshire Educ. Clifton Coll. Articled to Mr James Mansergh, F.R.S., F. Pres. Inst. C.E., 1891, Asst. on York Main Drainage Works, Birmingham Waterworks, Resident Engineer in-Charge, Whitby Waterworks, Served S. Africa, 1900-01, Railway Staff Officer, Asst. District Engineer, Imperial Military Railways, Pers. Asst. to Mr G. E. Strachan, M. Inst. C.E., 1902-05 Croydon Waterworks, Shrewsbury Waterworks Consulting Engineer to Colonial Office, 1906-08, Nairobi Drainage and Water works Malaya, Nakuru and Lambar station, designed Sketty Sewerage Works, &c., Sanitary Engineer, Bengal (1909), designed nearly 300 schemes of water supply, drainage and sewerage of which about 80 have been carried out including Jheria, Gaya, Hoozby, Chinsurah, Kalimpong, Serampore, Monghyr, Comilla, Ranegunge, Midnapore, Suri and Cooch Behar waterworks, Gaya Burdwan, Dacca, Kuraong and Titagarh main drainage schemes Publications Sewage disposal in India and the East, Elementary Sanitary Engineering (three editions), Practical Sanitary Engineering, Modern Sewage Disposal, E. J. Journal, 1908, "Rainfall of Wales," Geographical Journal, 1909, Flood discharge and Spillways in India, "Engineer" 1923, Recent Progress in Sanitary Engineering in Bengal Public Health in India, "Nineteenth Century," February 1928, 40 Address 28 Victoria Street, Westminster S W 30 Hill Street, S W Tower House, Calcutta and United Service Club Calcutta

WILLIAMS, CAPT. HARRIS ARMSTRONG, D.A.O. I.M.S., Resident Medical Officer, Bangalore General Hospital since 1907 b. 11 Feb 1875 Address General Hospital, Bangalore.

WILLINGTON, 1st EARL OF *cr* 1881, 1st Viscount *cr* 1924 1st Baron of RATON *cr* 1910, **FREDERICK FREEMAN THOMAS, G.C.B. (1918), G.C.M.G. (1926) G.C.L.E. (1913), G.B.E. (1917), Viceroy and Governor General of India, 1881 to 12 Sept 1896** s. of Frederick Freeman Thomas and Mabel d. of 1st Viscount Hampden, m 1892 Hon Marie Adelaide (C.I., G.B.E. *cr* 1924) d. of 1st Earl Brassey, one son A.D.C. to Lord Brassey when Governor of Victoria 1899, M.P. (L.) Hastings, 1900-1906 Bodmin Division of Cornwall, 1906-1910 Junior Lord of Treasury, 1905-1912 J.P., Governor of Bombay 1913-1919 of Madras 1919-1924, was present as Delegate for India at the Assembly of the League of Nations, 1924 Chairman of the Delegation from the Boxer Indemnity Committee which visited China Jan-July 1926 Major Sussex Imperial Yeomanry Lord to Waiting to H.M. Governor-General of Canada 1925-1930 appointed Governor-General and Viceroy of India 1931 Address Viceroy's House, Delhi and Simla

WILLIS, MAJOR-GENERAL EDWARD HENRY, O.B. (1918) O.M.G. (1917), Technical Adviser R.A., India, & 5th Sept 1870, Educ. at Path Commissioned Royal Military Academy, 1890, Commanded 94th Battalion R.F.A. (Lahore Division), 1914 Commanded 78th Brigade R.F.A. (17th Division) 1915 O.B.A. 12th Division, 1916-17, 17th Corps, 1917-18 Address Army Headquarters, Simla.

WILLIS COX SIR GEORGE HENRY Kt (1928), O.I.E. (1918) M.V.O. (4th) 1911, M.L. Mech. E., M.I.E. (Ind.) Master Security Printing India & 21 Oct 1875 Educ. St Paul's Sch London B.M.A. Woolwich R.E. 1899, Major 1914 Lt Col 1921 Col 1925 Arrived India, 1900 Deputy Mint Master, 1907 Master of the Mint October 1915 to February 1926 Past President of Council Institution of Engineers (Ind.), m 1900 3 daughters Address Caxton House, Nasik Road, G.I.P. Railway

WILSON-JOHNSTON, JOSEPH, B.A., O.I.E. (1926) Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal (1911), O.B. E. (1916), I.O.S., Administrator, Nabha, & 13 June 1876 m Helen J. M. Campbell Educ. Rugby and Balliol College, Oxford Address Nabha, Punjab

WINTERBOTHAM, GEOFFREY LEONARD B.A. (Canab.) Merchant Partner Messrs Wallace & Co., & 7 Oct. 1889 m Hilda, youngest d. of D. Norton, C.S.I. Educ. Malvern Coll. and Magdalene Coll. Cambridge Business in India since 1912, apptd Consul for Siam at Bombay, 1928 Member Legislative Council, Bombay 1926-27 Vice-President Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1927 President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1929 President, Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon 1929 Address Monte Rosa, Dady Sett Hill, Bombay 6

WOOD, SIR JOHN BARR, K.O.I.E., K.C.V.O., C.S.I., Resident in Kashmir, & 1870 m 1896 Ada Elizabeth, d. of G.A. Stace, I.E.S. Educ. Marlborough, Balliol Coll. Oxford. Ent. I.O.S., 1894 Under-Sec. to Govt of India Foreign Dept., 1899-1908, 1st Asst. in Baluchistan, 1903, Dy. Sec., Foreign Dept., 1905-10, Resident, Indore, 1912 Pol. Sec., Government of India 1914-22. Address: Srinagar Kashmir

YAIN, THE HON. SIR LEE AN K.I.H. Bar-at-Law, M.L.C. Ex-President, Bangalore Corporation Fellow of Bangalore University, Minister of Forests & April 1874 Educ. Bangalore College and Cambridge Address—Bangalore Secretariat, Bangalore

YOUNG, GERRARD MACKWORTH, M.A., O.I.E. (1920) F.R.G.S., I.O.S., Army Secretary Government of India since 1926 & 1884, m 1916 Natalie d. of the late Rt Hon Sir Walker Hely Hutchinson P.O. G.C.M.G. Educ. Eton and King's College, Cambridge Appointed Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab, 1908 Under Secretary to the Punjab Government 1913 Under Secretary Home Department Government of India 1916-19, Military Department India Office, 1919-20, Deputy Commissioner of Delhi Address Delhi and Simla

The Calendars.

A full Calendar will be found at the beginning of this book. Below are given details of the other Calendars in use in India.

The Jewish Calendar is in accordance with the system arranged A.D. 358. The Calendar dates from the Creation, which is fixed as 3,760 years and 3 months before the beginning of the Christian Era, the year is Luni-solar.

The Mohammedan, or era of the Hijra, dates from the day after Mahomet's flight from Mecca, which occurred on the night of July 15 622 A.D. The months are Lunar.

The Peshi year was derived from a combination of the Hijra and Samvat years by the order of Akbar, it is Luni-solar. The Bengali year seems also to have been related at one time to the Hijra, but the fact of its being Solar made it lose 11 days each year.

The Samvat era dates from 57 B.C., and is Luni-solar. The months are divided into two fortnights—*sudhi*, or bright, and *krishna*, or dark. Each fortnight contains 15 tithis, which furnish the dates of the civil days given in our calendars.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS IN 1931

Parsee (Shchensshahi)			Hindu		
Jamshedji Naoroj	March	21	Makar Sankranti	January	14
Avan Jashan	April	10	Holi (2nd day)	March	4
Adar Jashan	May	14	Lammasami	, ,	28
Zarthost-no Dloo	June	15	Coconut Day	August	27
Gatha Gambhars	September	5	Chakul Ashitami	September	5
Parsi New Year	, ,	7 & 8	Ganesh Chaturthi and Samvatsari		15
Khordad Sal	"	15	Dussehra	October	10
			Divall	November	9 & 10
Parsee (Kadmi)			Jewish		
Avan Jashan	March	16	Pesach	April	2 & 8
Jamshedji Naoroj	, ,	21	Shavuoth	May	22
Adar Jashan	April	14	Tikunoth	July	23
Zarthost-no Dloo	May	16	Rosh Hashana (1st day)	September	12
Gatha Gambhars	August	6 & 7	Yippur (2nd day)	, ,	21
New Year	"	8	Sukkoth (1st day)	"	26
Khordad Sal	"	14			
Mahomedan (Sunni)			Jain.		
Shab-e Barat	January	5	Chaitra Sud 15	April	2
Ramzan Id	February	20 & 21	Shravan Vad 13 to 30 and Bhadarva Sud 3	September	10 11 12 & 14
Bakri Id	April	29	Pajushan Bhadarva Sud 5		16
Muharram	May	28 & 29	Kartik Sud 15	November	25
Id-e-Milad	July	28			
Mahim Fair (Bombay City only)	December	24			
Mahomedan (Shiah)			Christian		
Shahadat-i-Hazrat Ali	February	10	New Year	January	1
Ramzan-Id	"	20 & 21	Day following New Year	"	2
Bakri Id	April	29	Good Friday	April	3
Muharram	May	28 & 29	Easter	"	4 & 6
Shahadat-e Imam Hasan	July	15	Christmas	Dec. 24, 25, 26, 28, 29 & 30	
Id-e-Milad	"	28	New Year's Eve	"	31

NOTE.—If any of the Mahomedan holidays notified above do not fall on the day notified, the Mahomedan servants of Government may be granted a sectional holiday on the day on which the holiday is actually observed in addition to a holiday on the day notified.

THE INDIAN CALENDARS

Mahomedan			1931		1937	
1931		1349.	April	18	Byasak	S 1
January 1	Shaban	11	May	8	Byasak	B 1
January 21	Ramzan	1	May 18		Jashtha	B 1
February 20	Shurwal	1	June 1		Jashtha	B 1
March 21	Zil-kaidah	1	June 17		Asad first	S 1
April 20	Til-hijab	1	June 20		Asad first	B 1
May 29	Moharram	1	July 16		Asad second	S 1
			July 20		Asad second	B 1
			August 14		Sawan	S 1
			August 29		Sawan	B 1
			September 13		Bhadarva	S 1
			September 27		Bhadarva	B 1
			October 12		Asu	S 1
			October 27		Asu	B 1
1931		1350.	1931		1938.	
June 18	Safar	1	November 10		Kartick	S 1
July 18	Rubbi ul Awwal	1	November 26		Kartick	B 1
August 16	Rubbi-us-Sanee	1	December 10		Magar	S 1
September 14	Jamadi ul Awwal	1	December 25		Magar	B 1
October 14	Jamadi-ul-Sanee	1	December 31		Magar	B 7
November 12	Rajab	1	Telugu & Kanarese			
December 11	Saban	1	(S=Sudee, B=Budee)			
December 22	Shaban	1	1931		1479	
December 31	Saban	21	January 4		Pushyam	S
			January 18		Pushyam	B
			February 2		Magham	S
			February 17		Magham	B
			March 4		Paigunam	S
			March 19		Paigunam	B
Bengalee			1931		1480	
1931		1337	April 2		Chitram	S
January 1	Pous	16	April 18		Vaisakhham	S
January 16	Magh	1	May 17		Vaisakhham	B
February 18	Falgun	1	May 31		Jyeshtham	S
March 15	Chaitro	1	June 16		Jyeshtham	B
			June 20		Adika Ashadam	S
			July 15		Ashadam	B
			July 29		Nija Ashadam	S
			August 18		Nija Ashadam	B
			August 28		Shravanam	S
			September 18		Shravanam	B
			September 26		Bhadrapadam	S
			October 11		Bhadrapadam	B
			October 26		Ashwagham	S
			November 9		Ashwagham	B
			November 25		Kartikam	S
			December 9		Kartikam	B
			December 24		Margashirsh	S
Samvat						
(S=Sudee, B=Budee)						
1931		1927				
January 1	Pous	S 1				
January 5	Pous	B 1				
January 19	Magh	S 1				
February 4	Magh	B 1				
February 18	Fagun	S 1				
March 1	Fagun	B 1				
March 20	Chaitra	S 1				
April 3	Chaitra	B 1				

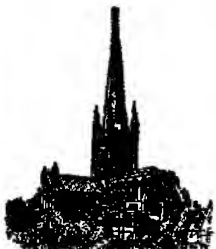
Tamil-Malayalam.

1931		1100.		1931		1197.	
January	1	Margali Dhanusu	18	August	17	Avani Chingam	1
January	14	Thai Makaram	1	September	17	Poorattam-Kanul	1
February	12	Masi Kumbham	1	October	17	Aippasi-Thulam	1
March	14	Panguni Meenam	1	November	16	Kartikai Brishohi	1
April	14	Chittirai Moottam	1			Kam	1
May	14	Vaikasi Vrishabhaci	1	December	16	Margali-Dhanusu	
June	15	Ani Mithunam	1	December	31	Margali Dhanusu	16
July	16	Adi Karkasam	1				

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